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ASSESSMENT THROUGHOUT THE METHODOLOGY CURRICULUM

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Abstract: The article deals with the forms of assessment, recommended by New Methodology Curriculum designed within the joint project of Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council Ukraine 'New Generation School Teacher'. The new approaches to training future English language teachers suggests changes not only in the content of Methodology course, but also in approaches to teaching, that are intended to promote high levels of interaction and student involvement in their own learning processes. These consequently implies the alteration of traditional forms of assessment aimed at checking theoretical knowledge of the discipline rather than practical skills needed for the profession of a teacher. So, assessment tasks are designed to reinforce learning throughout the programme. Each module has specified outcomes, assessed by a combination of stand-alone assignments and portfolios including two or more assignments. Final assessment is based on school practice as well as in-course assignments and qualification paper defence.
Keywords: future English language teachers, methodology curriculum, New Generation School Teacher project, assignment types, performance-based tasks, authentic tasks, portfolio assessment specifications, forms of assessment, objectives, learning outcomes, reflection.

Ukraine's move towards Europe and the wider world has brought into focus the need for higher standards of English among the country's citizens. The improvement that is needed can only be achieved if standards of English teaching are raised at every level of the education system. Pre-existing traditions in language teaching based on the approach, where English could be taught and examined simply as a school subject or college discipline, with an emphasis on knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and with little or no need to see the language as a means of active communication or as a life skill. Ukraine has set the standards that need to be achieved at various levels of its education system following internationally accepted standards for proficiency in foreign languages published in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages by the Council of Europe. However, there is a gap between what is recommended and what is actually happening. To make these standards realistic the new

Pre-Service Teacher Training (PRESETT) curriculum at Bachelor's level for trainee teachers of English was launched in ten Ukrainian universities in 2016, Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University among them.

The broad understanding of assessment within the Curriculum is shaped in the glossary it contained, which states that it is the process of collecting data or forming an opinion on learners' achievement, proficiency or progress either formally (awarding marks) or informally [3]. Therefore, the term 'assessment' can refer to both formal and informal assessments and it is more appropriate to use when referring to performance-based tests/ tasks and portfolios [2]. P. Black identifies three broad purposes of assessment:

1) those of certification of students' achievements;
2) the accountability of the education system through the publication and comparison of results;
3) the promotion of learning through the provision of helpful feedback [1].

The third purpose laid emphasis on interrelation between assessment and learning underlying the role that assessment can play in monitoring and raising educational standards. It was extremely important to create an assessment system within the Methodology Curriculum which embodies high standards and monitors performance focusing on procedures and products of assessment.

Assessment in the Methodology Curriculum consists of two main components:

- Continuous assessment
- Final assessment.

Continuous assessment is carried out by the methodology teacher during each module and is both progress- and achievement-focussed. Its main aim is to evaluate how successfully students achieved the learning outcomes for the module. Students complete assignments (including portfolios[1]) for which they are given grades according to the detailed criteria in the assessment specifications for each module in the Curriculum.

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[1] A collection of assignments developed in or out of class and documents that a learner has selected and collected to show growth and achievement over time.

The programme is focused on authentic assessment which requires that students engage with real-life problems, issues, or tasks for an audience who cares about or has a stake in what students learn. Authentic tasks enable students to make sense of and apply what they have learned and to establish clear connections between what they have learned in methodology class and the school practice which they observed or actually are involved in while teaching whole English lessons or just segments due to the given assignments. Such tasks provide a wonderful opportunity for students to demonstrate what they have learned in the course of a unit of the programme as a whole. Here is the example of the authentic task, which also illustrates the interrelation between all the elements of the Curriculum.

Module 1 'Understanding Learners and Learning', Unit 'Developing Learner Autonomy'.

Objectives of the unit aim at raising students' awareness and developing their abilities.

By the end of the unit, students will be aware of:

- the concept, principles and theories of autonomy; reasons for the development of learner autonomy; key elements and levels of learner autonomy
- psychological attributes of autonomous learners
- their own learning strategies and learning styles, their strengths and areas to work on
- and will be able to:
- help learners to develop learning autonomy and autonomous learning strategies
- use methods and techniques for fostering learner autonomy (pair work, cooperative learning) in class and beyond the classroom.

The Curriculum includes Indicative Content of the unit indicating the recommended items to ensure the possibility to meet the unit objectives:

- Definitions and theories of learner autonomy (the differences between learner autonomy, individualisation, self-instruction, self-directed learning, learner-centredness).
- Principles of autonomy
- Reasons for the development of learner autonomy. Lifelong learning
- Psychological factors in learner autonomy: self-regulation, individual differences (age, aptitude, cognitive style, academic performance, individualism), motivation

- Elements of learner autonomy: responsibility; self-awareness; decision making (determining the objectives, defining content, selecting methods and techniques, assessing progress)
- Levels of autonomy
- Autonomy in the classroom (pair work, group work, project work). Group-oriented approaches to developing autonomy
- Autonomy beyond the classroom (self-access, CALL, distance learning, tandem learning, studying abroad, out of class learning, self-instruction)
- European Language Portfolio as one of the tools for developing learner autonomy'.

Unit objectives find their reflection in the Module learning outcome, which states, that as a result of learning on this module, students should demonstrate the ability to give recommendations to a group of learners on how to plan, organise and take control of their own learning.

Such type of information concerning every module and unit of the programme is available for students from the very beginning of their learning in the programme. It is downloadable from New Generation School Teacher web site. At Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University students also use extensively the virtual learning platform (MOODLE) for information, assessment specifications of assignments and portfolio items descriptions including assessment criteria, indicative bibliography, suggested templates etc.

So, on learning on the unit students are asked to create a portfolio item – a set of recommendations aimed at developing learner autonomy in a specified group of schoolchildren – weighting 20 % of the assessment on the Module:

Compile a profile for a specified group of learners you observed at school (see the table below) and give a set of recommendations (maximum 300 words) aimed at developing learner autonomy. Refer to relevant theories.

Group profile

Age	
L1	
Cultural background	
Level of English	
Learning styles	
Learning needs	

Students are assessed on the basis of Task fulfilment which includes number of words, learners' profile included, deadline met and mainly on the suggested evidence of their ability to make practical recommendations for developing autonomy in learners with reference to relevant theories.

Assessment criteria vary according to assignment type. At the end of the course, all the scores for module assignments are averaged to yield a final grade.

One may trace such interconnection of unit objectives, module learning outcomes and assessment assignments throughout the whole Curriculum.

Here are some more examples of the similar assignment.

Unit 'Working with Materials'. Create a portfolio item:

Evaluate a unit from a course book for a specified educational context (secondary school, grade …) according to the set criteria. Write a report (250-300 words), justifying your decisions and giving evidence that this unit suits/does not suit learners' needs and the requirements of the curriculum.

Unit 'Error Analysis and Dealing with Errors'. Create a portfolio item:

Individually correct and grade a given piece of learner writing using agreed criteria. Submit the corrected paper and write a rationale (250-300 words), justifying your approach to the correction taken.

Unit 'Classroom Management'. Create a portfolio item:

Analyse a lesson observed during school practice focusing on organisation, modes of participation/interaction, classroom language, classroom resources.

Procedure:

- observe a lesson and do the observation tasks
- write an account of the lesson based on your observation of the organisation, modes of participation/interaction, and instruction-

giving skills; state which of these aspects contributed to the effectiveness of the lesson and why; identify the most important factors that you personally will need to attend to when managing your own classroom in the future.

There is a wide range of assignment types in the Curriculum. These assignments are intended as learning experiences as well as ways of assessing students. Assignment types include:
essay, reflective writing, report, presentation, quiz, lesson plan, case study, materials and test design, professional development plan, portfolio.

The Curriculum attaches special importance to the students' ability to reflect critically on their experience and combine that experience with prior knowledge. To develop this ability in trainee teachers is essential, as reflection is not a luxury; it is a necessity. In the Curriculum glossary we find the following definition of reflection: "A way of professional and personal development by conscious and systematic thinking over and analysing learning and/or teaching experiences" [3]. Reflection underpins the entire learning process throughout the Curriculum. Students are given reflective prompts which are open-ended questions or prompts that help them think about or process their learning. It is the crucial point in every session delivered to students in methodology course, every observation task they are to perform during their school experience and surely it is the basis for completing assignments for their assessment.

Here we provide more examples of such assignment types.

Units 'Principles of Communicative Language Teaching'. Create a portfolio item:

Write a reflective account (approx. 250-300 words) of microteaching addressing communicative dimensions in teaching grammar or vocabulary

Points to cover:

- things you have found challenging in microteaching and the experience you have gained from teaching or participating as a learner
- vocabulary/grammar activities you tried out and the feedback you received from your peers
- classroom conditions which helped you to teach/learn effectively or which interfered with your microteaching/learning

- any differences between the ways you learned vocabulary/grammar at school and the ways you would choose to teach it.

Module 4 Preparing to Teach 3. Create a portfolio item:

Write a reflective account (450-500 words) with evidence of your progress throughout this module and your development as a future teacher.

Account for your ability to:

design a lesson plan for use with a specific group of learners

- apply a set of criteria for evaluating coursebooks and materials for a specific learning/teaching context
- apply principles of task/test selection and design
- assess and evaluate learner's listening, speaking, reading and writing skills using set criteria
- identify different types of errors in learners' spoken and written language and deal with them appropriately.

As it was stated at the beginning of this article the working team of the project developed the assessment system with a focus on performance-based tasks and portfolios. Students are to design something (an activity, a set of activities, a segment of a lesson plan, a lesson plan), deliver it in practice and reflect on the experience gained.

The following examples of assignments illustrate the procedure.

Unit 'Developing Intercultural Competence':

Procedure:

- Choose a visual (an image or a film clip used to illustrate a story or a message) with strong representation of culture.
- Design and conduct a 5-7-minute classroom activity for developing cultural awareness.
- Reflect on your experience of trying the activity out in class in writing (maximum 150 words).

Unit 'Linguistic Competence: Teaching Grammar in Context'. Create a portfolio item – a set of activities for teaching grammar in context:

Put together four activities for teaching grammar in a communicative context to a specified group of learners.

Procedure:

- select activities using the following criteria: learners' needs, learners' age, level of English, learning styles, school curriculum requirements

- accompany each activity with a purpose, clear instructions and the description of the procedure
- teach one of the activities in your methodology class with your peers playing the role of your target group of learners.
- Write a reflective account (approx. 250-300 words) of microteaching.

So, students are extensively involved in either microteaching or teaching a group of learners during their school experience days therefore in real-life classrooms, which then become the basis for completing their assessment assignments. An important thing students often report about such established practice is that it makes them more confident and prepares for observed teaching stage of their school experience.

Final assessment is carried out at the end of the methodology course. It is aimed at evaluating how successfully a student achieved the learning outcomes of the whole Curriculum as detailed in the Profile of a Newly-Qualified English Teacher. This assessment consists of the following components:

- Average score achieved in all module assessments (30%)
- Observed teaching (40%)
- Qualification paper (30%).

Each component is assessed separately according to different criteria. To pass the Methodology course, students must be successful in all of the three components.

Observed Teaching is assessed in Semester 8. It is here that a student's ability to teach in a principled and well-organised way is assessed, according to the detailed criteria set out in the Curriculum document. It is recommended that students are assessed on the basis of ten observed lessons. Two of these lessons to be observed and assessed, using agreed criteria, by the course tutor and eight by the school mentor. The course tutor should assess classes at two different levels (primary and secondary).

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 student submits the paper in English at the end of Semester 8. The paper is assessed according to the detailed criteria. This accounts for 70% of the total for the qualification paper. A further 30% is allocated to the oral examination (defence) which is undertaken in English in the presence of the State Examination Board.

The analysis of the Methodology Curriculum materials shows the clear connection and interrelation between what trainee teaches are exposed to and what is included into their assessment assignments enabling meeting the units objectives and modules learning outcomes. Continuous assessment throughout the Curriculum aimed at promotion of learning through performance-based tasks and portfolio items which requires on the part of learners profound reflection about their own learning and teaching experience. Final assessment accumulates students' gains of the whole 3-Year Methodology Course and includes average score achieved in all module assessments, scores earned for observed teaching and qualification paper writing and defence.

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AUGMENTATIVBILDUNGEN IN DER SPRACHE DER MASSENMEDIEN

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Abstract: The following article deals with augmentative formations, that is, word formation products that reinforce or intensify the meaning of the basis. The focus is on the use of augmentation in the language of the German mass media. Based on a number of examples registered in current mass media texts, we have analyzed various word formation methods, the semantic peculiarities and the pragmatic performance of augmentative formations in modern German.

Keywords: mass-media language, augmentation, augmentative, prefix, prefixoid, composition.

Die Massenmedien stellen eine dominierende Informationsquelle und eines der wichtigsten Kommunikationsmittel in der modernen Gesellschaft dar. Sie werden als eine aktuelle Form der Kultur verstanden, die ein breites Publikum erreicht und sich an seine Entspannungs- und Unterhaltungsbedürfnisse anpasst, Interessen, Handlungsmaximen, Konsumverhalten der Menschen bestimmt und standardisiert. Um dem Publikum die Informationen schmackhaft zu machen, müssen die Medien ein Interesse für das Berichtete wecken. Dabei werden verschiedene sprachliche Mittel und stilistische Ansätze herangezogen. Zu solchen Mitteln gehören neben den anderen die sog. Augmentativbildungen.

In der Sprachwissenschaft bezeichnet man als Augmentativum oder Augmentativbildung (lat. Augmentare/augmentum „vermehren/Vermehrung") eine durch ein Präfix oder Suffix gekennzeichnete Vergrößerungsform [2, S.181]. Neben dem Terminus Augmentativum sind in der deutschen Forschungsliteratur zahlreiche synonymische Termini zu finden. Man nennt solche durch Wortbildung verstärkte Wörter Augmentativbildungen, Verstärkungsbildungen, Gradativbildungen, elativische Bildungen, Expansion, Modifikation, Intensitiva oder Vergrößerungsbildungen [5, S. 50].

Wir schließen uns der Meinung von Ruf an und behandeln die zu untersuchenden Kombinationen als Augmentativbildungen, weil sich der Begriff auf den linguistischen Forschungsbereich beschränkt, während andere Termini in ihrer semantischen Vielfalt die fachlich gebrauchte Bedeutung als eine Nebenbedeutung haben. Unter Augmentativbildungen werden hier Bildungen verstanden, in denen die Bedeutung eines in der Sprache frei existierten Lexems, durch ein Präfix/Präfixoid verstärkt wird.

Nach Bußmann sind Augmentativbildungen desubstantivische oder deadjektivische Ableitungen mittels bestimmter Suffixe (vor allem in den südromanischen Sprachen), die eine Vergrößerung des ursprünglich bezeichneten Gegenstandes anzeigen Im Deutschen wird dieser Terminus auf eine große Zahl emotional gefärbter - Präfixoide angewandt, die (bes. in der Jugendsprache) der Ausdrucksverstärkung dienen, z.B. *Riesen-, Spitzen-, Bomben-, Höllen-, Mords-, Pfunds-,* *sau-, hoch-, tod-, stock-,* z.B.: *Riesenspaß, Spitzengehalt, Mordshunger, sauwohl.*

Nicht nur Präfixoide sondern auch Präfixe können den Basisinhalt steigern: *Un-menge, ur-plötzlich, erz-reaktionär* [1, S. 111]. Anhand seiner Forschungen in diesem Bereich stellt Kammerer fest, dass die Augmentativa des Deutschen emotional gefärbt sind und der Ausdrucksverstärkung dienen [4, S. 298].

In der einschlägigen Forschungsliteratur wird der Terminus augmentativ bzw. Augmentativum häufig nur in Bezug auf substantivische Bildungen verwendet. So schließen Fleischer und Barz die Augmentation der Adjektive völlig aus [3, S. 210]. Wellmann vertritt die Ansicht, dass die meisten Augmentativmorphemen ganz oder weitgehend auf den Anwendungsbereich des Substantivs beschränkt bleiben [6, S. 487]. Andererseits gebe es aber auch Präfixe bzw. Präfixoide, die nur zur Wortbildung des Adjektivs dienen. In unserer Untersuchung gehen wir sowohl auf substantivische als auch auf adjektivische Augmentativbildungen ein, da wir keine Gründe dafür finden, solche lexikalischen Einheiten wie *supersympatisch* oder *riesenstark* von dieser Erscheinung abzutrennen.

Nicht nur in der Alltagssprache, oder wie manche Autoren behaupten, in umgangssprachlich-saloppen Sprachschichten, sondern auch in der Sprache der Massenmedien treten die Augmentativbildungen häufig auf. Dies bestätigt auch die empirische Analyse der Texte, die in der Wochenzeitung „Die Zeit“ – online in den Jahren 2017- 2018 erschienen sind. Zugrunde einer eingehenden Untersuchung wurde das Korpus gelegt, das 378 Belege mit augmentativen Präfixen und/oder Präfixoiden enthält.

Die semantische Analyse der Belege hat ergeben, dass im Korpus nur 17 von 63 in der Fachliteratur als augmentativ anerkannten Präfixen und Präfixoiden vorkommen. Solche Augmentativbildungen wie *Affen-, Atom-, Bettel-, Bitter-, Bomben-, Blut-, Bullen-, Krach-, Kreuz-, Monster-, Mords-, Sau-, Sterbens-, Stink-, Teufels-, Tief-, Welt-, Wunder-* u.a. sind für die politisch oder gesellschaftlich geprägten informierenden und meinungsbetonten Zeitungstexte irrelevant, es wurden keine Belege mit den entsprechenden Wortbildungseinheiten registriert. Zwar kommen manche von aufgezählten Augmentativa (z.B.: *Atom-, Welt*-) im Korpus vor, aber in ihrer direkten Bedeutung als Bestimmungskomponenten der Komposita, z. B:

Den nächstgrößeren stellt der Schlingerkurs der von Angela Merkel geführten Regierungen in der Atom- und Energiepolitik dar. (Die Zeit, 29.07.2017)

1917 übernehmen die USA eine neue welt- und europapolitische Rolle. (Die Zeit, 19.01.2017)

Die Augmentativbildungen treten in den untersuchten Texten mit verschiedener Häufigkeit auf. Der höchsten Vorkommensfrequenz erfreuen sich die Präfixoide:

- *super-* (*Superleistung*, *Supererfolg*);
- *groß-* (*Großforschungsprojekt*, *Großmeister)*
- *ultra-* (*Ultra-Konservatismus*, *Ultra-Liberale*),
- *multi-* (*Multikulturalität*, *Multi-Media*)

und die Präfixe:

- *ur-* (*Ur-Demokratie, Ur-iPhone*),
- *über- (Über-Thema, Überversorgung).*

Augmentative Präfixe und Präfixoide lassen sich mit Basen verschiedenartig kombinieren. Die Analyse der morphologischen Struktur der Belege hat folgende Kombinationsmöglichkeiten ergeben:

- Vorherrschende Verwendung von heimischen Präfixoiden/Präfixen vor heimischen Basen, z.B.: *Großereignis, Sonderweg, Sonderabsprache, Kernsatz, Spitzenkandidat.*

Das Grundproblem ist die Überkapazität. (Die Zeit, 26.01.2018)

- Geläufige Verwendung von heimischen Präfixoiden/Präfixen vor entlehnten Basen, z. B.: *Großkonzern, Sondermaschine, Spitzengremien, Spitzenpolitiker, Überdosis, hochkomplex, hochdotiert, hochsensibel.*

Der Tag eines Spitzenpolitikers ist nicht selten in 15-Minuten-Einheiten getaktet. (Die Zeit, 01.01.2018)

- Seltene Verwendung von fremden Präfixoiden/Präfixen vor fremden Basen, z. B.: *multikulturell, topmodern, Hyperkulturalität, ultrakonservativ, Mammut-Graffiti, Rekordniveau.*

Tausende Abbildungen künden vom kreativen Wirken der frühen Europäer: Mammut-Graffiti gibt es zuhauf nördlich und südlich der Pyrenäen ...(Die Zeit, 09.01.2018)

- Geringe Verwendung von fremden Präfixoiden/Präfixen vor heimischen Basen (z. B.: *Maximalforderungen, Rekordarbeitslosigkeit*).

Deswegen sei daraus ein "Megaerfolg" geworden, für den Microsoft später einen Millionenbetrag gezahlt habe. (Die Zeit, 27.12.2017)

Die semantische Verstärkung durch diese Präfixoide und Präfixe ist sowohl beim Substantiv (74,8%) als auch beim Adjektiv (25,2%) anzutreffen, wobei viele von Adjektiv-Kombinationen als Ableitungen von entsprechenden Substantiven oder Partizipien angesehen werden können.

Warum eigentlich ist das eine supergut und das andere superschlecht? (Die Zeit, 12.07.2017)

Im Besprechungsraum dann: Großformatiges von Umberto Boccioni und Pablo Picasso. (Die Zeit, 05.01.2018)

Die ultra-niedrigen Zinsen der Bank von England von 0,25 Prozent helfen auch. (Die Zeit, 18.01.2017)

70 Kinder aus 20 Ländern tragen Lieder vor, ein "multi-ethnisches Bildungsfest" soll es nach dem Willen der Veranstalter sein. (Die Zeit, 19.07.2017)

Heimat ist doch eigentlich ein ur-linkes Gefühl. (Die Zeit, 09.10.2017)

Außerdem sind solche Bewertungen (über-)lebensnotwendig. (Die Zeit, 20.01.2017)

Die Augmentativbildungen mit dem am häufigsten vorkommenden entlehnten Präfixoid *super-* haben im Korpus Konkurrenzformen mit den heimischen und fremden Wortbildungseinheiten, z.B.:

Damals saßen Regierungschefs zusammen, die zwar ihre nationalen Interessen vertraten, aber nicht im Gespräch punkten wollten, um das nachher zu Hause als großen Sieg und staatsmännischen Supererfolg zu verkaufen. (Die Zeit, 03.07.2017)

Sie bestätigte sich, als sie ins Moderne Leben wechselte und mit der Serie "Die Journalisten" 1967 einen Bombenerfolg erzielte. (Die Zeit, 04.01.2017)

Deswegen sei daraus ein "Megaerfolg" geworden, für den Microsoft später einen Millionenbetrag gezahlt habe. (Die Zeit, 27.12.2017)

Die Analyse der semantischen Eigenart von Augmentativbildungen ermöglicht, zwischen Steigerung bzw.

Verstärkung und Normüberschreitung zu differenzieren. Bei der Verstärkung kann man hauptsächlich von den zwei Grundmodellen sprechen, die meist auf die Vergleichsbildungen zurückgehen: *stocksteif* \`steif wie ein Stock\` (\`sehr steif\`). In vielen Fällen ist der Vergleich aber auch paraphrasierbar, z. B. *stocktaub, stockdumm* \`so dumm (taub) wie ein Stock steif ist\` oder *brandeilig* \`so eilig wie man es bei einem Brand hat\` oder *todsicher* \`so sicher wie der Tod\`. Metaphorisch erklärbar sind Bildungen mit *grund-*: *grundehrlich* \`bis auf den Grund des Herzens, der Seele ehrlich\`.

Die Präfixoide fremder Herkunft *ultra*- und *hyper*- bringen oft die Bedeutung der Normüberschreitung zum Ausdruck, z.B.: *ultrarevolutionär, ultraliberal, ultrademokratisch, hypermodern, hyperkorrekt, hyperkritisch.*

Die Automatisierung mag dem Menschen gewiss Mühen abnehmen, doch die Frage ist, wie diese <u>*ultra-smarte*</u> *Gesellschaft aussehen soll und welche Rolle der Mensch darin spielt.* (Die Zeit, 09.04.2017)

Am ausgeprägtesten ist aber in diesem Zusammenhang das Modell mit dem einheimischen Präfix *über-*: *überglücklich, überempfindlich, überelegant, überklug, überschwer, überlaut, überhöflich.* Das semantische Merkmal der Normüberschreitung hat auch das Modell mit *allzu*, das in den untersuchten Zeitungstexten recht häufig vorkommt (*allzu früh, allzu selten, allzu weit, allzu gut*).

<u>*Allzu schnell*</u> *ließe sich auf den Schluss verfallen, dass Laura Freudenthaler über das typische Opfer einer patriarchal geprägten Gesellschaft erzählt,...* (Die Zeit, 10.01.2018)

Im Unterschied zu *über*- lässt sich auch mit Adverbien kombinieren (*allzu bald, allzu gern, allzu oft, allzu sehr*).

<u>*Allzu lange*</u> *hatte es die NZZ verschlafen, neue Geschäftsfelder zu erschließen.* (Die Zeit, 16.12,2017)

Die Augmentativbildungen erfüllen außerdem eine bewertende Funktion, das bedeutet, dass die Journalisten mit deren Hilfe die Sachverhalte entweder positiv oder negativ bewerten können, z.B.: *supersympatisch* und *Superverbrecher* oder *hochdotiert* und *hochspekulativ*.

Vielleicht ist es etwas anderes, wenn eine Frau einen Blondinenwitz macht, als wenn es ein <u>*hochdotierter,*</u> *alternder Entertainer tut*. (Die Zeit, 07.12 2017)

Vor allem das <u>*hochspekulative*</u> *amerikanische Investmentbanking dürfte zur Disposition stehen*. (Die Zeit, 16.1.2017)

Es wäre aber falsch zu behaupten, dass die negative oder entsprechend positive Wirkung von dem Präfix oder Präfixoid selbst übernommen wird. Die Präfixe bzw. Präfixoide verstärken die lexikalische Bedeutung der Präfigierungsbasis, die für sich schon als positiv oder negativ bewertend anzusehen ist. Die Hauptträger der konnotativen Bedeutung sind die Basen \`spekulativ\` und \`dotiert\`.

Problematisch ist die Interpretation der Bewertungsart bei den Bildungen wie *hochsensibel* und *hochkomplex*. Erst im Kontext kann eindeutig bestimmt werden, ob in diesen Lexemen das Präfixoid *hoch* eine positive oder eine negative Bewertung verstärkt.

Die Brexit-Verhandlungen zwingen die Regierung in London, nicht mehr nur ideologische Phrasen zu dreschen, sondern sich den hochkomplexen Fachfragen zu stellen und Lösungen aufzuzeigen. (Die Zeit, 22.12.2017)

Die meisten empfänden Schmerz intensiver und reagierten heftig auf Zurückweisung, sie seien hochsensibel. (Die Zeit, 01.03.2017)

In den angeführten Kontexten drücken die unterstrichenen Augmentativbildungen eine negative Bewertung aus.

Wie unsere Untersuchung gezeigt hat, bedienen sich die Journalisten/Innen der ziemlich oft der Augmentativbildungen als Sprachmittel, die ihnen Einstellungen, Bewertungen und Stellungnahmen auszudrücken ermöglichen. Der kommunikative Zweck der Augmentativbildungen in der Sprache der Massenmedien besteht darin, dem Leser etwas als besonders wichtig und beeindruckend vor Augen zu führen und seine Anteilnahme zu wecken, aber auch ihn zu beeinflussen.

Als Ausdruck der Emotionalität und Originalität sowie in gewisser Masse der Mode tragen die analysierten augmentativen Kombinationen dazu bei, dass beim Leser ein größeres Interesse an der Lektüre aktueller Texte der Massenmedien geweckt wird.

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MOTIVARE ȘI METAFORĂ COGNITIVĂ ÎN TERMINOLOGIA ACTUALĂ

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Abstract: External motivation, the classification and characteristics of this type of motivation - attributed to an impressive number of specialized terms in contemporary scientific languages - is the topic we propose to approach in our study. The motivated relationship between the signified object and the term and the metasemic motivation (in the case of change of meaning) are two of our general research directions. The definition of the metasemically motivated "travelling" metaphor in terminology, the cultural sources of this type of metaphor, the patterns of interdisciplinarity it creates in the corpus of terms and/or specialized discourse, the multi- and plurilingual dimension represent the specific objectives of our research (applicative and theoretical). The descriptive-linguistic method, the contrastive method are the methods applied in the study to show the extent to which the condition of precision of the specialized meaning is met in the different languages. The research findings reveal that external motivation, the metaphor, represents one of the creative forces of present terminology.
Keywords: motivation, metasemic, metaphor, multilingual, terminology

Cadrul teoretic

Caracteristica „motivat" este atribuită termenilor specializaţi, în opoziţie cu majoritatea semnelor lingvistice care au caracter arbitrar (sau nemotivat) sub aspectul relaţiei extrinseci dintre concept şi realitatea extralingvistică. Caracterul motivat poate fi studiat din mai multe perspective. Există o *motivare absolută*: forma sonoră „evocă unele trăsături ale conţinutului denumit” [1, p.330]. Interjecţiile: *sst*! *deh*! ca şi onomatopeele: *hodoronc-tronc*! *tronca-tronca*! reproduc sunete, zgomote în mod sponatan. Există cuvinte cu simbolism fonetic ce reproduc, de asemenea, zgomote sponatane: *cotcodăceală, a mârâi, a hârâi* etc. *Motivarea relativă* nu se realizează numai la nivelul formelor fonetice.

Literatura de specialitate are în vedere şi alte tipuri de motivare: a. *motivarea internă* este de natură diacronică. Dispariţia cuvintelor de bază a dus la dispariţia motivării interne ; b. motivarea prin *modelatori semantici* (de tipul: *pro-, retro-, super*-etc) a rămas o constantă a lexicului comun dar şi a lexicului specializat. Aceluiaşi tip de motivare internă aparţin compusele (*târăie-brâu*), compusele savante (*morfologie, pediatrie*). Motivarea sincronică este tot un tip de motivare internă şi se manifestă deopotrivă, la nivelul lexicului şi/ sau la nivel morfologic. Vorbim despre *motivare paronimică*/ *motivare omonimică*: semnele primare *capră, broască* sunt termeni de referinţă pentru exprimarea unor trăsături distinctive din planul semnificatului noilor semne, formate în baza unor caracteristici comune care există între obiectele denumite de semnul primar respectiv, de semnul secundar (identitate de formă în ambele exemple). Această caracteristică defineşte omonimele *capră, broască, lac.* Termenul primar este întotdeauna arbitrar. Aşa de pildă, cuvântul *lac*, denumind suprafaţa unei ape este arbitrar în relaţia sa internă, ca şi în raportul cu realitatea exterioară, cu planul referenţial. Termenul derivat, însă, desemnând substanţa care dă luciu unghiilor/ parchetului etc este motivat intern prin asemănarea în plan ontologic (reflectată în planul conştiinţei) dintre *lac*, realitate geografică, şi *lac,* luciul folosit în cosmetică/în industria chimică.

c. *Motivarea externă* se bazează pe dezvoltarea unei relaţii între obiectul semnificat şi forma semnificantă, înafara sistemului lingvistic. Motivarea *metasemică* este unul dintre tipurile de motivare externă, ce se manifestă în cazul modificărilor de sens, în terminologia/ limbajele specializate contemporane. Sensul primar al unui cuvânt din limba comună şi/ sau dintr-un limbaj specializat poate dobândi numeroase sensuri secundare, derivate, graţie funcţiei „meta” (ansamblu semantic şi informaţional, comunicativ) ce contribuie la crearea unor numeroase corpusuri de termeni, prin schimbarea de sens. Motivarea metasemică este proprie limbajului ştiinţific, domeniilor de activitate conexe şi este o sursă de creaţie a metaforei terminologice.

Motivarea metasemică în limbajele specializate

Vasile Bahnaru [3, p. 72] realizează o clasificare a metasemiei, propunând în acest scop termenul de „metasemie implicativă” care se manifestă sub două aspecte definite ca 1.„metasemie implicativă de natură estetică” şi 2.„metasemie implicativă de natură denominativă”. 1. Dacă prima tipologie se manifestă printr-o imagine poetică ce se suprapune ideii mesajului creaţiei artistice, 2. metasemia implicativă de natură denominativă are funcţia de a desemna relaţia dintre un semn şi realitatea extralingvistică sau referentul, în accepţiunea lui de obiect particular aparţinând unei clase date (*colegul* din faţa ta), aparţinând referinţei la acţiune (*a citi*, nu a *cânta*), la calitatea numelui (*frumos*, *blând*), la atributul acţiunii (*frăţeşte*, *englezeşte*). Tiparele generale de realizare a metasemiei implicative diferă de la lexicul limbilor naturale, la limbajele specializate. La nivel lexical, metasemia se realizează prin tipare generale a căror manifestare concretă este proprie fiecărei limbi. Sunt tipare ce contribuie pe de o parte, la apariţia sensurilor noi, cuprinse în conceptul unui cuvânt (Universitate: Universitate Tehnică, Universitate de Medicină, Universitate Populară de Artă). În al doilea rând, tiparele concrete ale metasemiei implicative au relevanţă, prin mutaţiile semantice care generează omonimia (lexicală/ morfologică): *lac* - produs cosmetic; *lac* – produs chimic pentru întreţinerea locuinţelor; *lac* – întindere de apă etc.).

Eugen Coşeriu considera metasemia un tip de metaforă cognitivă („*expresie unitară..*) şi/ sau estetică (*„spontană şi imediată* a unei *viziuni*, a unei *intuiţii poetice”*), „o identificare momentană a unor obiecte diferite” [5], realizată la nivelul semnificatului.

Tipul de motivare a metaforei terminologice este de *natură metasemică*, bazată, pe modificări de sens, de trăsătură conceptuală, realizate în baza analogiei etc. Este un tip de motivare ce se realizează la nivelul metaforelor bilexicale şi plurilexicale. În metafora medicală „ochi de pisică amaurotic” [desemnează în oftalmologie, un tip de „cecitate unilaterală care se însoţeşte de un aspect strălucitor al pupilei” [2, p. 754] există un semnificant primar „ochi” (în expresia fonetică „ochi de pisică”, la rându-i, ea însăşi o metaforă) care desemnează elementul anatomic. Acest prim semnificant formează un semnificant secundar (boală a ochiului), prin relaţia de sens pe care o stabileşte cu determinativele „...de pisică” şi „amaurotic”, în context.

O situaţie relativ asemănătoare de motivare metasemică există în metafora medicală „Cap de meduză”, care desemnează „circulaţia colaterală vizibilă la nivelul peretelui abdominal, apărută prin dilatarea venelor periombilicale ca urmare a permeabilizării venei ombilicale în cursul hipertensiunii portale” [2, p. 308]. Semnificantul primar (forma fonetică „cap”) desemneză prin analogie, forma de ciupercă a vaselor de sânge. Prin relaţia de sens pe care o stabileşte cu sensul determinativului „... meduză”, acest prim semnificant devine semnificant secundar (bazat pe conceptualizarea trăsăturii ,,vizibil”, ,,transparent”a bolii).

Observăm fie şi numai pornind de la exemplele date, cât de complex este rolul conceptului în stabilirea diferenţelor de sens, a deosebirilor dintre diferitele terminologii („ochi”/„ochi de pisică”/„ochi de pisică amaurotic” etc). Nivelul de suprafaţă al metaforelor polilexicale este eterogen, cuprinzând sub aspectul expresiei lingvistice, unităţi sintagmatice diferite: med. *ser activ* (lat. serum- zer), med. *bordură în perie*, med. *ochi de pisică amaurotic*, med.*cap de meduză* etc.

Complexitatea contextului nu este dată atât de nivelul de suprafaţă, cât de nivelul de profunzime, de gradele diferite de fixare a elementelor metaforei.

Gradul de coeziune logico-semantică a metaforelor bi-/ polilexicale, vechimea, baza semică comună impun structuri stabile, contexte stabile.

Metafora terminologică: definiţie, clasificare

Lingvistica realizează distincţia dintre metaforizarea ştiinţifică şi metaforizarea terminologică.1.Noţiunea de metaforizare ştiinţfică are o sferă amplă, incluzând deopotrivă, metaforizarea conceptuală şi metaforizarea teoretică.Complexitatea vine din corelaţia cu dimensiunea creativă, psihologică, teoretică a procesului în sine. Metafora terminologică are referinţă generală asupra a trei niveluri care se condiţionează reciproc: nivelul gnoseologic (al teoriei cunoaşterii); nivelul conceptual; nivelul semiologic (caracter de cod şi informaţie).

Înțelegem prin metaforă terminologică o variantă funcțională a metaforei științifice. Analiza tipurilor de metafore terminologice pe care le avem în vedere se realizează la două nivele [6]:

1. la nivel denominativ (al realizării lingvistce)

Lexemul *canal* era utilizat în limba latină comună cu sensul de *şanţ*, *jgheab* şi aparţine patternului preconceptual „habitatul”. A fost preluat în terminologia actuală, de numeroase limbaje specializate, fiind utilizat cu statut interdisciplinar. În limbajul medical, de exemplu, *canal* (fr./ en. duct, canal, channel NA: ductus, canalis) este una dintre metaforele denominative care denumeşte conceptul general de „spaţiu de scurgere sau pasaj pentru materii organice (alimente, sânge), aer sau structuri anatomice (vase, nervi). Structură tubulară care conduce produşii de secreţie ai unei glande exocrine " Este o metaforă sinonimă cu alte două *constructe denotative* „conduct" „duct".

2. la nivelul imaginii abstracte (a conceptului)

Existând deja un termen - în exemplul excerptat, o metaforă denotativă, s-au creat nu mai puţin de 56 de metafore conceptuale, prin expansiune conceptual-semantică, în terminologia engleză, franceză, panromanică, în general : canal alveolar, canal deferent, canal ionic, canal tarsian etc. La fel, în cazul metaforei denominative torace, s-au format prin expansiune conceptele metaforice: med. *torace în butoi* (cf.fr. *thotax en tonneau*; eng.*barrel chest*); *torace în carenă* (cf. fr *thorax en carène*; eng.*chicken breast*); med. *torace în clepsidră* (cf. fr. *thorax en sablier*; eng. *rachitic chest*); med.*torace în pâlnie* (cf.*thorax en entonnoir;* eng. *tzunnel chest*) etc.

Metafora „călătoare" în terminologie

Fac parte din clasa metaforelor *„călătoare"*: med. *blestemul Ondinei, călcâiul lui Achile, mărul lui Adam, sindromul Alice în Ţara Minunilor* etc utilizate în sociolingvistică, mai ales, în discursul specializat cu grad mare de popularizare a ştiinţei. În sens general, conceptul de metaforă *„călătoare"* este utilizat în studiul lexicului și are în vedere construcții cvasi-universale, aparținând moștenirii culturale a Europei [4]. dintre care: *de la Ana la Caiafa, de la Alfa la Omega, călcâiul lui Ahile, cutia Pandorei, pânza Penelopei, Patul lui Procust* etc. În limbajele specializate, metaforele *călătoare*, pe lângă cultureme de tipul celor amintite, includ numeroase domenii-sursă. Culturemele, expresiile idiomatice pot avea funcţie expresivă în comunicarea interpersonală şi/ sau în limbajul media, în discursul beletristic etc. Metaforele terminologice din domeniul „dur" al ştiinţei depăşesc aceste funcţii purtătoare ale unei dimensiuni expresive vs subiective, prin însăși statutul cognitiv şi logic funcţional al constructelor metaforice: 1. contribuie la crearea de concepte științifice noi; 2. dau „nume" unor concepte, prin analogie. Considerăm că prin sistemele și subsistemele conceptuale ale științei contemporane, aparțin deopotrivă Europei și lumii întregi, arhitectura casei greceşti şi romane, modul de a-şi reprezenta lumea reală şi lumea de dincolo al civilizaţiilor arhaice, modul de a înţelege fenomenele, elemente ale civilizaţiei materiale etc, nume mitologice greco-latine (*Atlas*, *Axis* nume de vertebre în NA), mitologia Nordului, basmele orientale, operele literare etc.

Domeniile-sursă ale metaforei *călătoare* sunt deosebit de variate, importanţa majoră a acestora fiind de a asigura transparenţa necesară comunicării specializate.

Casa grecească şi romană este unul dintre cele mai productive domenii-sursă pentru metafora terminologică şi/ sau conceptuală, în termenologia medicală, în limbajul NA, în economie. *Economie* este una dintre numeroasele metafore conceptuale alcatuită din *οἰκο* – şi *νομ*(o)-, *νόμος* , intrată in limbajul european prin filieră latină. In lexicul comun al limbii grecesti, οἶκος, οἰκία , avea sensuri multiple: ,, casă, locuinţă, mediu ambiant"; ,, sală, aulă"; ,,rezidenţă"; ,,bunuri, proprietate , avere, patrie", iar *νομ(o)*- însemna ,,obicei, fel; ordin; drept, lege". Acceptiunea de mod de organizare a proprietatii private, conferită de Xenofon termenului este nuanţată de Aristotel, pentru care *oikonomia* însemna ,,arta gospodăririi", şi ,,arta comerţului".Termenul *oeconomia* (fr. *économie*; sp. *economia*; it. *economia*; rom. *economie*; engl. *economy*;) îl regăsim în limba latină la Quintilian, în urma cu aproape doua milenii, utilizat cu o acceptiune empirică.

Patternul/ domeniul-sursă de *natură antropologică* este deosebit de productiv în constructele conceptuale medicale: med. *semnul siluetei*; med. *sindromul degetului albastru*; med. *sindromul fibrelor lungi*; med. *sindromul omului roşu*; med. *sindromul părului argintiu*; med. *sindromul persoanelor cu cârjă* etc. Prin caracteristica ,,cunoscut/ determinat" dată de articolul hotărât (sindromul/ semnul/ boala) sfera conceptuală a denotatului este extinsă (A se compara: *med. sindromu**l** picioarelor fără repaus* cu *sindrom al picioarelor fără repaus*, ultimul creat artificial pentru comparaţie), încărcătura aparent subiectivă fiind neutralizată. Este asigurată convergenţa logico-semantică a ambilor termeni utilizaţi în demersul cognitiv: med-sindromul+ picioarelor fără repaus; med *sindromul* + *lacrimilor de crocodil* etc. La nivelul expresiei, constructele conceptuale sunt sintagme terminologice polilexicale, în care determinantul identifică trăsăturile noţionale (materia, obiectul, posesorul, clasa, întregul, partea etc) ale denotatului. Patternul *manus* a cunoscut în evoluţia proprie, momente de expansiune, în care s-au realizat numeroase constructe conceptuale, în baza analogiei. *Manu militari* cu referent în dreptul penal este o metaforă conceptuală utilizată cu sensul „ *prin forta publica*".Regăsim modelul *manus* la nivel macrosistemic, în corpusul unor constructe terminologice cu referent în managementul marketingului: rom. *manufactura* (fr. *manufacture*; sp. *manufactura*; engl. *manufactory*); rom. *manuscris* (fr. *manuscrit*; sp. *manuscrito*; engl. *manuscript*), în limbajul ştiinţelor sociale (rom. *manipulare*; fr. *manipulation*; sp. *manipulacion etc,* spre deosebire de limba engleză, unde circulă echivalentul *handling*), în economia de piaţă(rom. *manufacturier*; fr. *manufacturier*; sp. *manufacturero* etc). Termenul *management*, cu aceeaşi rădăcină *manus,* dar a dobândit o semnificaţie specifică:„ disciplina economică având ca obiect de studiu aplicarea politicilor, strategiilor şi deciziilor de conducere şi control al activităţilor economico-sociale, în functie de specific, în vederea obţinerii rezultatelor dorite privind stabilitatea şi dezvoltarea acestor activitati" (DE 2013). *Management* (< engl. *management; fr. management; sp. management*) este un construct conceptual universal căruia ar fi greu să i se găsească un echivalent adecvat, în limbile Europei contemporane. Termeni ca *administraţie* (<fr. *administration*)*, organizare* (<fr. *organiser*)*, gestiune* (< fr. *gestion*, lat. *gestionem*)*, conducere* (< lat. *conducere*) nu acoperă toate sensurile cuprinse în noţiunea de *management.* Termenul recent *leadership***,** împrumutat din limba engleză**,** care se impune tot mai insistent în limba română desemnează doar o trăsătură conceptuală a noţiunii de *management.*

Patternul preconceptual de natură *socio-economică/politică/ geografică*: etc: med. sindromul Golfului Persic; ec. Vinerea Neagră; ec. Marţea Neagră etc. este în expansiune în limbajele specializate contemporane. În baza acestui pattern se creează metafore deosebit de complexe, cu realizări sintagmatice diferite. Determinanţii, de regulă substantive proprii, realizează extensiunea prin trăsături conceptuale legate de spaţiu, de timp/ perioadă, de posesor, de identitate etc. Sunt metafore formate în baza unor nume de regiuni geografice, ţări (med. *sindromul Golfului Persic*) etc şi au un grad sporit de implicare în terminologia diferitelor domenii. Sintagmele din această categorie ilustrează ipoteza lui Roman Jakobson, că în descrierea metaforei „nu trebuie totuşi exagerat dezideratul apropierii semantice" [7, p. 308]. În sintagma *sindromul Golfului Persic* legătura semantică nu este una de forţă, aşa încât nu putem vorbi de identitatea semelor la termenul metaforic şi la metaforizat, ci doar de identificarea unei trăsături conceptuale a denotatului („simptome variate prezentate de veterani ai războiului din Golful Persic, 1990-1991”). Constructele conceptuale având ca domeniu-sursă socio-economia, geografia nu modifică/ nu substituie o trăsătură, ci creează o nouă noţiune prin adăugarea de „identificatori”. Nu trebuie să confundăm clasa *metaforelor desemnării* cu sintagmele conţinând un nume propriu, de asemenea, designative, non-transparente: teorema lui Thales, postulatul lui Euclid (formule, în sens tradiţional), numărul lui Avogadro (numere) şi/ sau în *nominativ*: boala Apert, efectul Coandă, semnul Lance, sindromul Chotzen, probe Conn, reacţia Casoni. Paternul preconceptual *zoomorf* nu este deosebit de productiv: med. *semnul ventuzei*; med. *sindromul lacrimilor de crocodil*; med.*sindromul leopard* etc.Metafora terminologică *capital* (cf. neutrul pl. latin *capita - capete*) denumeşte conceptul de „totalitate a resurselor financiare ale unei întreprinderi (bani, acţiuni)”, fundamentând conceptual, aproximativ 23 de metafore ale imaginilor abstracte (conceptuale), în limbajul international al afacerilor: *capital activ negativ* (fr. *capital actif négatif*, sp. *capital activo negativo*,); *capital circulant* (fr. *capital actif circulant*; it. *capitale di circolazione*; sp. *capital circulante*); *capital uman* (fr. *capital humain*, sp. *capital humano*, it. *capitali umani*) etc. Noţiunea este legată de obiceiul romanilor posesori de animale, de a da cu împrumut un număr de „capete”.

Metafora terminologică formată în baza datelor oferite de *habitat* şi a formelor de *cultură materială* aparţine în egală măsură moştenirii culturii materiale a Europei: ec. *economie*; med. *semnul scăriţei*; med. *semnul sertarului*; med. *sindromul de ansă oarbă*; med. *sindrom vestibular*; med. *suberoză* etc. Mitologia greco-latină este un domeniu-sursă care acoperă conceptual şi lingvistic un număr impresionant de termeni ştiinţifici, formaţi prin analogie. Există în terminologia engleză şi în limbile romanice aproximativ 17 constructe metaforice formate în baza modelului preconceptual *moneta* - legat semantic de vb. *moneo*, *ere*, *ui*, *itum* (a recomanda, a avertiza), dar si de epitetul „ sfatuitoarea” ce fusese atribuit zeitei Iunona (monetaria Romei se afla în templul *Iunonei Moneta*). In terminologia internaţională circula dubletul *moneda* şi *moneta* –primul avand etimon grecesc, cel de-al doilea, etimon latinesc; ambele forme au concurat la formarea metaforei conceptuale *monedă* (instrument de plată): *monedă comercială* (fr. monnaie commerciale; sp. moneda comercial); *rom. moneda fără valoare,*; rom. *moneda din aur si argint* (fr. *monnaie en or et argent*; *sp. moneda de oro y plata* etc…).

Alte domenii-sursă ale metaforei călătoare, terminologice şi conceptuale: patternul organicului: med. stearină etc.; *mineralul/ vegetalul*: med. *sindromul prafului organic toxic*; med. *spicul*; med.*spor*; med. *stafilom*; med. *talie* (în *lat.talea*-mlădiţă) etc.;

metafore de origine *erudită*: med. semnul arlechinului; med. semnul crenelului, med. blestemul Ondinei etc.; metafora terminologică creată în cheie *interdisciplinară*: med. sindromul de calotă; med.sindromul de linie mediană etc.; metafora de natură *religioasă*: med. semnul rugăciunii mahomedane etc; metafora având ca substrat formele de *civilizaţie*: med. semnul steagului; med. sindromul de restaurant chinezesc; med.specul etc.

Studiul metaforei terminologice în general, al metaforei *călătoare*, în special este deosebit de complex. Utilitatea constructelor metaforice (de concept/ imagine și denominație) este dată de trei aspecte: gradul de fluidizare a informației în comunicarea specializată; transparența de sens şi caracteristică noțională ; conservarea specificului limbilor naționale.

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DEFINING 'METHOD' IN THE POST-METHOD ERA

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Abstract: The paper aims to raise the English teachers' awareness of the terminological ambiguities and the loose use of several common TEFL words such as "method", "approach", "design", "technique", "procedure", "strategy", "methodology", and others. The efforts that have been made in an attempt to clarify them are presented in connection with the models proposed by E. M. Antony (1963), W. F. Mackey (1965), J. C. Richards and T. S. Rodgers (1982), H. H. Stern (1983), and B. Kumaravadivelu (2008). The ambiguities and overlaps found in these models are pointed out, and implications for the practitioners' condition are suggested.
Keywords: method, approach, design, technique, strategy, methodology

The Greek word *methodos*, which lies at the origin of both the present-day English word "method" and the Romanian word "metodă", encapsulates the idea of a series of steps that lead towards a conceived goal. The *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* [22, p. 6] defines method as "a planned way of doing something", which suggests both abstract thinking (*planning*) and execution (*doing*). A foreign language teaching method can be seen, therefore, as both a theoretical construct based on the way in which theories of language, learning and teaching are understood, and a set of specific classroom techniques. In David Nunan's words, it is at the same time "a unique set of procedures" that teachers follow in the classroom, and a "set of beliefs about the nature of language and learning" on which they base their teaching. [14, p. 5].

The same ambivalence of meaning that consists in a combination of theoretical construct and specific techniques, is present in the definition given to 'method' by Jack C. Richards and Richard Schmidt in the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* [20, p. 330]. Here, methods are seen as the results of various understandings of the nature of language, foreign language learning, students' learning goals and objectives, types of curriculum, teacher and student roles, materials, activities, techniques and procedures. In other words, both the theoretical component and the practical one are acknowledged, together with their reflection in the syllabus, the design of materials and classroom techniques.

In what follows, the various meanings of the concept of ‘method’ are explored, as part of a century-old tradition of foreign language teaching, and of a “*long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history”* of its conceptualisation [23, p. 453].

For centuries, EFL teachers have been dreaming of a way of teaching applicable to everybody, by anybody, anywhere and at all times, in other words, a universal method [18]. Methods, however, were mostly 20th century conceptualisations of the history of teaching foreign languages. Nevertheless, the meaning of the concept of ‘method’ itself is so ambiguous and elusive that some applied linguists consider it useless (e.g. H. H. Stern [23, 24], B. Kumaravadivelu [10, 11], R. L. Allright [1]). And yet, the term “method” continues to be a common term in the teacher’s jargon, in spite of the user’s frequent failing to recognise its problematic nature: each time it is either produced or heard, some of its meaning has to be inferred. The concept of ‘method’ is, therefore, a matter of interpretation and consequently carries the risk of misinterpretation. Moreover, the TEFL profession makes use of a plethora of related terms and concepts such as ‘approach’, ‘design’, ‘principle’, ‘practice’, ‘strategy’, ‘tactics’, ‘procedure’, ‘technique’, all fundamental to teaching and learning, but which are often used interchangeably, in spite of the efforts dedicated to defining them during in the 20th century.

The first applied linguist who tried to clarify the meaning of ‘method’ and thereby provide coherence to some of the elements used to describe language teaching was Edward Antony in his 1963 article “Approach, Method, and Technique”, published in the *ELT Journal*. As the title suggests, Antony proposed a distinction between the concepts of ‘approach’, ‘method’ and ‘technique’. He defined ‘approach’ as *“*a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. It states a point of view, a philosophy, an article of faith …” [2, p. 63-64]. That is to say, an approach embodies the theoretical principles governing language, language learning and language teaching. In other words, Antony believed that behind any teaching enterprise there are some theoretical assumptions, guiding lines or principles. He believed that these are present in the teachers’ everyday activity too, even if sometimes the practitioners are unable to state them as explicit foundations for their teaching. As H. H. Stern [23, p. 24-5] later put it, “A language teacher can express his theoretical conviction through classroom activities […]”.

Antony defined ‘method’ as “an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural” [2, p. 65]. ‘Method’ was thus explained as a practical illustration of an approach, a systematic plan for language teaching. Each method is based, in Antony’s view, on different principles regarding the nature of language and its teaching. Consequently, several methods can derive from the same approach. On the other hand, a method is implemented in the classroom through a number of techniques, that is, “a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective” [2, p. 66].

Apparently, the diffuse way in which the concepts of ‘method’ and ‘approach’ are still used today is due to the blurred boundaries between them, as defined by Antony. ‘Method’ in particular is so vague that it can mean almost anything. ‘Technique’, on the other hand, seems to be an abstraction separate from the context in which it occurs, and obscures the dynamic interaction on which classroom practice is based.

To conclude, Antony’s model is hierarchical and attempts to portray teaching as a top-down relationship, with approach informing method, and method informing techniques. As such, it has acted as a helpful tool for those who wanted to make sense of different language teaching elements.

Another attempt to explain ‘method’ was made in 1965 by the Canadian applied linguist William Francis Mackey, who insisted on the difference between method analysis and teaching analysis:

Any meaning of method must first distinguish between what a teacher teaches and a book teaches. It must not confuse the text used with the teacher using it, or the method with the teaching of it. Method analysis is one thing, therefore, teaching analysis, quite another. Method analysis determines how teaching is done by the book; teaching analysis shows how much is done by the teacher. [13, p. 138]

With his explanation of the fundamental distinction between “what a teacher teaches and a book teaches”, that is, between practices and principles, or between ‘method’ and ‘methodology’, Mackey actually increases the difficulty of explaining or justifying the concept of ‘method’.

Beyond the shadow of a doubt, as Mackey rightly noticed, the ambivalent concept of ‘method’ is commonly used to refer to two different aspects of language teaching: the theorist’s construct and the teacher’s classroom practices. One way of distinguishing between the two perspectives, Mackey suggests, is to use two different terms: “method” and “methodology”. Thus, “method” can be reserved for the principles conceptualised and constructed by theorists, and “methodology” for what the practitioners do in the classroom in order to achieve their teaching objectives.

In addition, classroom research has showed that more often than not, teachers never fully adhere to the basic principles associated to one method (Kumaravadivelu [9], Nunan [15, 16], Thornbury [25], Prabhu [18], Bell [3, 4], Cehan [8]. What they do in the classroom may be different from what is advocated by theorists. Moreover, the word “method” continues to be used to refer to teaching activities, procedures or techniques, such as explanation, demonstration, exercise, brainstorming, debating, and others. As a consequence, the distinctions between the concepts of ‘approach’ and ‘method’, on one hand, and ‘method’ and ‘technique’, on the other hand, are still blurred and invite modifications and refinements.

In another attempt to revise and refine Antony’s framework, almost two decades after Mackey, Richards and Rodgers (1982) [21], proposed a broader system – ‘approach’, ‘design’ and ‘procedure’ –, which maintained Antony’s three-part distinction. Richards and Rodgers’ first level, ‘approach’ has the same meaning as in Antony’s framework, and refers to the theoretical principles governing teaching and learning, and defines the assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and that of language learning. These principles and assumptions are axiomatic, generally drawn from feeder disciplines such as theoretical linguistics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, information sciences, conversational analysis, discourse analysis, a.s.o., and provide the theoretical foundations for what language teachers do in the classroom.

The second level, called ‘design’, reminds of Antony’s ‘method’, as it specifies the relationship of theories of language and language learning to the form and function of classroom instructional materials and activities. ‘Design’ overlaps to some extent with Antony’s ‘approach’ component, for it contains both strategic design principles and principles of materials design and production. ‘Design’ is, however, a broader concept than Antony’s ‘method’, for it includes specifications concerning: a) the content of instruction, i.e. the syllabus, b) learner’s roles, c) teacher’s roles, and d) instruction materials. Noticeably, the term “method” does not figure in Richards and Rodgers’ hierarchy, as they preferred to use it as an umbrella term to refer to the relationship between theory and practice.

The third level, ‘procedure’, comprises the classroom strategies, techniques and practices which result from particular approaches and designs. ‘Procedure’, like ’technique’ in Antony’s framework, refers to the moment-to-moment classroom activity. It includes contextual specifications of use and a description of what is expected in terms of execution and outcome. It is, therefore, concerned with teaching and learning techniques, types of exercises and practice activities, and the resources – time, space, equipment – required to implement the activities.

To conclude, Richards and Rodgers’ framework is broader and more detailed than Antony’s. However, it is also redundant and overlapping. For instance, when defining ‘approach’, they state that “theories at the level of approach relate directly to the level of design since they provide the basis for determining the goals and content of language syllabus” [21, p. 155]. Moreover, while defining ‘design’, they state that design considerations “deal with assumptions about the content and the context for teaching and learning ...” [21, p. 158]. Thus, the boundary between ‘approach’ and ‘design’ is blurred because the operational definitions of both relate to theoretical assumptions that belong to approach.

Both Antony and Richards and Rodgers’ frameworks have a three-tier organisation, which invites a three-level interpretation: approach - theoretical (research); design - applied (syllabus and materials writing); technique/ procedure - practical (classroom activity). Under ‘approach’ we recognise activities that are performed by theoretical linguists and psychologists, such as providing a description of the language system, a rationale and an account of the theories that govern language learning and teaching. The activities under ‘method’ or ‘design’ include syllabus construction, materials production, and the description of the learner and teacher roles, which are typically performed by applied linguists. The teacher’s activities are described under ‘technique’ or ‘procedure’.

This kind of division of labour among the three groups of specialists involved in language teaching can still be recognised in traditional education in the countries such as Romania, where a centrally planned educational agenda is handed down to the teacher, but is inadequate in the contexts where the teacher is playing multiple roles, including those of researcher, syllabus designer, and materials producer.

Furthermore, Richards and Rodgers' framework was designed to describe the components of various methods, as they were conceptualised by their theorists. It was meant to be, therefore**,** an evaluative tool as well. However, no such framework could be used to evaluate the effectiveness or the usefulness of methods in teaching, as it cannot take into account the countless variables that govern classroom teaching and learning, such as intake factors, input modifications, or instructional activities. To use Mackey's words once more, "Method analysis is one thing, […], teaching analysis, quite another. Method analysis determines how teaching is done by the book; teaching analysis shows how much is done by the teacher." [13, p. 138]

One year later, H. H. Stern provided the details of his own framework, and announced for the first time the end of the method in the title of one of the chapters of his book, "The Break with the Method Concept" [23, p. 43-50]. Within his framework, Stern preserved 'approach' as the strategic level where the educational linguistics theory and research are described. The practical level is called "methodology", and includes organization and techniques: objectives, linguistic content, procedures, materials, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional material. This level can be identified with Richards and Rogers' 'design'. He abandoned the concept of 'method', and opted for what he called a "strategy concept", which is part of a framework that consists of strategies and techniques.

Stern also identified "two major weaknesses" of the language teaching methods in his book, *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. "One is that they represent a relatively fixed combination of language teaching beliefs, and another is that they are characterized by the over-emphasis of single aspects as the central issue of language teaching and learning" [23, p. 473]. Stern's second weakness reminds of Mackey's [13, p. 156] remark on methods as "vague and inadequate because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a complex subject, inferring that that aspect alone is all that matters".

The weaknesses identified by Stern made him conceive a break with the concept of method [23, p. 477-96]. He questioned the suitability of linguistic and psychological trends in the case of some methods, and the very methods which they had inspired (e.g. the audio-lingual method), and announced the end of method.

A quarter of a century later, Kumaravadivelu [11] pointed to some flaws in Antony's and Richards and Rodgers' frameworks and especially to the blurred boundaries of the three concepts. In his opinion, the entire language teaching and learning process cannot be reduced to a tripartite hierarchical relationship between approach, method or design, and techniques/ procedures without taking into account other complex factors, such as the demands of the society, institutional resources and constraints, instructional effectiveness and learner needs. Instead, Kumaravadivelu suggested a two-part descriptive framework: 'principles' and 'procedures'. 'Principles' are insights derived from theoretical and applied linguistics, cognitive psychology, information sciences, and other disciplines that provide theoretical bases for language study and learning, and language teaching planning. They include not only theoretical assumptions but also principles that govern syllabus design, materials production and evaluation. 'Procedures' can be defined as sets of teaching strategies adopted and adapted by the classroom teacher in order to accomplish the goals of classroom language learning and teaching.

However, this framework cannot offer coherent principles for distinguishing methods, either, for the existing methods do not provide distinct or discrete paths to language teaching. Therefore, it is hard to say how many methods of teaching foreign languages there have been or still exist. D. Larsen-Freeman [12] and Richards and Rodgers [19] mention around twenty, including the Grammar-Translation Method, The Audio-Lingual method, Communicative Language Teaching, Community Language Learning, The Silent Way (De)Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, Task-based Learning, and others. The more recent Lexical Approach and the Multiple Intelligences could be added to the list. This plethora of methods can be partly explained by how these methods were created: only a few evolved gradually, by approximation and improvement of a previous method. Most of them appeared as a result of a pendulum swing from one extreme to the other, by rejecting the preceding methods. However, in either case, there are considerable overlaps both in theory and practice among them; more often than not, the more recent method took over and combined principles and procedures from the preceding ones. Thus, it has become obvious that the concept of 'method' has little theoretical validity and even less practical utility. Its meaning is ambiguous, and its claims dubious. Given such a checkered history, it has come to be looked on as a label without substance that has only "diminished rather than enhanced our understanding of language teaching" [17, p. 597], resulting in the feeling that language teaching might be better understood and executed if the concept of 'method' were not to exist at all. It is therefore no wonder that there is a strong sentiment to call it dead and assign it "to the dustbin" of history [15, p. 2], [6, 7].

In spite of the limited theoretical and practical validity, ambiguous meaning and, sometimes, condemnable demands made by method designers, methods have remained influential. D. Block [5] claims that while the concept of method no longer plays a significant role in the thinking of theoreticians, it still plays a vital role in the thinking of practitioners. Although many teachers have a reticent attitude to various methods as a direct consequence of the quasi-general dissatisfaction with the concept, this is often litlle more than a trait of the post-method condition. The teacher's interest in methods can be explained by how far they provide solutions to particular teaching problems in various contexts. Rather than playing a vital role in teacher thinking, methods are used (and misused) for pragmatic reasons.

What practitioners may expect is a revision of the character and content of classroom teaching, based on a reconsideration of pedagogic and ideological perspectives, and a rejection of post-method eclecticism as a valid solution, unless based on the knowledge of method. In a nutshell, the relationship between theory and practice has to be reconsidered, and starting from this reconsideration, post-method didactics need to gradually take shape.

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ZU WELCHEM TABU SCHWEIGEN SIE GERADE IM MEHRSPRACHIGEN KLASSENZIMMER?

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Abstract: The traditional taboos of mankind are the taboos of the sacred and of the impure. The issues of language impoliteness, verbal aggression and taboo violence have only recently come under a more intensive scientific scrutiny. The paper offers some possibilities for successfully avoiding of taboo words, wherefore it can also be a contribution for a better understanding of taboos in our own, as well as in other cultures and languages. However, the existence of differences between the languages was not sufficient to predict target-deviant behaviour. The question whether language dominance determines cross-linguistic influence has been discussed controversially in studies on simultaneously bilingual students. Flouting taboos entails direct or indirect, social or cultural sanctions.

Keywords: taboo, euphemism, culture, social taboo, verbal taboo, traditions, multilingualism.

Dem Konzept Tabu wäre wohl am besten entsprochen, wenn man darüber schweigt [8, 17]. Die Tabus sind doch keineswegs eine statische Erscheinung. Sie scheinen einem gewissen Veränderungsprozeß unterworfen zu sein, so dass sozialer Wandel auch eine „Änderung der Tabusitten“ mit sich bringen kann [1, S. 183]. Für die Entwicklung interkultureller Kompetenz ergibt sich hinsichtlich der Kulturspezifik von Tabus, dass die Lernenden prinzipiell nicht nur wissen sollten, worüber und wie man in der anderen Kultur kommuniziert. Die Lehrer sollten vielmehr auch wissen, worüber man in der mehrsprachiger Klasse nicht kommuniziert, schweigt oder nur in einer ganz bestimmten Art und Weise spricht. Wenn eine solche Sensibilität im Umgang mit den Tabus fehlt, so ist die Kommunikation generell gefährdet. Die Verletzung einiger Bereiche wird von dem „Kulturfremden“ oft nicht wahrgenommen, so dass Scham und Betroffenheit erst gar nicht auftreten, was bei den Kommunikationspartnern zu noch stärkeren Irritationen führen kann.

Die Fremdsprachendidaktik, die bislang den Komplex Tabu so gut wie gar nicht zur Kenntnis genommen hat, wäre daher gut beraten, sich intensiv mit Fragen *Gebrauch von Euphemismen* und anderen sprachlichen Strategien zu beschäftigen, die es dem Fremdsprachenlerner helfen, sich über tabuisierte Sachverhalte, Handlungen, Objekte und Wörter eigentlich mitteilen zu können.

Die Tabus haben auch eine Schutzfunktion für viele Menschen einer Gesellschaft, so dass Gesellschaften ohne Tabus gar nicht denkbar sind. Kaltenbrunner stellt fest, dass „eine totale Enttabuierung menschliches Zusammenleben zum Verschwinden bringen würde“ [5, S. 16]. Nach R. Dahrendorf sind die Tabus sind die „Achillesferse einer Gesellschaft“ [3, S. 73].

Wir möchten in diesem Zusammenhang noch einmal auf die besondere Rolle uns Verantwortung der Lehrkräfte hinweisen. Die Lehrer sollen Schüler/Studenten dabei unterstützen, ihr mehrsprachiges Potenzial und ihre Kultur zu entfalten. Sie sollen sie dazu ermutigen und zu begleiten, mehr über eigene Kultur und Religion zu erzählen. Die Lehrkräfte haben im Unterricht die Möglichkeit als Vorbilder und Berater die Rolle zu spielen, den anderen in den mehrsprachigen Klassen zu zeigen, wie es

Mehrsprachigkeit wichtig in der Gesellschaft ist, Türe zu öffnen und andere Sitten und Bräuche zu akzeptieren. Was in einer Gesellschaft als Tabuthema betrachtet ist, kann in einer anderen als offenes Diskussionsthema sein. Zum Beispiel, im Irak gilt es nicht als Tabu, sondern auch als etwas Provokatives, die Probleme zwischen den Religionsgemeinschaften offen zu diskutieren.

Nach Balle haben Tabus „zum Ziel, bestimmte, für die Gesellschaft lebenswichtige Dinge (Tiere, Pflanzen, Lebensvorgänge, Privateigentum) zu schützen und sie unberührbar zu machen, gesellschaftliche Ränge zu markieren und Verbotsschilder – auch verbal – aufzustellen: Sie stecken die Grenzen ab, immerhalb derer das Leben ermöglicht und der Gruppenzusammenhalt und Sinn für das Aufeinander-Angewiesensein gewährleistet werden“ [1, S. 183].

Der Glaube an die Kraft des Wortes ruft viele Tabus. Sigmund Freud nennt Tabus den ältesten ungeschriebenen Gesetzeskodex des Menschen, der verinnerlicht wird und zu einem „Tabugewissen”, „Tabuschuldbewusstsein” führt: die Übertretung erzeugt Schuldgefühle. Als ältestes Tabu führt S. Freud das Verbot an, das Totemtier zu essen” [1, S. 20]. Man denkt immer an den Anfang und zwar an das Wort als Teil des Gittes, als Träger der Macht und an den Satz „Am Anfang war das Wort” (Johannes Evangeliums). Daraus kommt auch der Glaube vieler Stammesgesellschaften, wo der Name als Mana und als Kraft, als Teil einer Person sei. Es ist wichtig hinzuzufügen, dass das Genannte immer präsent durch Namensnennung sei, selbst wenn das Objekt, das Tier oder die Person nicht da ist.

Das älteste Sprachtabu betraf viele Tiere wegen der Vorstellung der Wortmagie: z. B. *Schlange, Bär, Wolf, Wiesel* in verschiedenen Kulturen Europas. Der Sprachwissenschaftler Eugenio Coseriu widmet sich der Untersuchung von Tabutieren in mehreren Sprachen und schildert dafür mehrere Beispiele wie *die Kriechende, die Grüne, die Irdische* für die Schlange [2, S. 36], *Gevatterin, Bräutein, die Schöne, die Hübsche* für die Wiesel [ebd., S. 36]. Es ist noch ein berühmtes Beispiel von Sprachtabu des Tieres in mehreren Kulturen: „der Bär” für die Slawen ist *Honigfresser*, für die Germanen *der Braune*, für Nordeuropäer *breite Tatze, Termitenfresser, Ruhm des Waldes*, für die Balten *der Schlecker* etc.

Sigrid Luchtenberg versteht unter Tabu alle „mit Denkverbot oder Nennverbot belegten Gegenstände, Vorgänge oder Gedanken”, und fügt hinzu, dass dies „als gesellschaftlicher Prozess begriffen werden muss" [7, S. 24]. Die Aufgabe von Tabus ist, den Einzelnen über kollektiv verbindliche oder wirkende Verbote zu reglementieren. Karl Treimer geht davon aus, dass ein Tabu „ursprünglich nur alles Heilige, Geweihte – in Verbindung mit Gott – und davon abgeleitet alles mystisch Unberührbare, Gefährliche, Unreine" sei [9, S. 44].

Viele Tabuwörter existieren anderer Arten, die im Umfeld des Todes, der Geburt, der Religion usw. zu suchen sind. So sind in einigen Kulturen z. B. Namenstabus anzutreffen. Es ist wichtig hier hinzuzufügen, dass „nach dem Glauben von Grönländer besteht ein Mensch aus 3 Teilen: Körper, Seele und Namen" [1, S. 55]. Man darf einen Namen, der als Tabu gilt, nicht aussprechen. Bei der südafrikanischen Volksgruppe Zulu z. B. darf die Frau den Namen ihres Schwiegervaters nicht aussprechen [ebd., S. 56]. Ähnlich verhält es sich mit dem Namen eines verstorbenen Verwandten: Sowohl der Name des Toten, als auch alle Wörter, die auf irgendeine Weise den Namen des Verstorbenen in sich enthalten, sind Tabuwörter und dürfen nicht verwendet werden, bis einer der Nachkommen den Namen übernimmt [ebd., S. 90]. Es ist interessant zu bemerken, dass in vielen afghanischen Familien Frauen nicht mit ihrem eigenen Namen angesprochen werden. Sie werden eher mit abfälligen Bezeichnungen bedacht.

Auch der Name Gottes ist in vielen Religionen ein Tabuwort und zwar aus „Ehrfurcht vor seiner Macht und aus Angst, durch profanen Sprachgebrauch seinen Namen zu verunreinigen" [ebd., S. 95]. Man hat sich gescheut, den Namen des Gottes unnütz im Munde zu führen, deswegen kommen solche Euphemismen auf Deutsch für den Namen Gottes wie *der Allwissende, der Allmächtige, Er, himmlischer Richter, der Vater im Himmel, der Schöpfer, das höchste Wesen* usw. Im Folgenden wollen wir auf diesen Aspekt näher mit folgenden Beispielen von Ersatzwörtern für *Jesus Christus* eingehen:

a) Jesus Christus als Befreier*: der Welterlöser, der Beglücker, der Beseliger, der Seligmacher, der Tröster, der Mittler, der Versöhner, der Schützer der Menschheit;*
b) Jesus Christus als Sohn des Gottes: *Gottes eingeborener Sohn, der Vergottung*;
c) Jesus Christus als Sohn der Menschen: *die Menschwerdung, des Menschen Sohn, Sohn Davids, Fleischwerdung, Vermenschlichung*;

d) Jesus Christus durch Abkürzungen geäußert: *INRI* (Iesus Nazarenus Rex Iudaerum), *Ichtys* (Jesus Christos Theu Yios Soter);
e) Jesus Christus im Althochdeutsch: *ihs, ihusses, ihses* Eine volkstümliche Deutung für IHS ist im Deutschen auch „Jesus, Heiland, Seligmacher".

Es ist zweifelhaft, dass die Religionen unsere Speisen auch noch im 21. Jahrhundert bestimmen. Die Inder essen keine Kühe, obwohl sie schon lange in Europa sind, denn die Kuh gilt als heilig. Bei Moslems und Juden dagegen ist es üblich, Rinder zu schlachten und zu verspeisen. Für sie ist Schweinefleisch tabu. Das ist ein schriftliches, fixiertes, religiöses Tabu in der europäischen Kultur sowohl für Muslimen, als auch für Juden. Das Schweinefleischtabu in beiden Religionen wird spätestens seit dem 12. Jahrhundert oft damit begründet, dass Schweine im wahrsten Sinne des Wortes unsaubere Tiere seien. Die Christen essen sowohl Rind- als auch Schweinefleisch. Doch auch im christlichen Glauben hat Fleisch eine große mythische Bedeutung. Zum Beispiel ist das Bluttabu nicht ausreichend erklärbar. Nach jüdischem Glauben ist Blut aber nicht unrein, sondern „der Sitz der Seele". Wenn eine Frau nach der Menstruation sieben Tage lang als unrein gilt, so bezieht sich das nicht auf ihre Blutung an sich, sondern weil in ihr ein Todprozess stattgefunden hat, der den betroffenen Menschen unrein macht. Hinzu kommt noch Blut aus Wunden eines tödlich verletzten Menschen (z. B. nach einem Autounfall), das muss so weit wie möglich mit dem Toten beerdigt werden, damit kein Blut vom Körper verloren geht.

Das Nahrungstabu kann also nicht isoliert von der Religion gesehen werden. In der Orthodoxie wird der rote Wein als Blut, und der Brotlaib als Leib Christi, also sein Fleisch interpretiert. Die Protestanten betrachten Brot und Wein als Symbol. Die Katholiken hingegen glauben an eine Verwandlung in Blut und Fleisch. Diese Tabus oder noch mehrere andere machen das Leben insbesondere für die Lernenden aus anderer Kultur in der Gesellschaft manchmal sehr schwer. Sie sind abhängig von Ritten und Bräuchen, fühlen sich in ihrer Eigenständigkeit, Persönlichkeit sehr eingeschränkt. Viele Lernenden aus anderen Kulturen, die als Zuwanderer nach Europa geflüchtet sind, fühlen sich hier von allen geachtet und geschätzt, ein Individuum mit eigenen Rechten und auch Pflichten.

Die meisten tabuisierten Vorstellungen betreffen den körperlichen Bereich: körperliche Defekte, sexuelle Vergewaltigung, sexuelle

Handlungen, sexuelle Körperfunktionen, in Zusammenhang mit digestiven Körperfunktionen Stehendes (Defäktieren, Abort, Urin, Kot, Erbrochenes), Unreinheit, Schamteile des Körpers (Schamgegend, Schamhaar, Geschlechtsteile. Die körperlichen Tabus werden neben den anderen Tabus einer Kultur gezählt, in denen die schüchterne Umschreibung von Tabubegriffen in jeder Kultursprache selbstverständlich ist.

Es ist interessant zu bemerken, dass es in konkreten Einzelfällen auch andere Körperteile euphemistisch umschreiben werden, besonders wenn sie nicht der Norm entsprechen, wie zum Beispiel *große Lippen, dicke Nase* etc.

Die Nacktheit gehört ebenfalls zu den tabuisierten Vorstellungen, die sich bis auf das Wort Nackt erstecken, das durch die folgenden Ausdrücke ersetzt wird: *im Adamskostüm, im Evaskostüm, wie Gott jmd. geschaffen hat, barfuß bis zum Hals* (euphemismen.de), usuelle Euphemismen: *nur sein eigenes Fell anhaben* [4], *hüllenlos, textilfrei* [4], okkasionelle Euphemismen: *in natura, im Naturzustand, unbekleidet, ohne Textilien*, *textilarm , hüllenlos gleich Adam und Eva minus Feigenblatt, Naturkleid* [1, S. 152]. Viele Sportarten, bei denen Brust oder Hintern zu sehr wackelten, wurden auch als Tabus interpretiert. Nicht alle Tabulinien wurden in allen Kulturen zu diesem Thema aufgehoben.

Die größte Anzahl der Tabuwörter existiert auf dem Bereich der Toilette und auch dazu kommen Umschreibungen für Erbrechen, Durchfall, Luft Ablassen, Schwitzen und andere Körperfunktionen. Alle Substanzen, die einmal zu unserem Körper gehörten und später aus unserem Körper herausgetreten sind werden in unserer Gesellschaft als schmutzig und ekelig gesehen somit auch als Tabu interpretiert.

Zusammenfassend lässt sich noch einmal betonen, dass die Tabus uns von der Geburt an bis zum Tode, von unserer Kultur bis zu einer fremden Kultur begleiten. Hinzu kommen viele verhüllende Ausdrücke, die in vielen Sprechsituationen wegen Tabuwörter und Tabutaten auftreten. Nach Koller haben „Metaphern in der religiösen Sprache oft die Funktion, eine spezifische Reflexionsstruktur zu stabilisieren, was der ideologischen Sprachverwendung nahekommt" [6, S. 290]. Sprachbeobachtung solcher Art, Beispiele von Periphrasen, Metaphern und Euphemismen als Ersatzmittel scheinen gewichtig genug zu sein, warum wir im 21 Jh. von Tabus sprechen und das Verhältnis von Tabu zur Kultur und Religion klären.

Die Kenntnis von fremdkulturellen Tabubereichen, ist für einen Fremden ein Vorteil in einer anderen Kultur an Diskursen teilzunehmen und schützt ihn vor unbeabsichtigten Tabuverletzungen. Erst im Kontrast der Kulturen, im interkulturellen Kontakt, werden Tabus beträchtlich. Der interkulturelle Fremdsprachenunterricht wäre daher der richtige Ort für die Erkundung der eigenen und fremden Tabus. Der Unterricht sollte in einer mehrsprachigen Klasse adäquate Sprachmittel für Tabudiskurse entwickeln und die Toleranzfähigkeit der Studenten/Schüler auf jeden Fall fördern. Somit ist schlusszufolgern, dass der interkulturelle Fremdsprachenunterricht solche kommunikative Fertigkeiten vermitteln könnte, die es gestatten, fremdkulturelle Toleranzgrenzen auszuwägen und durch Tabuverletzung verschuldete Kommunikationsstörungen zu verbessern. Dementsprechend ist das Sprachtabu ein soziolinguistischer Begriff, der in der Sprechethik von Lehrern und Lernenden anzusiedeln ist.

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LE RÔLE DE LA MÉMOIRE DANS L'EXPLORATION DU TEXTE DRAMATIQUE EN CLASSE DE FLE

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Abstract: The article examines the role memory plays in the process of acquisition of French as a foreign language while using drama in the classroom. The suggested activities are designed to help learners improve and train their memory while working with the play *Cocorico* by Sylvaine Hinglais. The activities can be used with all learners regardless of their language proficiency level.
Keywords: *memory, drama, FFL classroom.*

Chez les enfants, la mémoire est très forte;
voilà pourquoi elle stimule à l'excès la fantaisie,
qui n'est que mémoire, soit dilatée, soit composée.
Giambattista Vico [Bagdasar et al., 1995: 333]

En analysant l'affirmation de Giambattista Vico, nous pouvons constater que les enfants sont ceux qui jouissent d'une forte mémoire. Dans l'acception de l'auteur, notamment la mémoire forte stimule la fantaisie, qualifiée comme *mémoire dilatée* ou *composée*. Par conséquent, pour cultiver la créativité, il faut laisser la fantaisie errer à l'aide d'une mémoire bien entrainée.

La définition de la mémoire comporte trois acceptions :

«1. Activité biologique et psychique qui permet d'acquérir, de conserver et de restituer des informations.

2. Aptitude à se souvenir.

3. L'esprit, en tant que siège des souvenirs. » [*Le petit LAROUSSE illustré* : 716]

En analysant la définition, nous observons que la mémoire constitue en même temps une activité biologique et psychique de l'être humain, une aptitude de celui-ci de se souvenir de quelque chose, mais aussi un centre des souvenirs.

Appartenant au domaine de la psychologie, la mémoire est définie comme « la capacité et le processus psychologique de réflexion de l'expérience antérieure à travers la fixation, reconnaissance et reproduction des images sensorielles, des idées, des états affectifs.

Elle réalise la cohérence de la vie intérieure et des liaisons interdépendantes avec la réalité objective. » [Șchiopu et al., 1997: 439] Phénomène complexe, la mémoire assure la diffusion de l'expérience antérieure d'un individu à la suite de la réalisation de trois opérations : fixation, reconnaissance et reproduction de tout ce qu'il voit, à quoi il pense et de ce qu'il sent. U. Șchiopu avance par l'idée que «la mémoire est comme la colonne vertébrale de la personnalité, étant impliquée dans la formation de l'identité.» [Ibidem] Vraiment le rôle de la mémoire dans la construction de la personnalité est incontestable. Or, la présence dans la mémoire des événements, des états affectifs attestés dans le vécu de quelqu'un contribuent à l'éducation de la personne aux valeurs, c'est-à-dire à la construction de la verticalité de celle-ci.

Si nous parlons de la typologie de la mémoire, alors dans LAROUSSE on distingue les types suivants:

1. „mémoire immédiate, dont la capacité est limitée;
2. mémoire à long terme, dont la capacité est illimitée;
3. mémoire épisodique, qui concerne les événements ponctuels;
4. mémoire sémantique, relative à des faits, à des connaissances générales;
5. mémoire déclarative (les savoirs);
6. mémoire procédurale (les svoir-faire);
7. mémoire inconsciente (qui influe sur l'activité psychique)." [*Le petit LAROUSSE illustré* : 716]

La psychologue U. Șchiopu précise que la mémoire peut être :

- « spontané,
- involontaire,
- verbale,
- actionnelle,
- affective,
- volontaire,
- intentionnelle. » [Ibidem]

Quant au processus d'apprentissage, il faut préciser que tous les types de mémoires y sont impliqués. En ce qui concerne la didactique des langues, la mémoire jouit d'un rôle à part. Il s'agit de l'acquisition de différentes structures, éléments et codes, soit du domaine linguistique (phonétique, lexical, grammatical), soit culturel et civilisationnel, qui aident le locuteur à construire correctement son discours.

Nos activités visant l'impliquation de la mémoire dans l'exploration du texte dramatique seront conçues autour de la pièce *Cocorico* [Hinglais et al., 1999: 58-61]. Mais avant de passer au côté pratique, il faut préciser que les ressources déposées dans la mémoire, auxquelles l'apprenant doit faire appel lors du travail avec le texte dramatique, parcourent une longue voie. Il s'agit de quelques étapes, dont:

1. « l'encodage de l'information, ou constitutions des traces, qui largement automatique en MCT, est davantage sous le contrôle du sujet en MLT et est favorisé par la structuration de l'apport;
2. le stockage. Alors que la durée de conservation des informations issues de l'apport est très limitée en MCT, la capacité de stockage permanent est considérée comme illimitée;
3. la récupération, facilitée par des indications contextuelles associées à l'information à rappeler. » [Cuq et al., 2003: 163]

De la multitude de typologies de la mémoire présentées dans la littérature de spécialité, nous nous axerons sur l'étude de quelques types de mémoires entrainés dans l'exploration du texte dramatique:

1. la mémoire affective;
2. la mémoire sensorielle;
3. la mémoire verbale;
4. la mémoire actionnelle.

La mémoire affective fait appel au vécu affectif de l'apprenant. Elle libère l'imagination. Cette chose est possible grâce à un entrainement assidu. Il est à mentionner que tous les exercices doivent être réalisés en groupe. Si nous nous transférons dans le cadre qui vise l'exploration du texte dramatique, alors il faut citer les suivants types d'exercices qui contribuent au développement de la mémoire affective:

- les exercices de décontraction;
- l'improvisation.

Quant aux exercices de décontraction, A. Cormanski propose le jeu *De la tête aux pieds*, dans le but de repérer et éliminer toute tension. Les exercices d'improvisation contribuent, à leur tour, à la libération de tout ce qu'on a en soi.

Par exemple :

- Le jeu *De la tête aux pieds* [Cormanski, 2005: 17]:

Déroulement

S'asseoir sur une chaise, mettre le dos des mains à plat sur les genoux, paumes tournées vers le ciel, épaules lâches, jambes écartées.

➢ **Visage**

Remuer la bouche en se concentrant sur les commissures des lèvres. Pincer celles-ci en tendant la bouche fermée vers l'avant, puis la relâcher. En relâchant les lèvres, les étudiants émettront un son choisi du titre de la pièce « Cocorico ».

➢ **Corps**

Toujours assis sur la chaise, lever lentement le bras à la verticale, puis l'épaule comme si un fil invisible le tirait par le haut. Quand le fil invisible tire l'épaule en haut, l'étudiant prononce le mot « *cocorico* ».

➢ **Tête**

Les étudiants déplacent les têtes délicatement de droite à gauche dans un mouvement très lent. Chaque fois qu'ils déplacent la tête, ils prononcent *cocorico* en ajoutant des syllabes : *co-/coco-/cocori-/cocorico*.

➢ **Voix**

Se tenir debout, jambes écartées les talons proches des pieds de la chaise. S'asseoir sur la chaise et se lever lentement. Répéter le mouvement en prononçant au moment de l'expiration *le son [o]*.

- *Improvisation*. Cet exercice permet aux étudiants de faire appel à leurs sensations et émotions :

  Par exemple :

Vous allez chez le docteur. Vous ne pouvez pas parler. Tâchez de lui expliquer vos problèmes en utilisant d'autres ressources de communication.

Ou

Vous avez les mêmes problèmes que les personnages de la pièce. Vous allez chez le docteur. Discutez avec lui.

La mémoire sensorielle fait appel aux sensations visuelles, auditives, olfactives ou tactiles. Pour entrainer ce type de mémoire, nous proposons *la méditation*.

Par exemple :

- *Par rapport aux personnages de la pièce, vous êtes bien portants.*
- *Vous pensez à un dîner avec un menu copieux.*
- *Le menu contient des produits qui vous aident à maintenir la santé du corps et de l'esprit.*
- *Vous sentez l'odeur des plats.*

Pendant ce type d'exercice, il faut garder le silence. C. Grosset-Bureau précise que cet exercice sur les perceptions « rend l'élève plus attentif sur à ce qu'il vit dans sa vie quotidienne » [Grosset-Bureau et al., 2000 : 49]. L'auteur propose de suivre plusieurs étapes pendant le jeu :

1. Les étudiants doivent être allongés sur le sol, les bras le long du corps.
2. Les yeux sont fermés et les muscles détendus pendant une ou deux minutes.
3. Ils s'éveillent et s'asseyent doucement.

La mémoire verbale est nécessaire pour retenir un texte. Pour qu'un texte soit mieux retenu, il faut l'articuler. Pour bien mettre en oeuvre cet exercice (*l'articulation*) C. Grosset-Bureau (*cf* C. Grosset-Bureau et al., 2000 : 79-81) suggère de suivre 3 étapes :

1. La sonorisation des sons-voyelles.

Par exemple :

- *Identifier les sons-voyelles dans la pièce à étudier ([a], [e], [i], [o], [u]). Articulez-les en vous regardant dans un mirroir. Inspirer puis chanter les sons.*
- *Projeter des syllabes. En inspirant da-, ensuite peu à peu en expirant de-, di-, do-, du-.*
- *Articuler de petites phrases qui présentent des difficultés de prononciation. (LE MARI : Coco... Cocoriri... Cocori...).*

2. La sonorisation des sons-consonnes.

Par exemple :

-*Prendre conscience de certaines consonnes, comme g (consonne sonore)/ c (consonne sourde) :ga, go, gu/ca-, co-, cu.*

3. L'intonation.

Par exemple :

Dire la même phrase sur un ton exclamatif, interrogatif : « LA FEMME : [...] Quand il était petit, elle ne le lâchait pas d'une semelle. [...] »

Dans la catégorie de la mémoire verbale, nous pouvons aussi ajouter les techniques de lectures comme :

- la lecture à haute voix;
- la lecture écrémage;
- la technique des mots-clés;
- la méthode des associations;
- la méthode vocale (apprendre le texte par coeur à haute voix, ligne par ligne, sans intonation), etc.

La mémoire actionnelle implique le mouvement. Pour mieux retenir le texte et jouer son rôle, les étudiants peuvent :

- *dire leurs répliques en bougeant, en marchant, en courant, en dansant*, etc.
- soit
- *choisir les actions accomplies par les personnages de la pièce et les mettre en oeuvre* (par exemple : *aller chez le docteur, mener une discussion avec le docteur, s'énerver,* etc).

En conclusion, nous pouvons affirmer que la mémoire jouit d'une grande importance dans le processus d'exploration du texte dramatique. De la multitude des types de mémoires, impliqués dans ce processus, nous avons choisi de décrire seulement quelques-uns. Bien sûr qu'il y a beaucoup plus d'exercices et des techniques à présenter. On peut aussi intervenir dans le parcours de ceux présentés par nous et de les adapter à son public cible.

Quand même, il faut préciser que pour l'étape de la lecture et de la compréhension du texte dramatique, on fait appel plutôt à la mémoire verbale. Pour entrainer le côté de la représentation, on impliquera la mémoire affective, la mémoire sensorielle et la mémoire actionnelle.

Bref, les ressources de la mémoire, quelle que soit leur nature, aident les étudiants lors du processus d'exploration du texte dramatique à mieux :
- retenir les répliques,
- comprendre et construire son personnage,
- jouer le spectacle.

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TACKLING THE CONCEPTUAL ISSUES IN LANGUAGE EDUCAITON: DO WE DEVELOP SKILLS OR COMPETENCES?

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Abstract: The article examines the sometimes confusing use of the terms competence and skills in the Moldovan language education context. Teachers of English as a foreign language seem to closely follow the guidelines of the national curriculum, which does not seem to facilitate the teachers' work in their design process. The fact that the term competence is opposed to that of skill in TEFL literature seems to be ignored by the authors of the curriculum. Thus, teachers feel forced to use the exact terminology from the curriculum, even if it can cause confusion.
Keywords: competence, skill, communicative competence, CEFR, lesson plan

The language education process is above all a process meant to enable learners to efficiently use the foreign language in real life contexts. Nowadays, language educators seem to be more and more aware of the importance of designing their education process in such a way as to enable the learners to appropriately (inter)act in real life contexts, being aware of all the factors influencing the communication process. The Moldovan education context is no exception, the idea being stipulated in the national curriculum at all levels (Curriculum national: Învățământul primar, 2018; Curriculum national pentru învățământul gimnazial, 2010; Curriculum national pentru clasele a X-a – a XI-a, 2010).

The Moldovan national curriculum is a competence-based curriculum, the authors of which emphasize the importance of identifying the concrete learning outcomes in the language education process. Thus, language educators are expected to design their education process in such a way as to enable learners to use the language appropriately in real life.

It should be signalled out that the Moldovan foreign language curriculum closely follows the guidelines of the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (hereafter, CEFR), which offers the language to describe a person's language proficiency level.

There are three main tiers: basic, independent, and proficient. These levels provide a scale of six levels (basic - A1 and A2, independent - B1 and B2, and proficient - C1 and C2). Each level describes what a person can do with the language at that particular level. It should be noted that the descriptions are associated with the four basic skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing, which are not called competeces.

Indeed, the description given for every level may help the language educators trace the learners' progress form the lowest level to the highest. According to the Curriculum national pentru clasele a X-a – a XI-a, Moldovan students are expected to be independent users of English (B1 level) when they leave high school. This means that learners can fluently communicate without effort with native speakers. In particular, the CEFR specifies that the learner:

- Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
- Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken.
- Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest.
- Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans (Common Reference levels).

The language educators should bear in mind the concrete descriptions for every level in order to be able to design their education process appropriately. Thus, while designing such a process the teacher should know its concrete outcome, i.e. what the learners will be able to do with the language in a particular context. Yet, while planning a course, a unit or a lesson language educators should consider other factors as well, such as: the learners, the context, the materials, the theories in language education, etc.

Penny Ur (2017) argues that teachers should make localised decisions based on the evidence they get from their practice. The scholar also mentions that these decisions should be 'informed choices that are right for their own classrooms' (Ur, 2017). It implies that teachers should rely above all on their concrete teaching/learning experience and make decisions not according to the latest trend in language education but according to what is most suitable for their learners' progress. However, these decisions should also be based on the existing models and theories in language education.

The question that one might ask oneself deals with teacher autonomy, i.e. 'To what extent does the National Curriculum allow Moldovan teachers to make localised decisions?' From my experience, I often hear teachers complain about the constraints imposed by the national curriculum. Yet, there appears to be a contradiction as the curriculum stipulates that it should be viewed as a recommendation meant to guide the teachers while designing the education process.

Another important issue confronted by Moldovan teachers still deals with the shift from an objective-based curriculum to a competence-based curriculum, especially when it comes to lesson design. In the past, the Curriculum recommended designing the education process according to the concrete objectives the teachers wanted to realize at the lesson. It happens so that what in the past was formulated with the help of the infinitive, now it is formulated with the help of the gerund. For example, the objective 'the learner will be able to define unknown vocabulary in context' has turned into the competence 'defining unknown vocabulary in context.' Consequently, planning a lesson has turned into a time consuming and tedious process, sometimes with no realistic practical application.

It should also be emphasized that teaching English as a foreign language would defer from teaching French as a foreign language. While making their 'informed choices' language educators will rely on their teaching experience on the one hand, and on the existing models and theories in foreign language teaching, on the other. Teaching English as a foreign language will thus differ from teaching French as a foreign language. However, it seems that the recommendations made in the Moldovan national curriculum heavily rely on the theories of teaching French as a foreign language. Moreover, French seemed to have influenced the CEFR as well.

Figure 1

The definition of the term competence is 'the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions' (CEFR: 9). Thus, it appears that such notions as knowledge, and skill are embedded in the broader notion of competence. Whereas the notion of 'characteristics that allow a person to perform actions' seems rather vague. It appears that competence is used to encompass every feature a person might need to act in real life.

While defining general competences, the CEFR authors appear to struggle to find their appropriate equivalent in English, offering the French term within brackets (CEFR: 11 – 12). The general competences are:

- Declarative knowledge (savoir);
- Skills and know-how (savoir-faire);
- Existential competence (savoir-être);
- Ability to learn (savoir apprendre).

It can be seen that the notions in French and those in English refer to different phenomena. Even 'declarative knowledge' does not refer to the same as 'savoir' in French. Moreover, 'to know' does not imply 'to act'. Being aware of something is not the same as being able to do something. It happens that a person has the necessary knowledge to do something, but is not able to transfer that knowledge in real life situations. Knowing does not necessarily mean doing. It appears that these issues could be interpreted taking into consideration Chomskyan competence-performance distinction.

We thus make a fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-learner's knowledge of the language) and *performance*, the actual use of language in concrete situations (Chomsky, 1965: 4)

While discussing the use of the terms competence and performance Gillian Brown mentions the existing 'wide range of interpretation' (Brown, 1996: 1) of these terms, which might lead various scholars to use them to mean quite different phenomena. John Lyons (1996) compares Chomskyan dichotomy with Saussure's dichotomy langue/parole. While competence is viewed as ideal knowledge of the language, performance mostly relates to the product of the use of the language.

Chomsky's initial use of the competence/performance dichotomy was not related to language acquisition. However, it is viewed as a starting point in TEFL as scholars started considering its implications in the field of language education. However, they focused primarily on the notion of linguistic competence, pointing to its limitations as language cannot be reduced to the mere idealized knowledge of its structure and grammar rules. That is why they introduced the concept of communicative competence as developed by Hymes who claimed that

…the goal of a broad theory of communication can be said to be to show the ways in which the systematically possible, the feasible, and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret actually occurring cultural behavior (Hymes, 1972: 286).

This perspective on human communication helped scholars review the previous models and theories in language education and develop the communicative approach to language teaching. As they agreed that linguistic competence is not enough to define the intricate nature of human communication, they preferred instead to use the term communicative competence which consisted not only of linguistic competence, but also of sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell, 1995):

1. Grammatical or linguistic competence, which is close to Noam Chomsky's definition of linguistic competence and which deals with the formal links used in the process of communication. It namely includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology.
2. Sociolinguistic competence, which consists of the social and cultural knowledge affecting the communication process. It enables the student to communicate appropriately, and thus make his/her intention clear.
3. Discourse competence, which implies the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive and coherent texts (e.g. formal letter, political speech, poetry, academic essay, cooking recipe).
4. Strategic competence, which involves the knowledge of both linguistic and exralinguistic communication strategies which enhance the efficiency of communication and, where necessary, enable the learner to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur.

The CEFR defines communicative competence as consisting of such features as: linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competences, and pragmatic competences. The CEFR authors used three components instead of four. It can be said that the pragmatic competences would refer to both discourse and strategic competences.

Thus teachers of English as a foreign language are expected to develop the communicative competence in their learners. Yet, the questions which should be addressed are the following:

- Will this enable the learners to actually use the language appropriately in real life situations?
- What do the existing models and theories on language education suggest?

The problem is that in the specialized literature the emphasis is not put on competence development but on skill development (Harmer, 1991; Ur, 2012). This can be explained by the fact that in English skill is the term meant to designate the learner's concrete ability to use the language, whereas competence is viewed as 'subconscious knowledge of language use' (Harmer, 1991: 14).

While defining the term skill, Harmer (1991: 16) states:

Literate people who use language have a number of different abilities. They will be able to speak on the telephone, write letters, listen to the radio or read books. In other words they possess the basic language skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading.

Harmer (1991: 18) also argues that in order for the learners to use the language appropriately, they need to develop a number of sub-skills to process the language that they use and are faced with. For example, the scholar states that the reading skill (also called a macro skill) is very broad. Whereas, the learners would use sub-skills (also called micro skills) to process the language they use and receive, e.g. reading for gist, reading to extract specific information, reading for detailed understanding, reading for information transfer, etc.

As seen, the TEFL literature actually opposes the terms *competence* and *skill*. The development of the first raises the learners' language awareness, which is extremely important in language education, whereas, the second enables the learners to use that knowledge in real life situations. Moreover, the latest concepts introduced in language education evolve around the term *skill*, e.g. higher order thinking skills, lower order thinking skills, 21st century skills.

When it comes to the Moldovan education context, teachers of English as a foreign language seem to develop competences in their learners, such as producing written messages and interactions, producing oral messages and interactions, etc. Figure 2 displays the heading of an actual lesson plan designed by a teacher of English. It should be pointed out that this is the traditional way of writing the heading to the lesson plan.

Subject: English
Form: XI
Date:
Teacher.
Topic: Unit II, Lesson 5 *Literary Focus Communication Is More Than a Monologue*
Type of the lesson: mixed

Specific Competences:
Communicative and Pragmatic Competence – Producing oral messages and interactions (Spoken Interaction)
Communicative Competence – Receiving written messages (Reading)
Communicative Competence – Receiving oral messages (Listening)
Communicative and Pragmatic Competence – Producing written messages and interactions (Writing)

Sub-Competences:
3.1. Defining unknown vocabulary in context, determining the basic, secondary or figurative meaning of the unknown words.
3.2. Deducing and wording the theme and the main idea of a written message.
2.1. Presenting orally some ideas, opinions and viewpoints found in an oral message, through expressing personal attitudes and using arguments.
2.2. Providing oral answers to a questionnaire / survey / an interview on topics of interest, using appropriate language and respecting soc cultural norms according to the role and relationships with interlocutors.

Operational Objectives:
1. Knowledge – Students will be able to decode unknown phrases; will learn short instructions and directions related to classr activities.
2. Skills – Students will be able to communicate effectively utilizing verbal and nonverbal skills. build their communication skills though simple speaking opportunities.
3. Attitudes – Students will form positive attitudes toward productive communication.

First, it should be noted the distinction between competence and sub-competence, the latter being a term used solely in Moldovan context (most probably the term sub-competences is the equivalent of Harmer's sub-skills). Second, the objectives seem to be the ones to actually enabling learners to perform/act, i.e. use the language appropriately. Third, the term operational objectives is again used exclusively in the Moldovan context, while the way they are formulated is rather confusing. Finally, there seems to be a discrepancy between the sub-competences and the objectives the teacher aims to realize at the lesson. It can be said that such a heading would not be of great help for both teachers and learners.

Unlike the lesson heading presented in Figure 2, the one in Figure 3 seems to be more specific, although it does not mention any competences. Yet, it can be seen that the teacher aims to both extend the learners' knowledge and develop some skills, enabling them to apply that gained knowledge in real life situations.

Figure 3

Form	11th
Unit	2
Lesson	4
Topic	Communication is More than a Monologue
Objectives	By the end of this lesson the student will be aware of: ✓ characteristics of effective communication and will be able to: ✓ distinguish key features of effective communication as opposed to communication failure.
Time	45 minutes
Material	Handouts, projector, laptop, spidergram

One should bear in mind that the lesson plan should guide the teacher throughout the lesson. It should reflect the specific sub-skills a teacher aims to develop in his/her students. Its primary aim is to serve as a reference point enabling the teacher to ensure a smooth transition from one activity to another. The purpose of the activities should be clear and related to the objectives of the lesson.

From my discussion with teachers, I noticed that they are afraid of making those localised and informed decisions as defined by Penny Ur. Although they complain about not having the autonomy to design the lessons as they would like to, they do not appear to want to make a change and defend their right to choose what is best for their learners. It is not totally clear though who exactly imposes the norm, as the national curriculum says that its purpose is to offer some guidelines as to how to design a lesson. The authors do not say that teachers must use the exact lesson plan suggested in the curriculum. Moreover, the teachers seem to be unaware of the fact that the curriculum suggests two ways of writing a lesson plan. The first one recommends Gagne's model consisting of nine events of instruction, the second suggests the ERR(E) model, which involves the following stages: evocation, realization of meaning, reflection, and extension.

The Moldovan teachers appear to use the ERR(E) model in their practice, writing long, sometimes incoherent, headings to their lesson plans, and totally ignore the other possibilities of designing their lessons. Thus, the process of designing a lesson has turned into a bureaucratic endeavour, where teachers would write something which might look good on the paper, but be devoid of any pedagogical value. Although they complain about it they seem to be reluctant to take responsibility for their design process.

In conclusion, teachers should be encouraged to be more autonomous and set realistic goals in their language education process. They should understand the difference between competence and skill in the TEFL literature, the theories and models of which they would use while designing their instruction. They should become more aware of the actual use of a lesson plan as an instrument meant to guide them throughout the lesson, and not as a sheet of paper which must be written only to be included in their portfolio. Finally, they should be able to defend their informed choices to have the lesson proceed in the way which they find best fitting their learners' needs. They should always remember that every lesson is to enable the learners to use the language appropriately in real life situations, something which can be achieved by developing/using/improving the learners' skills.

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THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM: MAKING YOUTUBE VIDEOS TO ENHANCE STUDENTS' LEARNING

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Abstract: The article introduces the notion of the flipped classroom, focusing on the benefits it can bring into the English language classroom. It presents the preliminary results of a small scale study on the way grammar topics can be covered when the flipped model is applied at the practical course of English with first year university students. The topic needs further investigation as it seems premature to clearly state the benefits of flipping the language classroom. Yet, it can be said that applying such a model can contribute to the development of learner autonomy as well as HOTs.
Keywords: flipped classroom, student-centred classroom, learner autonomy, HOTs

Learners must no longer sit there and expect to be taught; teachers must no longer stand up there teaching all the time. Teachers have to learn to let go and learners have to learn to take hold.
Brian Page

One of the topical issues of the Moldovan education context is the educators' lack of proper preparation to help learners develop the 21st century skills, thus equipping them with 'the necessary skills to be able to reason, question and judge the value of the received information' (Condrat 2018: 238). The traditional teacher-centred approach still appears to dominate the EFL classroom, where learners are viewed as mere recipients of the knowledge a teacher has planned to transmit.

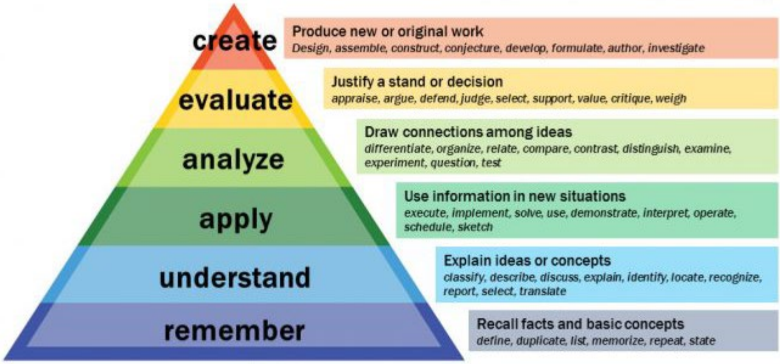
Instead of scaffolding the learning process, teachers prefer to rely on more concrete patterns where learners are expected to learn and act according to a well-prescribed pattern where there is no room for critical thinking and creativity. Teachers might erroneously think that a student-centred approach can results in 'anarchy' (Condrat 2014), something which has been proven to be wrong in the language education process (Brown 2001; Jones 2007; Lamb 2008; Scharle, Szabo 2000).

Learner autonomy should be a key concept in language education in present. Enabling the students to take responsibility for their own learning will inevitably lead to the development of higher order thinking skills (hereafter, HOTs). Becoming responsible learners means to "accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress learning, and behave accordingly" (Scharle, Szabo 2000: 3). To help students become autonomous learners, teachers should bear in mind that "in the traditional teaching-learning context, learner autonomy can only develop in an atmosphere in which both teachers and learners are sensitive to the mutual influences at play" (Lamb 2008: 7).

This can be achieved when both teachers and students engage in a constructive dialogue and make reasonable decisions regarding the language education process. When all the participants are involved in such a process, the learning can be considered as successful. Moreover, enabling the learners to actively participate in decision making and taking responsibility for their own learning will also contribute the development of HOTs.

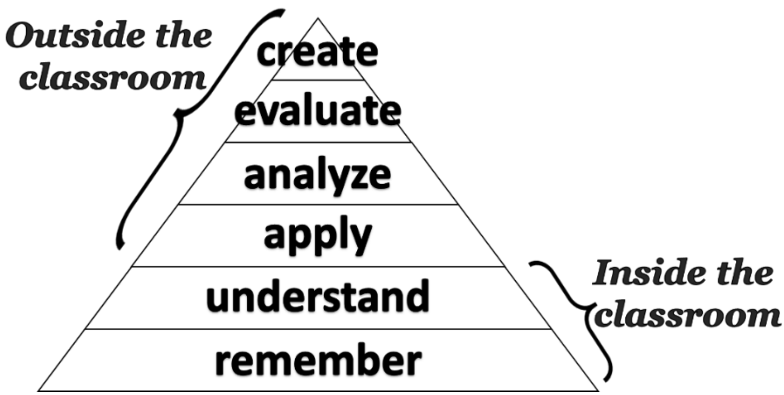
HOTs are the skills that enable the learners to judge the value of truth, to transfer the acquired knowledge to new contexts, to solve problems and to think critically. Traditionally they are positioned at the upper part of Bloom's taxonomy (Figure 1) (https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/). The distribution of skills goes from basic skills towards more complex, at its base there are the skills of recalling facts and basic concepts, whereas, on top there are more complex skills, such as analysing, evaluating, and creating.

Figure 4: Bloom's taxonomy



The traditional classroom is believed to little contribute to the development of HOTs. The made observations have shown that teachers seem to do most of the talk leaving little space for the actual learning to take place in the classroom. Learners seldom manage to develop such skills as critical thinking, problem solving, and creativity at the lesson of English. The overall skill development in a traditional EFL classroom is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 5: Skill development in a traditional classroom

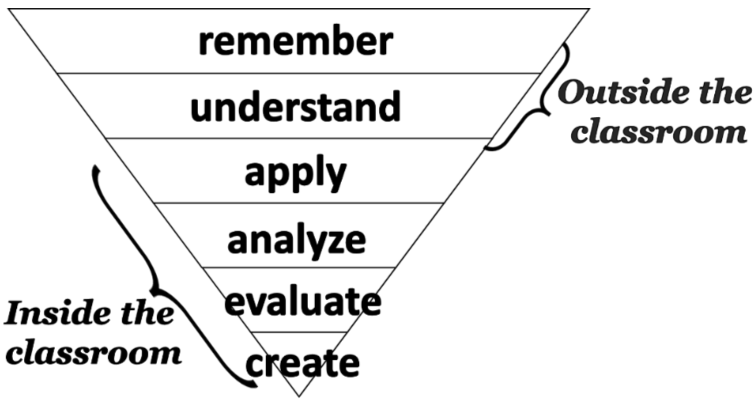


As seen, learners are generally expected to develop HOTs outside the classroom. The classroom time is mostly devoted to the development of such lower thinking skills as remembering and understanding. Undeniably, such skills are crucial in the process of language education (Condrat 2018: 238). Yet, in a student-centred classroom promoting learner autonomy the focus should be on the development of HOTs as well.

Another important aspect to be mentioned here is the way technology should be integrated in the language education process. Technological development has tremendously impacted people's lives, thus teachers should consider integrating technology in their education process in order to create more motivational learning environments, on the one hand, and to boost learner autonomy, on the other. Thus, technology should facilitate the dialogue between teachers and learners who should engage in a process of negotiating and co-constructing the meaning of what is to be learned and what skills are to be developed.

Educators started looking for viable solutions of technology integration that would flip the way skills are developed in a traditional classroom. The idea of flipping the classroom was introduced by two chemistry teachers, Bergmann and Sams (2012), who incidentally discovered the benefits of inverting the typical cycle of content acquisition and application. Such an inversion means the learners are expected to gain the necessary knowledge before the class (i.e. remember and understand) and apply it during the class (i.e. apply, analyse, evaluate, and create). Definitely, the classroom learning should proceed in an interactive way, where the teacher only assists the learners in the process, which means that learners become more responsible for their own learning and are engaged in meaningful

Figure 6: Skill development in a traditional classroom



activities meant to develop their HOTs. The flipped classroom is presented in Figure 3.

Carstens and Sheehan (2014: 93) summarize flipped learning as:

- a means to increase interaction and personalized contact time between students and teachers;
- an environment where students take responsibility for their own learning;
- a classroom where the teacher is not the "sage on the stage" but "the guide on the side";
- a blending of direct instruction with constructivist learning;
- a classroom where students who are absent due to illness or extra-curricular activities such as athletics or field trips, don't get left behind;
- a class where content is permanently achieved for review or remediation;
- a class where all students are engaged in their learning;
- a place where all students can get a personalized education.

It can be assumed that learning will be deeper as students will become more responsible, whereas their interaction will be more meaningful. They will be actively involved in applying the knowledge learned at home in meaningful ways and get immediate feedback from both peers and teachers. Such a lesson will promote students talk and encourage critical thinking. Moreover, it will offer the possibility for learners to learn from one another.

The question one might ask himself/herself is how to flip a language classroom. There are a series of steps to be taken before using this model.

- identify where the flipped classroom model makes the most sense for your course;
- spend class time engaging students in application activities with feedback;
- clarify connections between inside and outside of class learning;
- adapt your materials for students to acquire course content in preparation of
- class;
- extend learning beyond class through individual and collaborative practice (https://facultyinnovate.utexas.edu/flipped-classroom).

While studying the possible application of the flipped model to an English language classroom, I have noticed the tendency language educators have to use different videos as a means allowing the language educators to flip their classroom. In her webinar on *The Flipped Classroom: The role TED and technology can play to get students speaking*, Hsu-Ping Tuan examines the way TED talks could be used in a language classroom and the way they enhance the students' language learning.

I decided to gradually implement this model in my teaching practice with first year students of Alecu Russo Bălți State University studying English as their first foreign language. The group of students consisted of 17 students, 3 male students and 14 female students. The questions I posed were the following:

- How shall I flip the classroom to make the language learning process more meaningful and motivational?
- How do students react to the flipped classroom model?

The main method applied was classroom observation and informal interactions. They allowed me to collect the data for analysis and discussion.

One of the most strategic decisions to be made in a language classroom is what exactly can be flipped. I thought that the flipped model will best suit to invert the traditional way of teaching grammar. Thus learners will be asked to study a specific grammar topic at home, and then in the classroom they will be engaged in some interactive activities where they will apply the knowledge learned at home.

I also decided to make my own videos as I thought learners will find it more easily to understand the material if they listened to somebody they know and trust. I have also decided to make videos short, so that learners manage to process the information. Consequently, I made a series of videos which I posted on my YouTube channel. It should be mentioned that the learners were encouraged to look for additional explanations either online or in grammar books.

The first designed activity can be said to only partially introduce the flipped model. I thought it would be appropriate to help learners get used to the new model. I created a video where imperatives were used (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R7TXZVpFbNE). The learners were invited to write a dictation on it and reflect on the use of verbs. In the classroom they were asked to create their own presentations where the Imperative will be used.

This activity was later extended with another video on the same grammar topic (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4tuQP1mUKaY). This time, its primary focus was to develop critical thinking and creativity at leaners. Again the learners were asked to watch the video. They were asked to reflect not only on the use of imperatives but also on the message in the video. In the classroom, the learners were engaged in activities related to the video watched at home.

The actual classroom flipping happened when I made videos covering specific grammar topics related to the present, past and future tenses in English. Some of the videos can be accessed by clicking the following links:

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_gzCALvJEFM,
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LOYShK-tUak,
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TQ1opnITKXA,
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g92zc9LOSmk.

In the classroom, the students applied that knowledge gained at home. From my observation, students still preferred to be engaged in less interactive activities. Being used to doing exercises at home, they would willingly do grammar exercises in the classroom. However, when they were asked to engage in more interactive activities, they did it less willingly.

I have noticed that the students did not like to work collaboratively. They did not seem to have the collaborative and communicative skills well-developed. When faced with a problem which has risen in their groups, they would not look for solutions, but would instead start blaming one another. In addition, they were unable to organize their work so that it leads to success.

In my opinion, this can be the result of the instruction model they got used to at school. The students are not prepared to take responsibility for their own learning, instead they still expect the teacher to be in the centre of the instruction process. Consequently, the learners become insecure and less motivated to learn independently. Another problem resulting from the teacher-centred approach can be seen in the learners' inability to work collectively and to solve problems. From the made observations it can be concluded that high school in the majority of cases contributes little to the development of HOTs and learner autonomy. Thus, most of the learners seem to be unprepared to face the challenges the university academic context involves.

The topic of flipped classroom is worth investigating further. It should be seen as an alternative to traditional teacher-centred instruction, which can boost the learners' autonomy and motivation. This model can also contribute to the development of HOTs. It is true that applying this model is quite challenging and might be met with a certain degree of resistance from the part of the students and teachers. Yet, in the end, it can help develop the learners' 21st century skills. In addition, it also brings the fun element into the classroom, creating more motivational learning environments.

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IMPROVEMENT OF STUDENTS' LEARNING VIA GROUP WORKING AND TUTORING

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Abstract: This study aims to provide a clear understanding of group working in the classroom for implementation of active learning methods has become of great need especially group working as an effective method to encourage and motivate students while learning in the classroom. In fact, working in groups has been considered to prove better inspiration, motivation, engagement and effectiveness of learning activities of students. The article highlights scientific findings of researchers on the issue and reveals practical experience of student group working. It can thus be conceivably hypothesized that all profits and benefits of group work in English classes can potentially contribute to qualitative students' outcomes. It was discovered that working in groups is strikingly different from the conventional one as cooperation is a complete challenge and creates positive interdependence in team work. Moreover, participants turn out to be responsible for each other's success. Concurrently, such new approach focuses on task and maintenance roles and outcomes. On reflecting the changes and new approaches in student's learning that have been used, it's worth saying that group learning stimulates student's critical thinking, everyone is involved in debating, discussing, clarifying their statements and concepts being considered in the class. Our class sessions showed and assumed that the students being tutored not only learned more than they did without tutoring, they also developed a more positive attitude about what they were studying. In addition, the tutors learned more than students who did not tutor. The observed improvement in students learning can be interpreted as being a result of group work and peer tutoring.
Keywords: group working, team learning, cooperative learning, active learning, interactive learning.

Practical life experience shows that all the activities of our lives — working, learning, worshiping, relaxing, playing, and even sleeping — occur in groups rather than isolated from others. Most people prefer to live in groups. Most people belong to many different groups, so the number of groups in the world probably reaches well beyond six billion. The world is literally teeming with groups. Group work is influential interpersonal process that takes place in groups.

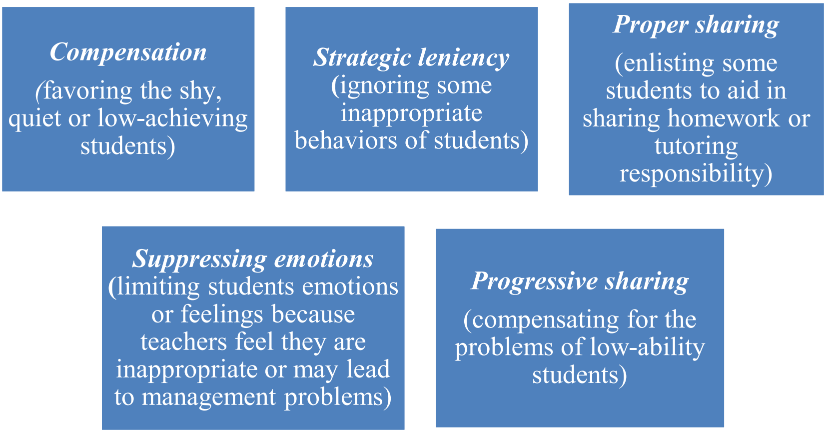
For centuries, scholars have been fascinated by groups—by the way they form, change over time, dissipate unexpectedly, achieve great goals, and sometimes commit great wrongs. It is believed that group work can minimize the occurrence of confusing moments and enhances learning students' motivation and encouragement that result from working in small groups. That is why group working has been a heated topic in second language learning for the past two decades. Its role as a significant supplement to teacher feedback has been well demonstrated in various scientific sources.

According to grounded researches, a number of experienced scientists have investigated effectiveness of group working for improving students' learning outcomes (Paulus, 1999; Shihhsien, 2011; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006) and the dynamics of pair interaction in peer feedback sessions (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Storch, 2002a; Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996; Zhu, 2001). However, most of the previous researches on students' interaction in peer feedback sessions was conducted in ESL and mainly investigated how students interacted with each other. Although Topping proposed that students should be of equal status when paired into peer assessment dyads, this is a rather idealistic situation since "there are evidently individual differences that affect perceived status and may impact peer feedback perceptions and subsequent performance" (Strijbos, Narciss, & Dnebier, 2010) [3-6].

The views expressed by Paulus, Shihhsien, Mendonca & Johnson, Slavin confirm [5] that dividing students into small groups seems to provide an opportunity for students to become more actively engaged in learning and for teachers to monitor student's progress better and properly, assess progress through questioning, discussions, and checking workbook exercises and quizzes geared for the particular group.

According to David Berliner, teachers who engage in small group instruction seem to attend five strategies of teaching [6].

Figure1. Strategies of teaching in small groups according to



David Berliner.

Thus, the apparently simple task of organizing small groups involves numerous complex decisions and strategies. Researchers have found that students benefit from peer-tutoring and group work because the curriculum and instruction are tailored to the students' abilities. Dividing students into small groups seems to provide an opportunity for students to become more actively engaged in learning and for teachers to monitor students' progress better and properly, assess progress through questioning, discussions, and checking workbook exercises and quizzes geared for the particular group.

Overall, group work is also called pairing students, that is the assignment of students to help one another on a one-to-one basis or in small groups in a variety of situations. There are three types of pairing:

- students may tutor others within the same class;
- older students may tutor students in lower grades outside of class;
- two students may work together and help each other as equals with learning activities.

The purpose of the first two types is to pair a student who needs assistance with a tutor on a one-to-one basis, although small groups of two or three tutees and one tutor can also be formed. The third type, also called peer-pairing, is more than tutoring.

It is worth saying that experienced researchers R. Slavin and Nancy A. Madden indicate that of the three pairing arrangements, peer tutoring within the same class is the most appropriate. A student who is a higher achiever or who has completed a lesson and has shown understanding of the material is paired with a student who needs help. One noteworthy facet of the research concerning peer tutoring, highlighted by Slavin and Nancy A. Madden in "What Works for Students at Risk" and by Theresa A. Thorkildsen in "Those Who Can Tutor" [3], suggests that through group-pairing students are less threatened by peers, they are more willing to ask fellow students questions that they fear the teacher may consider "silly". Particularly, they are less afraid that fellow students might criticize them for being unable to understand an idea or problem after a second or third explanation.

Generally, a peer tutor is anyone who is of a similar status as the person being tutored. In an undergraduate institution this would usually be other undergraduates, as distinct from the graduate students who may be teaching the writing classes; in an K-12 school this is usually a student from the same grade or higher. There are some basic rules to establishing your peer tutoring program, the key to success is a clear objective. Thorough planning and evidence gathering activities will contribute to substantiation of the decisions you will make [3].

Moreover, the importance of peer tutoring is emphasized in scientific works of R. Slavin and A. Madden [3] who postulate that peer tutoring within the same class is the most common in elementary and middle schools. Researchers have found that students benefit from peer-tutoring because the curriculum and instruction are tailored to the students' abilities.

Most researchers claim that group work may be a useful and effective means of teaching but its development and appliance of interaction cause striking changes among students positively and negatively. The most argumentative findings are discovered by Heron J. and presented in his work *'The Complete Facilitator's Handbook' (2006).* The author notices positive forms of group dynamics in the characteristics of a successful group. According to him, the group should be task- and process-oriented. Generally, it means that the students cooperate with each other and with the teacher as well as being involved in the learning process by solving problems and making decisions. Apart from being interactive, the group should also be personal work oriented. In a successful group the students know how to engage in interpersonal work and feedback but they are also able to concentrate on their individual work which is of great importance to classroom dynamics. If the students know how to express their personal feelings and emotions, the group becomes more cohesive due to honesty and trust among the group members. Such positive attitudes of the learners help to confront problems and conflicts which may arise at any time during the group life [7].

Unfortunately, the positive forms of classroom dynamics have their negative counterparts because of which the learning process may be distorted or held back (Heron 2006). The first form of negative group dynamics is educational alienation which means that the group seems to be limited to only one learning objective. Very often it may take the form of the alienation of intellect when the group pursues only the mental objectives while the emotional life of the group is left aside. The reverse kind of alienation may also take place. The students become so concerned with the emotional side of learning that they forget about the learning process itself. Since a single-stranded learning objective is not recommended, both types of alienated group dynamics are dangerous for the group processes. The second form of negative dynamics is psychological defensiveness which may arise at different stages of a group's history. The main source of negative feelings in a group is usually the anxiety of the learners. This tension may be connected with lack of acceptance or fear of performance. Members' anxiety can also be generated by other threatening issues like group conflict, fear of teacher's authority and control, lack of mastery or competence.

It should be beard in mind that all forms of group dynamics, both positive and negative, can be controlled and facilitated by the teacher. Effective facilitation can be supported by switching between different strands of learning and creating a holistic course design [7].

Having learnt and analyzed scientists' viewpoints and works on the essence and significance of group working and peering it was decided to experience such new methods of teaching and learning in the classroom. This research was caused by the following reasons: on the one hand, the need of pedagogical institutions for quality curricula, assessment, content, procedures, and on the other hand, public interest in raising the quality of foreign language teacher education have made the initial teacher education system in Ukraine change considerably [1-2]. One more urgent reason is that Ukrainian schools need young people who are more flexible, creative, and active and who can solve problems quickly, make decisions, think critically, communicate ideas effectively and work efficiently within teams and groups. The only knowledge is no longer enough to succeed in the increasingly complex, fluid, and rapidly evolving world in which we live. In order to make better more effective life-long learning and potential success it is now widely accepted that young Ukrainian people need to have opportunities to develop personal capabilities and effective thinking skills during their education.

The new generation teacher approach has been successfully implemented for students' learning at the sessions at Faculty of Foreign Languages of Pavlo Tychyna Uman State Pedagogical University.

The following new approaches and objectives: to discover potential benefits of group working and students peering, to develop cooperation skills, critical thinking skills, communication skills, to explore how to work as a team have been successfully applied at our class periods for students learning. That is, new ideas, activities and methods have been effectively fulfilled at the sessions.

First of all, it was observed that students prefer grouping or pairing work when learning. Secondly, it was interesting for us as teachers and scientists to compare traditional groups and teams learning cooperatively. On the one hand, it was rather important to notice that in traditional small groups the teacher asks students to group to do some class assignment what causes the ignorance of interdependence, individual accountability and, what is more, communication skills. On the other hand, such structured approach puts the emphasis on the task itself to be done and to get more knowledge than practical skills. To crown it all, each person is responsible only for him/herself.

Nevertheless, it was discovered that working in groups is strikingly different from the conventional one as cooperation is a complete challenge and creates positive interdependence in team work. Moreover, participants turn out to be responsible for each other's success. Concurrently, such new approach focuses on task and maintenance roles and outcomes.

On reflecting the changes and new approaches in student's learning that have been used, it's worth saying that group learning stimulates student's critical thinking, everyone is involved in debating, discussing, clarifying their statements and concepts being considered in the class.

To put things together, it may be concluded that all profits and benefits of group work in English classes can potentially contribute to qualitative students' outcomes. Our class periods showed that the students being tutored not only learned more than they did without tutoring, they also developed a more positive attitude about what they were studying. In addition, the tutors learned more than students who did not tutor. The observed improvement in students learning can be interpreted as being a result of group work and peer tutoring.

Further research in this area may contribute valuable information for teachers regarding their roles when using group work in the classroom.

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INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT IN ESL CLASSROOM

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Abstract: This paper is devoted to cultural competence and its development in the teaching and learning environment. The definition of the notion ‘cultural competence’ is presented and constituent elements of intercultural competence – knowledge, skills, and attitudes are specified. The attention of the author is devoted to authentic materials and some activities of their usage are presented. Some methods and techniques of intercultural competence teaching are noticed and specified.
Keywords: intercultural competence, skill, knowledge, attitude, authentic material, methods.

It has been widely recognized in the language teaching profession that learners need not just knowledge and skill in the grammar of a language but also the ability to use the language in socially and culturally appropriate ways. This was the major innovation of 'communicative language teaching'. At the same time, the 'communicative approach' introduced changes in methods of teaching, the materials used, the description of what is to be learned and assessment of learning. The Council of Europe's 'Common European Framework of Reference' embodies these innovations and also emphasizes the importance of 'intercultural awareness', 'intercultural skills', and 'existential competence'. The 'Common European Framework', like other recent publications, thus introduces the 'Intercultural Dimension' into the aims of language teaching. Its essence is to help language learners to interact with speakers of other languages on equal terms, and to be aware of their own identities and those of their interlocutors. It is the hope that language learners who thus become 'intercultural speakers' will be successful not only in communicating information but also in developing a human relationship with people of other languages and cultures [3].

There are many definitions of “culture”. The American psychologist Harry Triandis, for example, defines culture as “the human-made part of the environment” [8]. The Dutch cultural psychologist Hofstede defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind” [6]. Culture can be defined as “the sum of a way of life, including expected behavior, beliefs, values, language and living practices shared by members of society. It consists of both explicit and implicit rules through which experience is interpreted" [5]. Geert Hofstede, the most famous researcher in the field, refers to culture as a "programming of the mind" [6]. All researchers dealing with the concept of culture on a theoretical basis agree that culture covers a very broad field.

A great deal of research has been undertaken in the field of intercultural competence which has led to many different definitions and understandings. Almost researchers understand "intercultural competence" as an ability to develop targeted knowledge, skills and attitudes that lead to visible behavior and communication that are both effective and appropriate in intercultural interactions [4].

Constituent elements of intercultural competence (Adapted from Deardorff, 2006) are knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Knowledge: cultural self-awareness (articulating how one's own culture has shaped one's identity and world view); culture-specific knowledge (analysing and explaining basic information about other cultures (history, values, politics, economics, communication styles, values, beliefs and practices)); sociolinguistic awareness (acquiring basic local language skills, articulating differences in verbal/ non-verbal communication and adjusting one's speech to accommodate nationals from other cultures); grasp of global issues and trends (explaining the meaning and implications of globalization and relating local issues to global forces).

Skills: listening, observing, evaluating (using patience and perseverance to identify and minimize ethnocentrism, seek out cultural clues and meaning); analysing, interpreting and relating (seeking out linkages, causality and relationships using comparative techniques of analysis); critical thinking (viewing and interpreting the world from other cultures' point of view and identifying one's own).

Attitudes: respect (seeking out other cultures' attributes; value cultural diversity; thinking comparatively and without prejudice about cultural differences); openness (suspending criticism of other cultures; investing in collecting 'evidence' of cultural difference; being disposed to be proven wrong); curiosity (seeking out intercultural interactions, viewing difference as a learning opportunity, being aware of one's own ignorance); discovery (tolerating ambiguity and viewing it as a positive experience; willingness to move beyond one's comfort zone) [4].

The development of intercultural competence is never complete and perfect, but to be a successful intercultural speaker does not require complete and perfect competence. The first reason for this is more obvious: it is not possible to acquire or to anticipate all the knowledge one might need in interacting with people of other cultures. Those cultures are themselves constantly changing; one cannot know with whom one will use a specific language since many languages are spoken in more than one country. Similarly, there are in any one country in many different cultures and languages. And thirdly any language can be used as a lingua franca with anyone from any country [3].

The role of the language teacher is, therefore, to develop skills, attitudes, and awareness of values just as much as to develop knowledge of a particular culture or country. So a teacher does not have to know everything about 'the target culture'. This is, in any case, impossible and in fact, there are many cultures associated with a particular language, for example, many countries where English is spoken as the first language, and within those countries many variations on beliefs, values, and behaviours which people share, in other words, many cultures [3].

So a teacher should try to design a series of activities to enable learners to discuss and draw conclusions from their own experience of the target culture solely as a result of what they have heard or read. The teacher might provide some factual information related to the life-styles current in the culture and patterns usually followed by members of these cultures, but the important thing is to encourage comparative analysis with learners' own culture.

There are a lot of materials that could be used in teaching culture. Nowadays, the authors of English language textbooks are aware of the necessity to develop intercultural competence of learners and are trying to make more effort to create culturally relevant texts, recordings, and activities. Modern English language textbooks offer materials developing intercultural competence in separate parts titled "cultural pages", for example, "Solution". However, it is often difficult to convince English teachers that the teaching of culture is not a secondary goal. Most of the researchers agree that culture is an inseparable part of foreign language teaching because language without culture is a set of symbols which can be misinterpreted if they are not understood in the right cultural context [3].

Authentic materials are for sure the best materials for teaching cultural aspects, as they bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside world and they bring reality into the classroom. Authentic materials focus mainly on contents and meaning and not on linguistic forms and structures, they do not replace textbooks but could be very beneficial additional materials or a substitution for certain texts that might not be well suited for the specific classroom. Most everyday objects in the target language could be qualified as authentic materials.

According to Nunan and Miller, authentic materials are those which were not created or edited for language learners [7]. Exposure to the authentic materials allows language learners to make contact with the real-life language, which can be a great motivational factor and it helps them to recognize that there is a community of users who live their lives in this other language.

Authentic materials are classified into audio, visual and printed materials.

Audio materials include TV programs, commercials, news, weather reports, films, cartoons, phone messages, podcasts, radio programs, music, internet audio materials, audio-recorded stories, announcements at the stations and airports, shops, etc.

Visual materials include photographs, paintings, drawings, wordless street signs, images, pictures from magazines, newspapers, postcards, stamps, coins, wordless picture books, toys, food, and any items.

Printed materials include newspapers, magazines, books, TV guides, catalogues, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, product labels, street signs, tourist information brochures, maps, letters, greeting cards, junk mail, school notices, billboards, public transport schedules, traffic tickets, application forms, information on the internet, packing slips, packaging from various items, food labels, etc.

To specify authentic materials usage, here are several activities using authentic materials with the aim of developing intercultural competencies are listed here. Teaching about customs, for example, the Ukrainian and American Christmas is an example of developing socio-cultural knowledge. First of all, the teacher and learners discuss the habits of Christmas celebration in Ukraine. The teacher tries to find out from learners what they know about Christmas in the USA, custom, meal, etc. Learners are encouraged to name films and describe the Christmas customs in both countries. The topic can be supported by authentic photographs of both cultural habits. There are many youtube videos showing cultural habits, which learners could watch and by the technique of noticing, learners pick and write down the peculiarities of the shown habits. This activity is very effective with young learners.

Sociolinguistic competences practices greetings, addressing forms, turn taking, politeness and register. For example, authentic menus, tickets, checks, etc. The best way of working with such materials is to practice ordering food in role-play, buying or changing a ticket at the railway station, using the correct sociolinguistic phrases in the queue or public transport, etc.

The correct usage of non-verbal communication belongs to pragmatic competences (greeting gestures, which are different in various cultures). There are a lot of videos available showing various greeting gestures, which could be shown to the learners form youtube.com. The teacher gives a list of countries and photographs representing the greetings (e.g. handshake, hand kiss, fist shake, bow, kiss, cheek kiss, wave, nod, hug, shoulder tapping, high five, etc.). Learners try to match greetings with the photographs. Then, pupils act out gesture greetings and other pupils guess the country where these greetings are appropriate. The teacher should also warn learners about certain gestures being inappropriate in different cultures.

There is a great choice of authentic materials, which could be used in teaching culture in foreign language lessons, but teachers need to pay a lot of attention in choosing appropriate materials. Teachers should set up criteria for selecting materials, which would suit the specific groups of learners. The materials should fulfill the requirements of the curriculum topics, the interest of learners.

As for the methods for teaching cultural aspects in the ESL classes, there is a variety of them, and the teacher can choose an appropriate due to the level of learners or the topic of the classes. Byram claims that intercultural competence is a complex matter involving more than traditional language lessons [2]. According to Brooks, intercultural competence is the best gained practically, just like learners acquire phonological accuracy, syntax or morphology through actual practice [1]. Regular conversational topics should be about daily tasks, which should highlight identity, similarity, and differences in comparable patterns of culture. Research findings indicate that teachers mainly teach socio-cultural aspects (factual information, holidays, traditions, food, housing, etc.) and pay little attention to sociolinguistic, pragmatic competences and non-verbal communication.

Some methods are known to be effective in the English classroom. The method of comparison is one of the most often used techniques for teaching cultures. This technique is focused on discussing the differences between the native and British or American cultures. Comparison is used for developing socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and non-verbal competence. It is widely popular in primary and secondary school to compare in such topics as "School", "Cuisine", "Festivals" etc. Pupils watch short video materials, which present typical British school, cuisine or festival procedure, which is available on the Internet with subtitles for better understanding. They suggest not only socio-cultural knowledge but also sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases (greetings, addressing people, polite requests, formal register) as well as standards of non-verbal communication. Watching video is followed by a discussion of differences in two cultures.

The TPR (Total Physical response) method is designed to respond physically to oral commands in order to act out cultural experience (Hughes, 1986). TPR is very popular in teaching young learners, as children like to act out songs and stories. TPR in cultural competence development is very useful in the formation of the standards of non-verbal communication. Learners need to practice different gestures and to acknowledge their meaning in different cultures, such as kissing, handshaking, thumb up and forefinger sign, shaking of the head, etc. These actions often have different meanings in different cultures.

Role-playing is a very effective method for practicing sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases, socio-cultural knowledge, but also non-verbal communication. Learners practice real-life situation in a café, restaurant, shop, bus station, airport, etc. Roleplaying is suitable for young learners and adults as well. Learners act the role of visitors to their own country and meet with other learners acting like themselves and not as the stereotypes that the visitors are expecting. This kind of experiential learning is powerful in developing self-awareness as well as perceptions of other countries [3].

To conclude this paper, it is worth to mention that authentic materials provide a rich source of cultural context. Teachers should not be afraid to use authentic materials, as such practice is fun, motivational and educational. Certainly, authentic materials should be carefully chosen and prepared. Teachers have to pay great attention to the methods and techniques used in working with authentic materials. Thus, developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching involves recognizing that the aims are: to give learners intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence, to prepare them for interaction with people of other cultures, to enable them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours, and to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience. If learners are regularly working with authentic materials, they could avoid cultural shock visiting a country with a different culture.

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НАРОДНЫЕ ЗАГАДКИ КАК ЭФФЕКТИВНОЕ СРЕДСТВО ИНТЕЛЛЕКТУАЛЬНОГО РАЗВИТИЯ ДЕТЕЙ

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Abstract: The article is devoted to the problem of intellectual development of children of preschool age in the process of studying folk riddles. The author reveals the concept of "riddle", highlights the principles of the selection of riddles and groups of riddles that are used in pre-school. The work details the methods of work: a) with riddles – descriptions, b) with riddles containing the key distinguishing feature of the object, c) with riddles in which the description of the object is given through negation; it proved that the effectiveness of this technique has a positive effect on children's intellectual development.
Keywords: intellectual development, children of preschool age, folk riddles, groups of riddles, methods of working with riddles.

Народное искусство является фундаментальным пластом национальной культуры и рассматривается как действенный фактор социализации, интеллектуального развития личности (О. В. Акулова [1], Т. В. Котылевская [5], А. П. Усова [6] и др.).

Важной частью народной культуры является устное народное творчество, которое сконцентрировало в себе мудрость русского народа, его духовную силу, выразительность родного языка. Теорией и практикой дошкольного воспитания доказано, что устное народное творчество (пословицы, прибаутки, загадки и т. д.) пробуждает образные представления о Родине, дает верные духовно-нравственные ориентиры, способствует максимальному раскрытию интеллектуальных способностей, развивает индивидуальные особенности и творчество детей. Мы считаем, что особую роль в интеллектуальном развитии детей играют народные загадки, которые оказывают положительное влияние на развитие мыслительных процессов, речемыслительной деятельности, формирование умений сравнивать загадки об одном и том же предмете или явлении, самостоятельно решать логические задачи и преодолевать трудности в процессе оперирования знаниями в новой проблемной ситуации.

В психолого-педагогической литературе вопросы использования загадок как эффективного средства интеллектуального развития детей не нашли глубокого изучения: лишь отдельные аспекты этого направления представлены в работах Т. А. Ладыженской «Загадки как средство развития, обучения и воспитания» [6], Ю. Г. Илларионовой «Учите детей отгадывать загадки» [3], К. Фюнфштюка «Метафора в сознании детей (на материалах детских загадок)» [8], В. А Беляевой и Н. П. Павловой «Отгадай загадку (особенности понимания загадок ребенком-дошкольником)» [2].

Загадка – это древнейший жанр русского фольклора, в котором отражено образное и яркое видение мира. Она по-новому показывает знакомое – всегда неожиданно, а иногда парадоксально. Структура загадки носит «загадывательно-разгадывательный» характер, который оказался оптимальной формой для краткого изложения интеллектуально насыщенной информации, о природных и искусственных объектах, существующих в нашей Вселенной.

Вопросно-ответная форма текста расчленяет его на небольшие «порции» смысла, в которой выделяется главный смысл: в начале загадки – подготавливая его появление вопросительным словом, а затем в отгадке, потому что ее смысловой центр сосредоточен в позиции, предсказанной вопросительным словом.

В научной литературе дается следующее определение загадки как малого жанра фольклора: «Загадка – замысловатое поэтическое выражение, в котором признаки отгадываемого предмета даны в зашифрованном, уводящем в сторону виде» [4, с.110].

Природа загадки связана с одним из фундаментальных свойств человеческого мышления – с интеллектуальным умением видеть сходство или несходство разных предметов и явлений, понимать взаимосвязи в окружающем мире, различать общее, частное и особенное в каждом объекте. Как правило, отгадывать загадку довольно трудно. Для этого надо обладать развитым образно-ассоциативным поэтическим мышлением, быть сообразительным, способным преодолевать создаваемые загадкой трудности логического порядка.

Загадки упражняют в развитии интеллекта детей: учат распознавать аналогии, сопоставлять объекты, видеть «вторые планы» вещей и явлений, понимать переносные смыслы, иносказательные выражения, перефразы, фразеологизмы, косвенные описания объекта, выделять те признаки, которые представлены в загадке более значительно и рельефно, что помогает правильному поиску отгадки.

В нашей работе мы рассматриваем загадку как своеобразную логическую задачу, которую надо решать путем последовательных умственных действий: сначала выделить в загадке признаки объекта (произвести анализ), а затем сопоставить и объединить эти признаки, установить между ними возможные связи (произвести синтез). На основе установления связей и объединения признаков делается вывод, строится умозаключение и формулируется отгадка.

Целью нашей работы является раскрытие методики работы с наиболее распространенными группами загадок, которые направлены на стимулирование активной интеллектуальной деятельности детей.

При подборе загадок для работы с детьми мы руководствовались следующими дидактическими принципами: доступность (загадки об объектах должны быть посильны для наблюдений детьми); б) научность (мыслительно-речевая природа загадки с учетом степени трудности решения логической задачи, построенной на элементарно-научной основе); опора на художественный образ и особенности речевой формы загадки; занимательность и образность загадки.

Рассмотрим более подробно методику работы со следующими группами загадок, которые используются в старшей группе детсада: **а**) загадками-описаниями; **б**) загадками, содержащими ключевой отличительный признак объекта; **в**) загадками, в которых описание объекта дается через отрицание.

В **загадках-описаниях** выделена простая совокупность признаков или характерные для загаданного объекта действия. В основе описания объекта заложена определенная схема – логика описания животного, растения, неживой природы или предметов рукотворного мира. Дети должны выделить в загадке признаки или действия загаданного объекта, собрать их воедино, чтобы «разбросанные» элементы сложились в единую картину – «портрет» отгадки. Например, в загадке о медведе (*Косолапые ноги, зимой спит в берлоге. Догадайся и ответь : «Кто же это?»*) выделены признаки живого существа: «косолапые ноги», «зимой спит в берлоге» (образ жизни зверя в зимнее время). Анализ двух существенных признаков дикого зверя позволяет создать единый образ живого существа, т. е. путем синтеза находится отгадка: это лесной зверь *медведь*.

В другой загадке о поросенке (*Спереди – пятачок, сзади – крючок, посередине – спинка, а на ней – щетинка*) дети должны были выделить признаки: «пятачок» (разговорное употребление) – это круглое рыльце поросенка; «крючок» – это закрученный у животного хвостик; «спинка со щетинкой» – это покрытая жестким волосом спина животного. Опираясь на жизненный опыт и сформированное у детей ядро лексикона русского языка, значение понятий «пятачок» и «крючок» в данном контексте помогают создать точный образ домашнего животного *поросенка (свиньи)*.

При разгадывании загадок-описаний важно правильно использовать прием уточнения признаков объекта. Например, в загадке о еже (*Сердитый недотрога живет в глуши лесной, иголок очень много, а ниток – ни одной*) мы использовали данный методический прием. Для этого выделяли точно перечисленные признаки и раскрывали иносказательные.

1. Точно названные признаки объекта: «живет в глуши лесной», «иголок очень много, а ниток – ни одной» (лесной зверь, покрытый иголками).
2. Расшифрованные признаки: загаданный объект «сердитый» и «недотрога», к которому нельзя дотронуться рукой.

Для правильного ответа на основе точно названных и расшифрованных признаков можно сделать вывод, что в глуши лесной живет лесной зверь *ёж*.

Группа загадок-описаний многочисленна и активно используется воспитателями при организации разных видов познавательной, практической и «отобразительной» деятельности. Эти загадки предметны, конкретны и направлены на выделение ярких признаков, деталей или действий объектов, что делает их ценным приемом дидактического воздействия на развитие интеллектуальной сферы детей.

В загадках, содержащих **ключевой отличительный признак** объекта, есть фрагмент, который однозначно указывает на отгадку. В процессе работы с этой группой загадок рекомендуется использовать разные типы игр. Рассмотрим дидактическую игру «Самое главное», цель которой научить выделять признак или действие, свойственное только загаданному объекту. Детям предлагалось прослушать загадку и выбрать ключевой признак объекта (насекомого), который описан в загадке:

Он работник настоящий
Очень, очень работящий.
Под сосной в лесу густом
***Из хвоинок строит дом**.*

Дети быстро находили ключевую строчку в загадке: «Из хвоинок строит дом». На уточняющий вопрос: «Где живет это живое существо и что строит?» дети уверенно отвечали, что это муравей, который живет «под сосной в лесу густом и из хвоинок строит дом», называемый муравейником.

В другой загадке дети должны были выделить строительные действия, характерные для загаданных живых существ, которые живут в реке и строят плотины:

Есть в реке работники,
Не столяры, не плотники.
***А выстроят плотину** –*
Хоть пиши картину.

Дети уверенно выделили главные действия «работников» – «выстроят плотину». Они уточняли: «плотины на реках строят только бобры». Действительно, бобры – полуводные млекопитающие, которые отличаются сложными строительными инстинктами (строят на реках хатки, плотины, каналы, норки).

В следующей загадке дети должны были выбрать ключевой существенный признак отгадки, описанный в последней строчке, который точно указывает на лесного зверя.

Что за зверь лесной такой,
Стоит как столбик под сосной?
Комочек белый у сосны,
***Уши больше головы**.*

Дети хорошо знают внешний вид лесного зверя, у которого «уши больше головы» и, опираясь на этот существенный признак, находят отгадку – это *заяц*. Однако, в загадке выделен еще один признак – «комочек *белый* у сосны», что указывает на цвет зайца – зайца-беляка, потому что осенью он линяет и у него вырастает снежно-белая шёрстка – своеобразная маскировочная окраска как способ защиты от врагов в зимнее время.

Наш педагогический опыт показывает, что большинство детей, которые не обладают системными знаниями об окружающем мире, в частности о животных, испытывают трудности в выделении той строки в тексте, которая точно и однозначно указывает на признаки или действия загаданного объекта. Для того чтобы найти отгадки в логической задаче ребенок должен произвести следующие логические действия: а) актуализировать сформированные ранее системные знания в данной области познания и жизненный опыт; б) соотнести эти знания с текстом загадки; в) выделить в ней ключевую строчку, указывающую на объект; в) сформулировать отгадку и аргументировать свою позицию.

Группа загадок, которая содержит **описание объекта через отрицание**, отличается их построением, т. е. перечислением признаков, которые чередуются с указанием на то, чем или кем является или не является загаданный объект. Рассмотрим методику работы с данной группой загадок.

Первая загадка:

Трещит, а не кузнечик,
Летит, а не птица,
Везет, а не лошадь.

«Положительная» часть текста «трещит, летит, везет», в которой перечислены действия объекта, а «отрицающая» – «не кузнечик, не птица, не лошадь», т. е. перечислены объекты, которые не могут быть отгадкой. Дети приходят к выводу, что перечисленные действия характерны для *самолёта* как воздушного транспортного средства.

Вторая загадка:

Без крыльев, а летит,
Без языка, а говорит.

В «положительной» части загадки перечислены действия объекта – «летит, говорит», а в «отрицающей» – «без крыльев, без языка». Анализ текста позволяет создать единый образ загаданного объекта – это *письмо*, которое «прилетит» на самолете из другого города, и, читая текст письма, мы узнаем новости о событиях, которые уже произошли.

Третья загадка:

Сер, да не волк,
Длинноух, да не заяц,
С копытами, да не лошадь.

«Положительная» часть текста выделяет качества объекта: «сер, длинноух, с копытами», а «отрицающая» – «не волк, не заяц, не лошадь» помогает сконструировать образ *осла,* внешний вид которого соответствует перечисленным существенным признакам этого домашнего животного.

Мы считаем, что эта группа загадок является весьма сложной для детей, потому что чередование «положительной» и «отрицающей» части в загадке затрудняет процесс анализа содержания загадки, а затем синтеза и формулировки отгадки.

Обобщая вышесказанное, мы пришли к выводам:

- народные загадки полны познавательного смысла и каждая группа загадок содержит широкий круг полезных для детей знаний об окружающем мире;
- каждая загадка представляет собой мини-задачу, в которой в краткой поэтической форме даны сведения об объекте, выделены существенные признаки или действия загаданного объекта; в процессе решения задачи срабатывает механизм, объединяющий ресурсы наглядно-образного мышления, произвольной памяти, воображения, аналитики, интуиции и жизненного опыта ребенка, приобретенного им с помощью различных источников витагенной информации; данный опыт должен быть в состоянии постоянной актуализации, чтобы быстро решить задачу и сформулировать конечный результат – отгадку;
- систематическое применение загадок в детском саду оказывает позитивное влияние на развитие у детей интеллектуальных умений и навыков: различать общее, частное и особенное в каждом объекте; сопоставлять и объединять признаки; видеть «вторые планы» вещей и явлений; понимать ядро лексикона русского языка, осознавать смысл фразеологических оборотов и явлений полисемии.

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АНГЛИЙСКИЕ ПОСЛОВИЦЫ И ПОГОВОРКИ О ПРИНЦИПАХ ОБУЧЕНИЯ

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Abstract: The article deals with the application of English proverbs and sayings for effective teaching of English Methodology. The author suggests applying them for mastering the principles of teaching in general as well as teaching English language in particular since proverbs describe the millennium-long experience of people, reflect valuable pedagogical ideas. The main focus of the author is to consider a large number of English and Ukrainian proverbs, to select the ones that concern pedagogical approaches to teaching, and to group them according to the principle mentioned. The examples also include some Ukrainian and Russian proverbs as well as English quotation when it is appropriate. Following the classification of principles developed by A.N. Shchukin, one to twelve examples are selected to exemplify each principle. The principles of teaching are of four groups: didactic (10 principles), psychological (4 principles), methodological (5 principles) and linguistic ones (3 principles). In the course of the study we

came to the following conclusions: there is a large number of proverbs on pedagogical and methodological principles, the use of proverbs leads to the development of abstract and associative thinking of would-be teachers. The author claims that proverbs should be widely used in lecturing and suggests a range of tasks for students: using a proverbs give some advice to a pupil, pupil's parents or a colleague, explain a proverb, share your school experience using a proverb, express you agreement or disagreement with a proverb, choose a proverb with a different meaning, find Ukrainian or Russian equivalents for an English proverb, discuss the relevancy of a proverb to modern conditions, match a proverb to a principal it describes.
Keywords: proverb, saying, didactic principles, methodological principals, psychological principals, methodology.

Суть проблемы. Требования к подготовке учителя 21 столетия включают умение руководствоваться гуманистическими ценностями, реализовывать свой творческий потенциал следуя эффективным формам и методам. В преподавании дисциплин педагогико-методического и языкового циклов мастерское использование лексического богатства, разнообразных языковых средств является источником действенности педагогической риторики учителя. По мнению Л. Новикова, любое слово, которое, на первый взгляд, незаметно может стать в художественном контексте семантически важным и эстетически значимым [2, с.86]. Это в свою очередь вызвало введение в понятийный аппарат выше указанной проблемы термина "выразитель образности" (З. Франко) – "устойчивые в письменной речи, разные по степени переосмысления или ассоциативности выражения" [5, с.81]. Пословицы и поговорки, а также крылатые выражения несут такую образность, их применение создает идеальные условия для развития речи учащихся на разных этапах и уровнях обучения [3, с.55; 4б, с.64]. Пословицы и цитаты служат источником обогащения речи, повышают ее логичность, эмоциональность и стилистическую выразительность. Изучая пословицы и поговорки, мы можем лучше понять характерные черты архетипа носителей английского языка, потому что в них отображены особенности истории, культуры, быта данного народа.

. **Состояние исследования.** Проблеме использования пословиц, поговорок при обучении английскому языку посвящены многие работы таких исследователей как З. К. Тарланов, Л. Б. Савенкова, Г. Д. Сидоркова, A. Taylor,

A. Fox, N. Barley. В то же время эти малые литературные формы не находят достойного места во время изучения методики преподавания английского языка, что и определило выбор темы данного исследования. Это особенно актуально в современных условиях преподавания методики на английском языке и при реализации новых подходов к формам проведения лекций и семинаров.

Методы исследования. В нашем исследовании мы предприняли попытку отобрать, оценить, классифицировать пословицы, которые релевантны принципам обучения в целом, принципам обучения иностранным языкам в частности и образно их иллюстрируют. С этой целью автором использовались следующие методы: системный анализ работ данной тематики, аналитический анализ, компаративный анализ пословиц в английском, украинском и русском языках.

Изложение основного материала. Мы полагаем, что принципы обучения – это тот раздел методики, который наилучшим образом подходит для обогащения пословицами, ведь принципы являются исходными положениями, которые лаконично и образно описывают тысячелетний опыт народа. А пословица и есть концентрированным афористичным выражением такого народного опыта.

Обратясь к принципам обучения, мы воспользовались классификацией принципов обучения, разработанной А.Н. Щукиным [6, с.27]. Рассмотрим вначале дидактические принципи, которые целесообразно объяснить на примере следующих пословиц:

1) принцип сознательности. Consideration is half of conversation. A good example is a good sermon. He who questions nothing learns nothing. One hears only what he understands [1, p.276].

2) принцип прочности: Soon learned soon forgotten. Always in a hurry, always behind. So much to do, so little done. Once is no custom [1, p.135]. Education is what survives when what has been learnt has been forgotten. (B. F. Skinner) [7, p.173].

3) принципы доступности и посильности. Measure is treasure. First things first. It is the pace that kills. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. He who is content has enough [1, p.22].

4) принцип наглядности. Seeing is believing [1, p.63]. Лучше один раз увидеть, чем сто раз услышать [1, p.385].

5) принцип научности. Learn from the mistakes of others [1, p.242]. Wise men learn by other men's mistakes, fools insist on learning by their own. Knowledge is power [1, p.211].

6) принципы активности и креативности. Actions speak louder than words [1, p.296]. Great actions speak great minds [1, p.19]. Handsome is as handsome does [1, p.156]. He who asks nothing learns nothing [1, p.275]. He who makes no mistakes, makes nothing [1, p.241].

7) принцип проблемности. If you haven't silver in your purse, you should have silk on your tongue [1, p.25]. Poverty is the mother of all arts [1, p.28].

8) принцип развивающего обучения. Much work, no play makes Jack a dull boy. No pains, no gains [1, p.216].

9) принцип коллективности. It takes two to tango. Much work, no play makes Jack a dull boy. Many hands make work light [1, p.260].

10) принцип воспитывающего обучения. Birth is much, but breeding is more. The aim of education is the knowledge not of fact, but of values. (Dean William R. Inge) [7, p.174]. The secret of education is respecting the pupil. (Ralph Waldo Emerson) [7, p.174].

С учетом содержания предлагаемых психологических принципов, мы отобрали следующие примеры:

1. принцип мотивации. Where there is a will, there's a way [1, p.31]. The wish is father to the thought [1, p.32]. Necessity is the mother of invention [1, p.55]. High living, low thinking [1, p.275].
2. принцип поэтапного формирования знаний, навыков, умений. Custom is a second nature. Learn to walk before you run. Rome wasn't built in one day. Hear much, speak little [1, p.300]. Try before you trust [1, p.64]. Jack of many trades makes a master of none [1, p.98]. First think then speak. Think twice before you speak [1, p.228]. All great things has a small beginning [1, p.253]. The hardest step is over the threshold [1, p.254]. All in good time [1, p.334]. Experience without learning is better than learning without experience [1, p.98].
3. принцип учета индивидуально-психологических особенностей личности учащегося: As the mother, so is the daughter. Like father like sun [1, p.33]. It is the pace that kills [1, p.251]. Выше головы не прыгнешь [1, p.69]. Early start makes easy stages [1, p.254].

Методические принципы отображены сравнительно небольшим количеством пословиц:

1. принцип коммуникативности. The proof of pudding is in its eating. Education begins a gentleman; conversation completes it [1, p.59].
2. принцип взаимосвязанного обучения видам речевой деятельности. Jack of all trades and master of none [1, p.98].
3. принцип учета особенностей родного языка. An old dog cannot learn new tricks. [1, p.59]. Нельзя не вспомнить знаменитое высказывание Л.В. Щербы, который остроумно заметил, что «можно выгнать родной язык из аудитории, но невозможно выгнать его из голов учащихся».
4. принцип комплексности. Experience without learning is better than learning without experience [1, p.98]. A change is as good as a rest [1, p.365].
5. принцип доминирующей роли упражнений. In doing we learn. Experience is the best teacher. Practice makes perfect [1, p.260]. I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand (Chinese Proverb) [7, p.297].

Поиск пословиц, которые отображали лингвистические принципы, дал очень ограниченое число примеров, что вынудило нас использовать иной вид паремии – цитаты-афоризмы.

1. принцип минимизации. Коротко и ясно, потому и прекрасно. Выше головы не прыгнеш [1, p.69] Don’t bite more than you can chew. Speech is silver, silence is gold. [1, p.303] Waste not, want not. [1, p.117] Life is but a span [1, p.118] Read much, but not too many books [1, p.154]
2. принцип функциональности. The proof of pudding is in its eating [1, p.59].
3. принцип стилистической дифференциации. Proper words in proper places, make the true definition of style (Jonathan Swift) [7, p.454]. Style is the dress of thoughts (Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield) [6:454].

Работа над пословицами убедила нас в следующем: 1) существует большое число пословиц, которые несут глубокий дидактический смысл; 2) их число велико как среди английских, так и русских и украинских пословиц; 3) пословицы в разных языках часто совпадают по своему значению и идеях, заключенных в них, что позволяет проследить их общечеловеческую вневременную суть; 4) отличие идейных посылов пословиц в разных языках позволяет их сравнивать; 5) неоднозначность некоторых пословиц есть основой для их объяснения, обсуждения и формирования собственного мнения будущих учителей о том или ином принципе; 6) язык пословиц достаточно прост и доступен для понимания студентами-филологами; 7) использование пословиц способствует развитию абстрактного и ассоциативного мышления, фантазии.

В своей педагогической работе автор широко использует пословицы. Работа с пословицами при изучении курса методики может включать их использование в лекционном курсе. Практика свидетельствует о высокой эффективности следующих заданий: 1) используя пословицу, дайте совет собеседнику (коллеге, ученику, родителю ученика); 2) объясните смысл пословицы; 3) закончите свой ответ и сделайте вывод, подобрав подходящую пословицу; 4) дайте пример из вашей школьной практики, подтверждающий данную пословицу; 5) подберите соответствующую пословицу в родном языке; 6) выразите согласие или не согласие с предложенной пословицей (например, He who can does, who cannot, teaches [7, p.19]); 7) выберите пословицу с противоположним либо иным смыслом; 8) обсудите релевантность пословицы современным условиям; 9) подберите пословицу к данному принципу обучения, 10) обсудите пословицу и предложите свой вариант; 11) выберите из нескольких пословиц ту, которая лучшим образом иллюстрирует данный принцип обучения; обсудите роль пословиц в формировании социокультурной компетентности учащихся.

Опыт использования пословиц и поговорок говорит о том, что эти виды паремии следует использовать не только для формирования межкультурной коммуникативной компетентности при изучении практического курса устной и письменной речи, но и для формирования профессиональной компетентности при изучении методики преподавания английского языка.

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IDENTITY DISCOURSE OF IN- AND OUT- MOLDOVANS IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT

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Abstract: The article targets at presenting the research "Moldovans' identity in the global context". The imperatives of this research are: (1) to analyze the essence of the identity discourse from different perspectives; (2) to describe the rationale of the implemented study; (3) to draw conclusions on a part of the first phase implementation. This research focuses on the identification of the structure of the Moldovans' cultural identity on the basis of the selected two cohorts of in- and out-country Moldovans. The article provides rationale of the investigation, the procedure and some raw conclusions. As the research in ongoing, there has been described only a part of the first phase. There have been selected three questions to be analyzed from the research questionnaires. All the other answers are being processed. By the end, some raw conclusions are drawn on the structure of the Moldovan self and factors that determine its modification or change.

Keywords: cultural identity, self, in-country Moldova, out-country Moldovan, identity discourse, discourse indicators.

Introduction

The research addresses a stringent problem of identity discourse structure that is so important for any nation. Republic of Moldova is facing the problem of immigration. Statistically, almost two million Moldovans live in and out of the European zone legally or illegally. The study aims at pinpointing the Moldovan identity discourse elements that help at promoting Moldova's values, and facilitating Moldovans' integration into the non-native discourse community.

I have got double expectations for the research. First, the research will provide the complex Moldovan identity discourse structure, together with the ideologies and values that modify its content. Second, there is to be created a data base with the social behaviors, linguistic variations, and production/reception roles, associated with these that frame the Moldovan identity. In summary, this research will work beneficially on the general image of the Republic of Moldova among the south-eastern countries offering a chance for its tourism development and a better understanding of the 80 thousand immigrated Moldovans by the other discourse communities.

The concept of identity is one that has burst many discussions. There are different definitions of identity and identity discourse. There are opinions on identity being "the everyday word for people's sense of who they are" [3, p. 6]. The same idea is shared by Kroskrity who believes that identity represents the "linguistic construction of group membership" [9, p. 111]. In this respect, identity is not regarded as an independent phenomenon, but rather an individual supported kit. This identity kit is formed of true self and pseudo selves [7, p. 191]. The individual chooses what self is true, because, widely speaking, identity is a matter of choice.

Departing from the idea that discourse is language in use, idea developed by G. Cook, we take for granted the idea that identity discourse is the set of "social practices, historically grounded statements, bodily behavior" communicated through the language that help people refer to themselves and to certain social groups. I strongly support Cameron's and Gee's explanation of discourse as a "multifaceted and complex social act" that encloses individual and collective identities. I such a way, identity discourse cannot exist and develop without collective discourse.

Norman Fairclough asserts that discourse is a social practice that influences the development of identity and collective discourses, and the creation of ideologies and power hierarchy. From this perspective, identity is a continuous act shaped through discourse and interaction within a discourse community.

P. Riley (2007) distinguishes three broad categories of cultural knowledge through which cultural identity is rendered: know-that, know-of and know-how. The *know-that knowledge* refers to the relatively permanent background knowledge possessed by an individual. It consists of what the individual believes to be true and incorporates her/his political and religious 'philosophies' and values, 'theories' of disease, physics, child-rearing or hunting, versions of geography and history, etc. In other words, *know-that* category is the individual's version of how the world works. Generalizing, these are Moldovan customs and behavioral practices. *Know-of knowledge* refers to the relatively ephemeral background knowledge. It consists of current events and preoccupations, such as what is going on in a particular society*, who is who* and *who is doing what*. Know-of knowledge, in this vein, refers to the structure of the community. The *know-how* knowledge refers to the pragmatic or procedural knowledge. It consists of the individual's skills, capacities and competencies, and the effective mastery of reasoning.

Rationale

The *primary purpose of the research* is to emphasize the identity discourse of the immigrated Moldovans. The *hypothesis* thrown light on is that pure identity Moldovan discourse is a loose phenomenon. The identity discourse of the immigrated Moldovans is modified under the influence of the collective discourse of the nation they come in contact with. Moreover, their complex identity discourse influences the collective discourse they have immerged from. Thus, it is impossible to speak about a pure Moldovan identity discourse for years even among Moldovans that have always lived in Moldova.

The research questions of the present study are:

1. What is the structure of the in- and out-country Moldovan identity discourse?
2. What is the algorithm that alters Moldovan identity discourse?

There are some objectives to be fulfilled within the research:

- To create a data base for a cohort of people that migrated legally to other countries (in accordance with Information and Security

Service of the Republic of Moldova, it represents 30% of the total amount of people that work legally abroad);

- To determine target groups in accordance with a series of principles: age, education, country of residence, spouse's nationality;
- To identify discourse elements that form Moldovans' identity (social behavior, sets of relations, language, concepts etc.);
- To determine social and geographical variations of identity discourse elements of the in-country Moldovans;
- To determine social and geographical variations of discourse elements of the out-country Moldovans;
- To analyze interviews, questionnaires, natural speech's data where identity discourse or collective discourse elements can be detected;
- To pinpoint the roles the Moldovans perform when entering discourse;
- To catalogue the connection between production and reception roles and identity discourse elements;
- To draw the conclusions on true and pseudo in-country and out-country identity discourse elements;
- To gather the discourse elements and tendencies in altering some of them, that might help the foreigners understand the Moldovans' way of thinking and behavior.

In accordance with the Information and Security Service of the Republic of Moldova, there are about 80 thousand Moldovans that migrated legally to other countries. They create identity images through social behavior, language variables of the community they have been raised into. These images help the foreigners understand Moldovans better and, at the same time, make the integration into a new community smooth. More than that, the picture of the whole Republic of Moldova is made through its people. Identity discourse of each Moldovan works on the collective discourse frame, and the collective discourse participates actively at the creation of the identity discourse of each who associates with this discourse community. These reasons form the background of the investigation.

Today, there is a tendency to blame the Moldovans that have left the country in looking for a new life. Very few understand that these Moldovans participate at the national promotion company of Moldova in the European zone and outside the European zone. Tracking the identity discourse of these Moldovans targets at observing the connections with the native country and native discourse community. This investigation pursues the aim to rehabilitate the image of the 80 thousand Moldovans.

Recent studies have underlined the idea that within any cultural group, there are preferred discourse identities that have to match with social identities. As Moldovans' discourse identities match with Bessarabia community identities and Romania community identities, the divergences that occur coming into contact with other discourse communities may be taken as demonstrations of insincerity and untrustworthiness. It is well believed that "clear communication is based on the one's identity discourse and expected social discourse the person associates himself with". Thus, the novelty of the present research lies in the storing of all the identities Moldovans associate with as exponents of their discourse communities that might facilitate the Moldovans' integration into new discourse communities.

Generally speaking, identities are displayed and performed through language, social behavior, values, beliefs and attitudes. In this respect, discourse indicators to be considered in the present research are: (a) frequency of the Romanian language usage; (b) values, beliefs and attitudes that are invariable or become variable under certain factors; (c) social behavior in the native or non-native discourse community. I am interested in discovering the algorithm of the complex and multifaceted identity of in- and out-country Moldovans.

The process of entering discourse is a complex one. Those that participate actively or passively perform some either production or reception roles [11, p. 16]. The investigation aims at detecting the choice of selves when performing a certain role. Said differently, I am interested whether the power hierarchy affects the choice of selves in the native or non-native discourse communities. My hypothesis is that Moldovans choose certain identity elements when performing production roles that might not be true selves. This fact makes the identity discourse change very rapidly.

Procedure:

The investigation has occurred in some *stages:* (A) Stage I.: Creation of two cohorts; (B) comparative analysis of in-country and out-country discourse identities; (C) identity and social discourse matching for smooth integration and non-identity loss. The first stage aims at identification of respondents from in- and out-Moldova that will actively or passively participate in the process of identifying of social and linguistic discourse variations. Here are to be taken into account some variables that will definitely help in gathering data (social status, age, gender and spouse's language repertoire). The results are to be stored on a created platform. The initial research method applied at this stage is literature review to determine identity discourse elements. The frames are to be referred to the in- and country Moldovans' identities. The timeline is from March through May, 2019. The second stage targets at identifying the discourse identities of two cohorts and divergences between these already different discourse communities. There is to be performed a lot of ethnographic fieldwork both in Bessarabia and Romania, the two discourse communities each Moldovan associates with. There are be used face-to-face and virtual interviews, natural speech to select data for analysis. The timeline for this stage is June through October, 2019. The conclusions and recommendations are to be made in the third stage of the investigation. There are to be specified true and pseudo-selves the Moldovans associate with.

Results on the first phase implementation

The implementation of the research project is at the end of the first stage. The number of two cohorts is 2000 people. The in-country respondents are from 19 to 50 years of age, coming from different fields. The out-country respondents are from 25 to 60 years of age, coming from different fields. Gathering the data that might give answers to the reseach questions, we have taken into account the discourse indicators: (a) frequency of the Romanian language usage; (b) values, beliefs and attitudes that are invariable or become variable under certain factors; (c) social behavior in the native or non-native discourse community.

First, the association lists were sent to the respondents. The imperatives put forward are: to identify the self of the in- and out-country Moldovans; to track what the factors are that influence the change in the self.

Table 1. Moldovans' identity structure

No. of respondents	Question	Answers
1000 in-country Moldovans	What do you associate yourself with being Moldovan?	Food (500), weddings (200), Moldova (102), language (10), connections with relatives (188).

	What are the factors that might influence you to change the associations you have mentioned above?	Politics (50), relations at work (350), nothing (423), residence change (177).
1000 out-country Moldovans	What do you associate yourself with being Moldovan?	Food (723), weddings (120), mentality / the way of thinking (99), language (58).
	What are the factors that might influence you to change the associations you have mentioned above?	Relations at work (800), nothing (15), residence change (185).

The answers in Table 1. provide evidence on the structure of the Moldovan self. It can be observed that both in- and out-country Moldovans associate themselves with *know-that knowledge*. The customs, traditions occupy the second place in the Moldovans' self (*know-of knowledge*) and pragmatics occupies the last place in the structure of the Moldovans' self (*know-how knowledge*).

Second, there were sent three questionnaires to the target selected groups. Each group has to provide answers. The tables below provide information on the cohorts' identity discourse indicators. There have been selected for the present paper three questions only (as the processing is still going on):

Table 2. Discourse indicators

No. of respondents	Question	Answers	
1000 in-country Moldovans	How often do you use the native language in the circumstances where there are foreigners?	Never 278	From time to time 722
	Do you share the values and beliefs of people that are of higher status that you are (they can change your social status)?	0	1000
	Does the non-native community influence your social behavior?	80	920

1000 out-country Moldovans	How often do you use the native language in the circumstances where there are foreigners?	899	101
	Do you share the values and beliefs of people that are of higher status that you are (they can change your social status)?	0	1000
	Does the non-native community influence your social behavior?	190	810

Although in the questionnaires, the last option was *always*, there was nobody to choose it among the representatives of the two cohorts. The answers are different and we can observe that the out-country Moldovans are greatly influenced by the non-native communities. They choose pseudo-selves to integrate smoother into the new discourse communities they come into contact with.

The biggest concern is connected to the answers provided by the in-country Moldovans. The social status is such an important element of life, that the Moldovans are ready to hide their cultural identity or even adjust it to the principles of other discourse communities if they will take status benefits.

Conclusions:

The cultural identity is a complex notion that is formed of three components (know-what, know-of and know-how knowledge). The Moldovan cultural identity has the same structure. Generally speaking, the *know-that knowledge* prevails in the complex unity of the cultural discourse. There are some factors that might have an impact on the cultural identity discourse indicators. The most important factor is the process of taking advantage of the status benefits.

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ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A COMPETENCE BASED CURRICULUM IN THE REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA

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Abstract: The article deals with examining the new competence based curricula that have been introduced in the Republic of Moldova responding to the demands of the contemporary information / knowledge based society. The curricula content is participatory, contextualized, process-oriented, dynamic, interdisciplinary and adaptable to changes and advances in the pedagogical disciplines as well as in society at large. However, implementing the curricula demands a lot of commitment from all participants. Teachers mainly need to develop clear understanding of 'competence' and revise the teaching–learning process in order to develop and consolidate their students' competences.
Keywords: competence, curriculum, fair assessment, skill

Since the Republic of Moldova got its independence, there have been numerous reforms in education aiming at aligning it to the international quality standards. Starting with 1995, when the first reform took place, there have been developed various laws and regulations reflecting the specifics of the Moldovan educational ideal. A significant reform of the education system in Moldova relates to embracing a competence based approach in teaching and evaluation. Two National Curricula were developed to offer the necessary methodological support; the first was issued in 2000 and its modernized, focusing on competencies, version was issued in 2010.

The significance of these Curricula, according to the authors, is huge as it reshaped education in Moldova, reflecting a rigorously ordered scientific vision on the new objectives, contents and educational technologies for a contemporary school. It should be pointed out that the earlier versions of Curricula for the foreign languages stipulated / prescribed the overall goals of the foreign language discipline and training of various types of competences (linguistic, discursive, cultural, methodological, attitudinal etc.), relying heavily on the Curriculum for bilingual French classes (CFCB) of Moldova (2008), which described a wide range of skills (competences) valid for training in the linguistic field.

The 2010 Foreign Languages Curriculum for the primary and gymnasium cycle was reviewed and modernized to respond to the transition need of shifting the curriculum design model focused on objectives to the competency-based model, i.e. on the outcome or on the final product of the teaching-learning-evaluation pedagogical relation. The development of the 2010 curriculum has also taken into account the principles of formative, polycentric and dynamic education centered on pupils and competences, the teacher having the role of coauthor and active and competent co-organizer of the teaching-learning-evaluation process of the foreign language.

Although it has been several years since the concept of 'competence' was introduced, there is continuous necessity to clarify its meaning and the meaning of some other terms described in both curricula. At this point, it should be emphasized that key competences were introduced in the 2010 Curriculum despite the fact that the Education Law, in force at that time, did not explicitly state the formation and development of competences. The key competences definitions were adapted from the recommendations of the European Union. Subsequently, they were explicitly included in the Education

Code since the end of 2014, and in the new 2010 Curriculum version. In the absence of an explicit regulatory and legal framework on competences and common academic visions on how to define and formulate competences, the Moldovan teachers and heads of the educational institutions feel confused to the present day. An additional constraint is related to the competence assessment.

The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language provides six meanings to the word 'competence'. Relevant to the purpose of this research are entries under the numbers 1) a. The ability to do something well or efficiently; b. A range of skill or ability: *a task beyond his competence*; c. A specific ability or skill: *a surprising competence in dealing with animals*; and 5) Linguistics: the knowledge that enables one to speak and understand a language. Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary describes 'competency' as a synonym for 'competence' (less frequently used) and defines 'competence' as the ability to do something well; *to gain a high level of competence in English, professional/technical competence.* These definitions provided by dictionaries highlight the concept of competence in terms of ability or skill to do something well or efficiently. In education, however, 'competence' acquired a much wider meaning.

The 2010 Curriculum for the first time describes the term 'school competence' (competență școlară) as "an integrated system of knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes acquired by pupils through learning and activated in specific contexts of realization tailored to the pupils' age and cognitive level in order to solve some problems they can face in real life". We assume that, when providing their definition of school competence, curricular developers relied on The European Reference Framework of Key Competences for Lifelong Learning (OJEU, 2006), which defines key competences as knowledge, skills and attitudes applied appropriately to a given context (Pepper, 2011). The research report *Key Competence Network on School Education* (2012) refer to Weinert (2001) who relates the term to the Greek notion of arete, meaning excellence, in the sense of being the best; also with the Latin term virtus, a kind of moral excellence. The same report explains the confusion generated by the existence of a variety of terms (competence / competency) which are often used interchangeably. This use neglects the large variety of meanings of 'competence', that can be captured by the terms 'ability', 'aptitude', 'capability', 'effectiveness' and 'skill'. Resulting from this overgeneralization, the notion of competence, and its plural ‘competences’, has been replaced by the narrower version of ‘competency’, or the plural form ‘competencies’ recently. The latter denote discrete skills and activities that individuals can perform.

For a better understanding of the concept of ‘competence’, teachers should view it as a complex combination of knowledge, skills, understanding, values and attitudes. Teaching for competences means a change of the teaching and learning setting, shifting the emphasis from content to purpose. The teachers’ role changes too, as they focus on their students’ learning outcomes covering not only the cognitive domain, but also the attitudinal and affective domains. They will observe and encourage their students’ achievements of tasks, in our case these are related to foreign language, as well as their personal relationships, willingness to participate, take an attitude, create and evaluate. In such a way, competence implies a sense of activity, accomplishment and value.

It is worth pointing out that curricula developers admitted that “the creation and finalization of an effective set of competences is a long-lasting process of complex, interdisciplinary and / or transversal nature”, so that the formation of competence would be more real for the end of a school stage, while within a lesson, or unit of learning it would be fair to undertake sub-competency training supported by the former benchmarks (obiective de refetrinta).

The Oxford Reference Dictionary of Education (2009) connects competences to the vocational training where they were initially implemented and provides a description of what we call ‘subcompetență’:

“...In National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) statements of competence are broken down **into their constituent parts**, the smallest of which is **an element of competence**. It is against these elements of competence that the NVQ candidate is assessed. A number of elements make up a unit of competence. Units, but not their constituent elements, may be awarded separately as part of a process of credit...”

Hence, the primary purpose of implementing a competence based curriculum becomes obvious – to provide more accurate measurable tasks and thus insure a more objective and fair assessment of the students’ progress in learning.

Teachers of English who teach at the primary level were probably happy to get familiar with a new Curriculum for the primary school (approved by the National Council for Curriculum on July 2018). The novelty of this Curriculum lies in the fact that it specifies the notion of competence, redefines and articulates specific competencies from the perspective of the pragmatically functional approach, and, most importantly, introduces the concept of 'unit of competence' to substitute the term 'sub-competence'. In addition, the new curriculum focuses on the development of four specific competences related to A1 level:

1. The linguistic competence: Discrimination of the linguistic elements through simple, short and correct message forms, showing curiosity for the value of language as a system.
2. Sociolinguistic competence: The use of language elements, demonstrating creativity for the functioning of the language in a social contact.
3. Pragmatic competence: Adaptation of linguistic elements to common / familiar contexts, proving correctness and coherence in structuring the message.
4. Cultural (pluri / inter) competence: The appreciation of specific elements of culture of the foreign language studied, expressing interest and respect for the values of another culture.

The curriculum for foreign languages for the primary level recommends training the pupils to acquire the initial competences of receiving and producing simple sentences (expresii si fraze simple) for daily use on familiar topics (oral and written) being supported by basic cultural competences as the foundation for their further development at the gymnasium level ["formarea la elevi a **competenţelor** iniţiale de receptare şi producere a unor expresii sau fraze simple, de uz foarte curent pe teme familiare în formă orală şi scrisă, asistate de competenţele culturale începătoare, în calitate de fundament pentru dezvoltarea lor ulterioară la nivelul gimnazial"]

As it can be seen, the curriculum in Romanian uses the terms 'competenta' and 'sub-competenta' or 'unitate de competenta' which is being translated as 'competence' and sub-competence' in English. Having included the rubric 'unitate de competenta' in the Curriculum, should facilitate, to a certain degree, teachers' development of short-term and long-term planning.

Implementation of a competence based curriculum means involving teachers in action research leading to diversifying their teaching toolkit. The teaching methods should be outlined for the production of key and specific competences and will be oriented towards interdisciplinary, cross-subject teaching, team oriented learning, individualized approaches (e.g., individual study plans) and project-based work (Gordon, Halasz, Krawczyk et al). There are three distinct ideas that teachers should bear in mind while teaching to achieve the established students' competences. First, teachers should not put the main emphases on knowledge of certain rules, definitions, grammatical forms; it is much more important for students to be able to apply the knowledge in context or real life situations. Next, teachers should be able to formulate clear and measurable units of competence for each of the lessons and design appropriate assessment tools. For example, unexperienced teachers may often set as a unit of competence 'learn irregular forms for simple past' while a really measurable unit of competence should be "students will use past tense when talking about their weekend". Finally, aiming at developing competences, students will learn the language through the use of authentic situations. In the age on information it is especially significant for students to know why they learn certain rules, vocabulary, etc. Instead of using drills to prepare students for the Baccalaureate exam, teachers should develop and consolidate competences for life such as communication, collaboration and critical thinking.

Transition to a competence-based teaching / learning requires significant changes in how teaching is done, affecting methods of instruction, testing, grading, etc. Descriptors based evaluation has already been implemented in the primary school in the Republic of Moldova since 2016. The previously used 10-point grading scale has been replaced with brief descriptive statements, phrases such as *can do a task independently, guided by teacher*, or *needs much help*. Such type of descriptors is commonly used in competency-based instruction. In addition, diverse forms of assessment are encouraged to determine whether students have achieved (linguistic, pragmatic, cultural) competence, including strategies such as demonstrations of learning, learning pathways, personal learning plans, portfolios, rubrics, and peer and self-evaluation, to name just a few.

To sum up, a competence based curriculum provides the necessary guidelines for learning achievement based on students demonstrating that they have acquired knowledge and skills as well as positive attitudes and understanding of themselves in relation to the world around them. Students continue to form and consolidate competences as they progress through their education. Related to language learning, a competence based approach should motivate the primary function of language in a society, that of communication and should justify the major purpose of foreign language teaching - to teach students to participate in conversations on varied topics related to their interests and needs, to enable them for a simple and direct exchange of information and open access to further academic success.

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USING LITERATURE CIRCLES TO ENHANCE GROUP DISCUSSIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

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Abstract: The following article examines two important components to aid students develop their English language oral skills and to enhance their understanding of literature and thinking skills. The first component is the use of the Question and Answer Relationship Format to help teachers elicit appropriate questioning and use strategies to understand literature and non-fictional text in a deeper fashion. The second component is the use of Literature Circles. This strategy, widely used in the United States, allows students to read fictional texts and discuss in depth all the components of a literary piece. Consequently, this technique also triggers students' oral skills while in the classroom. Such a method is ideal for English Language Learners from an intermediate to an advanced and near proficient levels in any educational context. Thus, the authors also share insights from their own classroom experience while using the aforementioned techniques.

Keywords: Literature Circles, communicative mobility, QARs format, Literal Comprehension, Interpretative Comprehension, Applied Comprehension.

Introduction. The key component of foreign language communication competence is a communicative mobility – the ability to react quickly in any situation of everyday and professional intercultural communication. Among the characteristics necessary to respond to the requirement of the modern society, there are foreign language communication skills, the ability to interact in diverse groups, to apply new forms of interaction, as well as the ability to use a foreign language to gain new knowledge about the world in general and in professional fields. This involves expanding the range of possible situations of foreign language communication behavior.

Being in the constant search of methods and techniques to improve students' communication competence, teachers of foreign languages address to the best practices and approaches applied in L1 classes that have the potential to be adapted in the field of teaching EFL and ESL. The method of Literature Circles is gaining in popularity in English language classes as an effective way to increase motivation, to create authentic learning environment, to promote student engagement and collaborative learning, to develop critical thinking skills, etc. Its universal nature and obvious efficiency makes it a valuable tool for teaching English language in Ukraine at every educational level.

Literature Review. Being identified as a social activity, Literature Circles model bases on the theory of L. Vygotsky (1978) who suggested that modelling social environments in the class provide learners with an opportunity to apply higher levels of cognitive processing. A comparatively recent research conducted by Harvey Daniels links Literature Circles to the student achievements. The study is largely devoted to implementation of the method as part of L1 reading curriculum (Daniels, 2002). C.M.Martínez-Roldán and J.M.López-Robertson (1999) discuss Literature Circles as an effective tool for a bilingual classroom. The analysis of the researches (B. Burns (1998), M. Farinacci (1998), E.G. Brabham, S.K.Villaume (2000), Gilbert, L. (2000), C. Peralta-Nash and J.A. Dutch (2000), P. Whitin, (2002) on the effectiveness of Literature Circles, provided by ERIC Digest (2002) reveals the following three basic elements of the method: diversity, self-choice, and student initiative, and identifies it as an efficient vehicle through which students learn to think critically, express their ideas in oral and written forms, better develop their communication experiences and learn to adapt to different communicative situations and environment/ Thus, Literature Circes have a rich potential to be implemented in EFL class at the university level as a tool to contribute to communicative mobility development.

Thus, **the aim of the article** is to reveal procedures and benefits of implementing literature circles in teaching English to improve students' communication mobility.

Main Body. Conversation and discussions are paramount aspects of a good communicative English class. Additionally, the use of content and academic language is essential. Thus, the use of Literature Circle Roles and the QARs Format (Question and Answer Relationship) tapping at the literal, interpretative and applied levels of comprehension as means to incorporate communicative discussions, academic language and a deeper analysis of literature is definitely an effective tool to enhance students' abilities.

The Question and Answer Relationship Format (QARs)

Initially, students can be scaffolded a Three-Level Guide to figure out the levels of reading comprehension (see table 1 below). In the first level, Literal Comprehension, readers can recognize the information which is explicitly stated in the text. Thus, the reader simply searches the text, "reading the lines" to confirm or refute the statements. At this level, the information is "right there" or "textually explicit", it is literal. Then, this level allows for little ambiguity; the facts, concepts or ideas are stated or paraphrased in the test (Raphael, 1982, Pearson & Johnson, 1972).

The next level, Interpretative Comprehension, readers can construct ideas or opinions that are based on the material read, but not stated explicitly in the text. Thus, during this level, readers are "reading between the lines". According to Herber (1978) "readers perceive the relationships that exist in that information, conceptualizing the ideas formulated by these relationships, and expressing these relationships in either written or oral form. The results are the development of an idea that is not explicitly expressed by the authors" (p. 45), as cited in Tama and McClain (1998). Simultaneously, Raphael (1982) describes this mental process as "Think and Search" so students look and gather the bits and pieces of information that support the ideas communicated in the text.

The final level, Applied Comprehension, consists of connecting and integrating the information, ideas and values from students' reading with their own experience or by applying these in other contexts. Thus, Pearson & Johnson (1972) define this process "reading beyond the lines", in which prior knowledge and experience relate to what one has read: That is when we see a relationship between the ideas acquired from other sources and the ideas derived from the reading selection (Herbert, 1978).

Table 1. Three-Level Guide to the QARs Format.

Literal Comprehension – RIGHT THERE!			
Goal	What to do?	The information is…	Example
Get the information in the text, easy to find	Read the lines	RIGHT THERE	What does the character look like? How do know that?
Interpretative Comprehension – THINK & SEARCH!			
Goal	What to do?	The information is…	Example
Integrate ideas, in the text, have to put different parts together	Read between the lines	THINK AND SEARCH	What is the personality of the main character? How do you know it?
Applied Comprehension – AUTHOR & YOU (ON YOUR OWN)			
Goal	What to do?	The information is…	Example
Express opinion, form new ideas. Answer not specifically in text. Can	Read beyond the lines	ON YOUR OWN	What made the author write about this? How do you know?

answer without returning to the story. Connect your experience to what you have read.			

In order to operationalize and conceptualize the use of this technique, let us use one practical example as seen in this short paragraph:

Donna Smith, a 14-year old girl from Nevada, was very sick. She had a bad heart. “Donna needs a new heart”, her doctors said. “She must have a new heart, or she will die soon”. Julio Hernandez, 15, was worried about Donna. Julio was Donna’s friend. He liked Donna very much. He liked her freckles, and he liked her smile. Julio didn’t want Donna to die.

Now, let us use the same paragraph to create different sets of questions tapping at the three levels of reading comprehension.

Literal Comprehension Sample Question and Answers:

- Write several sentences that describe what is Donna’s problem
  - Donna is a very sick girl because she has a bad heart
  - She needs to have a new heart.
  - The doctors say that if she does not find a new heart she will die
  - Julio didn’t want Donna to die

Interpretative Comprehension Sample Question and Answers:

- Write several sentences where you describe someone that had a similar experience to Donna’s or Julio’s
  - This story remains me of a boy in the news who needed blood
  - The boy’s parents were very worried because the boy could die
  - The parents were looking for someone to donate blood
  - The parents asked people on TV to donate blood
  - A rich man donated a lot of blood

Applied Comprehension Sample Question and Answers:

- Write several sentences where you describe what experiences you think made the author in his life, to write about Donna's problem
  - The author wanted to talk about Donna's disease because maybe he had a similar experience
  - Maybe the author had a relative or friend who was very sick and died
  - Maybe the author got this idea from the TV or the news
  - Perhaps the author suffered for somebody and wanted to share his experience

Notice the level of sophistication utilized in each question and the types of expected answers that can be projected based on the level of questioning. Thus, definitely we can see the continuum of student understanding from recalling information, to putting together bits and pieces from the paragraph itself to come to a conclusion, all the way to adding the students' experiences and background to establish their own opinions about the text. Thus, if teachers in the ESL or EFL classroom use this technique and nurture the types of questions used in here, students will be able to analyze not only fiction but also non-fictional texts including those that relate to real life information (e.g. labels, directions, newspapers, etc.).

Literature Circles

Literature Circles are "small peer-lead discussion groups whose members have chosen to read the same story, poem, article or book" (p. 2, Daniels, 2002). Eventually, the group meets for a discussion and each member makes notes to help them contribute to the upcoming discussion, and everyone comes to the group with ideas to share. Essentially, each group follows a reading and meeting schedule, they have periodic discussion on the way through the book. Towards the end, the circle members can share highlights of their reading with the wider community and can even trade members with other finishing groups, choose additional readings and move to a new circle. (Daniels, 2002). Literature Circle participants have pre-prepared roles they can use to come together and discuss the chapter they had just read.

Some roles to be used during the workshop may include: The Discussion Director, The Connector, The Literary Luminary or Passage Master, The Illustrator or Art Director, The Summarizer, The Vocabulary Enricher, The Word Wizard or The Wild & Crazy Word

Finder, The Super Story Teller, The Passage Performer, The Diction Detective, The Bridge Builder, The Reporter, The Travel Tracer, The Discussion Notetaking Graphic Organizer, the Double Entry Journal Role and the Researcher. Table 2 below illustrates some of the roles students can use for their discussion.

Table 2. Definition of Some Literature Circle Roles (Adapted from Literature Circles, 2010 by the College Board).

Discussion Leader/Questioner/ Discussion Director:	Diction Detective:	Bridge Builder:
Your job is to develop a list of questions you think your group should discuss about the assigned section of the book. Use your knowledge of levels of questions to create thought-provoking literal, interpretive, and universal questions. Try to create questions that encourage your group to consider many ideas. Help your group explore these important ideas and share their reactions. You will be in charge of leading the day's discussion.	Your job is to carefully examine the diction (word choice) in the assigned section. Search for words, phrases, and passages that are especially descriptive, powerful, funny, thought-provoking, surprising, or even confusing. List the words or phrases and explain why you selected them. Then, write your thoughts about why the author might have selected these words or phrases. What is the author trying to say? How does the diction help the author achieve his or her purpose? What tone do the words indicate?	Your job is to build bridges between the events of the book and other people, places, or events in school, the community, or your own life. Look for connections between the text, yourself, other texts, and the world. Also, make connections between what has happened before and what might happen as the narrative continues. Look for the characters' internal and external conflicts and the ways that these conflicts influence their actions.

Reporter:	Artist/Illustrator /Art Director:	Double Entry Journal:
Your job is to identify and report on the key points of the reading assignment. Make a list or write a summary that describes how the writer develops the setting, plot, and characters in this section of the book. Consider how characters interact, major events that occur, and shifts in the setting or the mood that seem significant. Share your report at the beginning of the group meeting to help your group focus on the key ideas presented in the reading. Like that of a newspaper reporter, your report must be concise, yet thorough.	Your job is to create an illustration related to the reading. It can be a sketch, cartoon, diagram, flow chart, or other depiction. You can choose to illustrate a scene, an idea, a symbol, or a character. Show your illustration to the group without any explanation. Ask each group member to respond, either by making a comment or asking a question. After everyone has responded, you may explain your illustration and answer any questions that have not been answered.	When reading your Literature Circle novel, you will be expected to record entries in a double-entry journal. You may include interesting quotations from the text, questions about the text, and connections between the text and your own life. During your literature circle discussion, you will trade journals with another group member, and respond to his/her entry under the Peer Response. You may then use these entries as talking points within your group discussion

The process to implement books is best done if done in advance. It is possible to have each group read a different book or the same book as long as they reach the students interest. Also, make sure to use high interest topics, challenging books with well-developed characters and those books that will allow students to make connections with the material read. In addition, it is a good idea to have a schedule of dates prepared for each discussion session. Students can read silently in class or do their reading as homework assignment, read aloud to one another in different group configurations, but also read aloud in a teacher-directed reading center and listen to oral readings. It is also recommended to plan in advance for due dates to avoid falling behind in the discussions and organize your dates by chapters. The advantages of using literature circles in the classroom are also finding online a plethora of resources and printable ready to use lit circle roles. Descriptions and explanations are typically provided in the roles so that students know exactly what to do. Allow also students to take turn performing in different roles and depending on their engagement and performance in the discussion, you might assign students more than one role to have smaller groups.

Finally, Literature Circles combined with the QRAs Format are great teaching tools to engage students from almost all levels, starting at 3rd or 4th grade level all the way to university students learning a second language. These strategies allow students to actively participate, to conduct research, to learn new vocabulary, to implicitly learn grammar in English (or any other second language), to enjoy reading, to deeply analyze language, literary devices, make connections to themselves and to analyze the plot of any story or book in a deeper way. Moreover, the method has a powerful potential to develop students' communicative mobility creating a fruitful and encouraging environment for natural interaction and collaboration.

Classroom Experiences & Reflections

Given our experience at the university level, we have encountered the use of these techniques rather useful to enhance and exploit our students' potential for oral skills in the classroom. For instance, we have used these techniques in two different contexts: students at Mykolaiv V.O. Sukhomlynsky National University who are becoming philologists, English teachers, interpreters and translators. The second context refers to students who are part of the Mykolaiv ACCESS Micro-Scholarship Program sponsored by US Embassy. These are students between ages 13-18 who are receiving English instruction.

Students in both contexts were given a book to read at home. The book called" "The House on Mango Street" by Sandra Cisneros was utilized since it has a rich multicultural set of topics and allows for intercultural communication amongst students. The book author has a strong Chicano Latino background and is well known in the US for her books and short stories.

Upon reading the chapters of the book, each student was given a literature circle role-sheet so that they could complete their tasks and bring them for discussion during class. We found the techniques used rather helpful and influential in our students because we saw great language performance levels and tasks completed by them. We discovered that even the shyest students in our classes, definitely came to the classroom ready to discuss their answers. Students were explained and helped in how to use the QARs and each one of the literature circle roles.

The great advantage of our interaction with students was the fact that students completed all of their assignments at home and came ready to discuss their findings. We were able to openly discuss and analyze the parts of the plot on the book we used. Students were able to make higher order thinking level questions using the QARs, they were able to analyze the characters, the events, the setting in the book, etc. In addition, they were able to make connections from their own experiences to the book we were using.

From the linguistic perspective, students were able to do in-depth analysis of language from the text by analyzing vocabulary, literary devices, learning new words, selecting phrases, sentences and even paragraphs relevant for fruitful linguistic discussion amongst all students in the classroom.

Finally, student engagement into the lessons increased dramatically since students expressed their confidence in understanding better and deeply the book they were reading, they felt personal connections to the book, they conducted research on topics from it, and they were able to communicate orally with more confidence as opposed to being asked directly by the teacher. As evidence of this, refer to the photos below in the appendix where we have included some sample work from students.

Thus, in conclusion, the authors highly encourage the use of both literature circles and the QARs in the EFL and ESL classroom. Despite the fact that these techniques were designed initially for elementary students in the US contexts, we have proven such techniques are rather beneficial in the EFL setting, especially for university students and teenagers. Moreover, the use of multicultural materials is indicative of student engagement. The book we have utilized comes from a renowned Chicano-Latino writer, Sandra Cisneros, who brings topics from the Hispanic culture and community into English literature. Thus, our Ukrainian students highly connected with the book we have used along with the techniques of the QARs and the Literature Circles. The topics from the book are rather rich and multi-cultural, they tap at real life situations from teenagers and have an emphasis on feminism.

In short, we highly recommend having a rich multi-cultural environment and intercultural communication through the means of using multi-cultural materials (a book or texts), along with appropriate techniques that enhance communication and higher order thinking processes: The QARs and the Literature Circles.

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ITEM TEST SPECIFICATIONS: HOW TO CREATE RECIPES FOR LANGUAGE ASSESSMENTS AND TESTS

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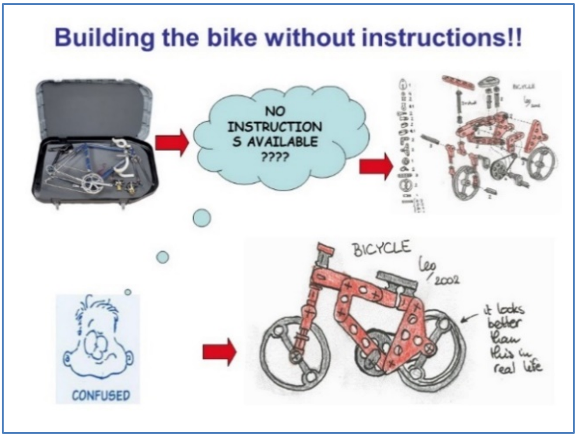
Abstract: Creating tests and assessments for both English language and second language learners has been challenging and has required a lot of theoretical and abstract thought. Conversely, big language testing companies, have shown weaknesses in their production of standardized assessments, especially in the training of test-item-writing. In order to create good language assessments, specifications are needed. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to present the fundamental and basic principles to create a recipe or test specifications to create any type of language assessment. The author uses Lynch and Davidson's five-step model (2002), following the formula derived by James Popham (1978). Further, after having presented the theoretical components of the model, the author proposes practical strategies to the use of this model and provide a sample language item test specification. The idea of this paper is to have teachers visualize and internalize the model to put it into practice in their own testing and assessment contexts.
Key words: Language Assessment, Item Test Specifications, Testing, Assessment, Test Development and Construction.

As noted above, in the following paper, I provide some practical guidelines to the design of item language test specifications. Item test specifications are important documents that create deep thinking within a group of teachers and even test developers in the creation of language assessments. Item test specifications allow us to put into writing what skills will be assessed in any test or assessment we design for our students.

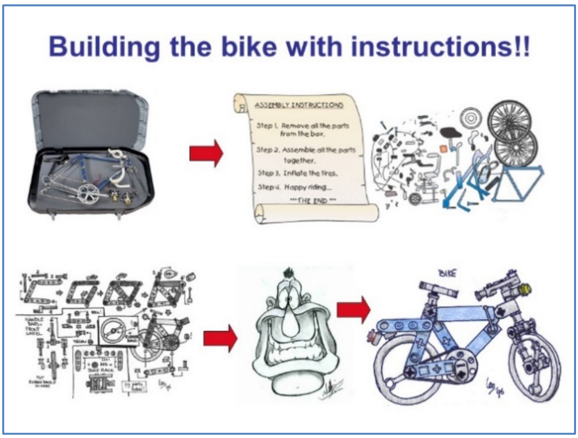
Let us start with a simple metaphor. Imagine we go to the store and we purchase a brand-new bicycle. We obtain all of the parts, but we do not have directions to put it together. Thus, on the same token we use our background knowledge of how a bicycle works, and we use our common sense to put it together (see Figure one below).

Figure 1. Building the bike without instructions (Adapted from Perea, 2010. Teacher Evaluation of Item Formats for an English Language Proficiency Assessment. Department of Applied Linguistics, Portland State University. Portland, Oregon).



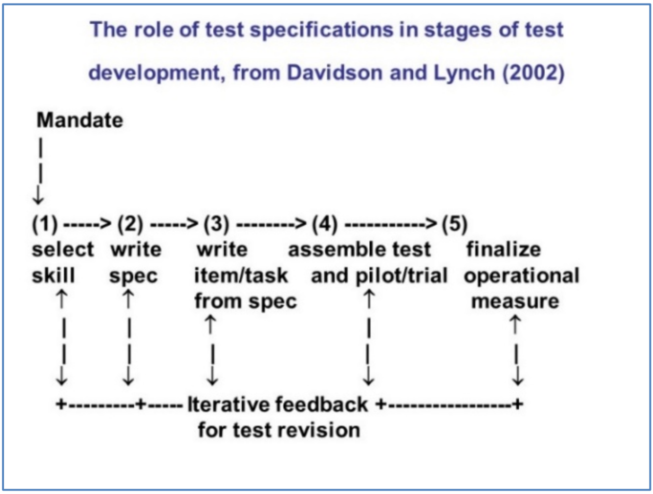
Consequently, we may get confused and we may not end up with the product we desire. On the other hand, what would happen if we purchase the bicycle, we lay out systematically every part of it according the "enclosed directions", we identify every part and follow such directions? Then, as expected, we will end up with a product that will fulfill its primary purpose and it will be long lasting (see figure 2 below).

Figure 2. Building the bike with instructions (Adapted from Perea, 2010. Teacher Evaluation of Item Formats for an English Language Proficiency Assessment. Department of Applied Linguistics, Portland State University. Portland, Oregon).



Thus, this metaphor is helpful to explain the role of item test specifications in item and passage writing and in the creation of accurate and quality language assessments. In numerous trainings for item writing, I have encountered workshops designed for teachers who are hired to create test items and passages for a new assessment. Unfortunately, both item writers and trainers generally do not possess test specifications, which will guide the item writing process on how to create quality items. Most of the time, trainees are exposed to some degree to the standards, benchmarks or general goals which are required within their curriculum. From there, trainers typically may provide some sample test items so both teachers and item writers are expected to produce test items with a vague idea on what skills need to be assessed. Here is when item specifications and a systematic process to the development of language assessments are paramount to this endeavor. Hence, I provide the role of test specifications in the stages of test development. See figure 3 below.

Figure 3. The role of test specifications in stages of test development (Adapted from Davidson, F. & Lynch, B. (2002). Testcraft: A teacher's guide to writing and using language test specifications. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press).



As noted in figure 3 above, Davidson and Lynch (2002) highlight the importance of designing assessments, examinations and tests with the use of test specifications. Thus, in every testing situation there should be a 'mandate', which can be translated as the reason to teach and the reason to test. Thus, the mandates are the expected standards that our students are supposed to know at the end of a course, semester, year and so on. The mandate is important because it guides what skills we want to assess in our students. This is the backbone of our assessment. So, once we have selected our skills, from there we need to create our test specifications or "recipes" for test questions or items. Then, it comes the task of producing test questions from such guidelines, recipes or specifications. Once teachers and item writers have produced a number of suitable test questions, the next stage is to assemble the test by skills and making a pilot test in order to try out the test items and see how these react to the students. At this stage, it is wise to do item analysis, item discrimination, distractor analysis (if multiple choice items), etc. The final stage is to finalize the operational measure. In other words, once the best test items have been selected based on the students or test takers reactions to the test questions, the test becomes operational or "ready to go" and can be implemented. Notice the dotted arrows intersecting all the stages in the development of the assessment which mark the "iterative feedback for test revision." Davidson and Lynch (2002) declare this is a critical aspect of the development of assessments because all the parties involved in this process (test developers, teachers, psychometricians, test proctors, etc.) are and should be involved in the development of the assessment. It is critical that all parties should have their opinion in how to improve and make the assessment the best it can be. Davidson and Lynch (2002) also postulate the assessment process should not only come from the top (meaning big testing companies, psychometricians, test developers or administrators), but also from the bottom (teachers, students, parents, etc.) in order to have a quality reliable and valid assessment.

Another aspect that is important to mention in this process is including the notion of constructing a "table of specifications." A table of specifications merely helps us map out our assessment. For instance, how many test questions or tasks we need, what skills are being tested, what types of questions we need (e.g. multiple choice, true-false, essay format, etc.), what the scoring weight per each section or task is, materials needed, number and types of passages for listening or reading tests, the level of performance or English language proficiency for each item and the standard that it is assessing. Figure 4 below, illustrates a general sample of what a table of specifications or test design may look like, which in turn can also be created by teachers creating their own assessments for their own contexts.

Figure 4. Sample table of specifications / blueprint (Perea, L.; Demchuk, O. & Nesterenko, O. (2019). Item Test Specifications: How to Create Recipes for Language Assessments and Tests. US Department of State and V.O. Shukhomlinsky National University of Mykolaiv).

Table of Specifications / Blueprint

Skill tested	Number of items / tasks	Type of item / task	Weigh	Materials, comments	Level (DOK, Bloom's Taxonomy)	Standard, Benchmark, Goal, Outcome
Literal comprehension	6 items	Constructed response (short answer) general information from the passage	1/3	Passage needed 1-6 items	Level 1	Goal A, B
Interpretative comprehension	6 items	Constructed response (short answer) specific / unstated information from the passage	1/3	Passage needed 7-12 items	Level 2	Goal C, D
Applied comprehension	6 items	Constructed response (short answer) unstated information from the passage	1/3	Passage needed 13-18 items	Level 3	Goal E, F
	18 total items		100%	1 passage		

Henceforth, as I have provided in this article the theoretical and general background in the design and development of assessments, I would like to delve into the nitty gritty terminology for the purpose of this article. According to Davidson (2003), his theoretical definition is as follows: *"A test specification is a generative document from which equivalent test items or tasks can be generated. Specs are a common component of many test development systems."* [3, p 4].

Conversely and based on my experience creating standardized tests and assessments for over 12 years, I define test specifications in the following manner: *"Test specifications are important documents in language testing [correction… in all content testing!] since they allow item writers knowing specific information about the items they need to create. In essence, a test specification is a 'recipe' to create / write items that will address a common skill or set of skills based on the standards from the test."* [12, p. 5].

Here, I try to clarify not only what test specifications are, but also their importance in all content areas (mathematics, social studies, English language arts, science, English as a second language, etc.), which goes beyond the domains of teaching English as a second or foreign language. Based on our experience, specifications are extremely necessary documents to train teachers who wish to create test items in any content area. Second, test specifications are a way to organize a set of skills we as teachers wish to assess when creating our assessment, here why they are so important in all creation of test items or tasks. Finally, I would like to provide a more practical definition for the novice teacher who wants to create assessments*: "Test specifications are recipes for teachers and for item writers to write or create test questions that assess a common skill. Test specifications are not for students to take, they are recipes for teachers to create the tests students will eventually take."* [13, p. 6].

Here I want to make the distinction that test specifications are documents created by teachers or test developers to aid other colleagues in the assessment process to create suitable congruent test items or tasks. Specifications are not the assessments per se that test takers will take. Specifications have the power to document how we will assess students in specific skills. Also, Davidson, Lynch, 2002 et al. declare test specifications lend themselves to a more CRM (Criterion Reference Measurement) approach to test our students since we can compare our test takers with a criterion or skill as opposed to be compared amongst other students (a Norm Reference Approach - NRM). Now, let us define the components of the recipe we propose in this article as noted in figure 5 below.

One important aspect to note, which is not discussed in detail in the Lynch and Davidson's five-step model (2002), is the notion of "item format". Based on my experience, I define it in this way: *"Format refers to both the type of item and the item's layout and appearance on the page of a test form. For example, item format encompasses stimulus art and how it is presented and labeled, the use of tables, charts, and graphs, the orientation of option art or formatting of text options in a multiple-choice question, etc. In addition, item format contains an intrinsic relationship to a set of skills or criterions tested depending on their design."* [10, p. 1].

Thus, item format is an important concept because depending on which format a test question is presented, it will inform the language of the PA (Prompt Attribute) in this test specification model. To point out a couple simple examples, the best way to assess writing comes from item formats such as writing an essay or a paragraph. If there is a need to assess grammatical points or mechanics in a more discrete manner, multiple choice or error correction identification tasks would be better suited to assess these criterions. Hence, I believe the idea of "item format' as very important in defining the way we will assess a specific language skill or criterion.

Figure 5. Components of Item Test Specifications (Lynch, Davidson, Popham Model, 2001, 2002)

Mandate: Standard, benchmark, construct for which the item/task is created.

General Description (GD): A brief general statement of the behavior to be tested. The GD is very similar to the core of a learning objective. The purpose of testing this skill may also be stated in the GD. The wording of this does not need to follow strict instructional objective guidelines.

Prompt Attribute (PA): These attributes comprise the component of the recipe (spec) that details what will be presented to the test taker. It includes the selection of an item or task format. It provides a detailed description of what test takers will be asked to do, including the form of what they will be presented with in the test items or task, to demonstrate their knowledge or ability in relation to the skill being tested.

↓

Decide on what item format to use - Item Format: Format refers to both the type of item and the item's layout and appearance on the page of a test form. For example, item format encompasses stimulus art and how it is presented and labeled, the use of tables, charts, and graphs, the orientation of option art or formatting of text options in a multiple-choice question, etc. In addition, item format contains an intrinsic relationship to a set of skills or criterions tested depending on their design	
Selected Response - Clear and detailed descriptions of each choice in a multiple-choice format. (Needs to select only 1 response) Multiple Choice Matching True/False Etc.	**Constructed response** - A clear and detailed description of the type of response the student will perform, including the criteria for evaluating or rating the response. (Needs to have a rubric) Essay Paragraph Oral Presentations Complex Projects Interviews Etc.

↓

Response Attribute (RA): A complete and detailed description of the way in which the student will provide the answer; that is, a complete and detailed description of what the student will do in response to the prompt and what will constitute a failure or success. There are two basic types of RA.

Sample item (SI): An illustrative item or task that reflects this specification, that is, the sort of item or task this specification should generate. It brings to life the language of the GD, PA and RA.

Specification Supplement (SS): A detailed explanation of any additional information needed to construct items for a given spec. In grammar tests, for example, it is often necessary to specify the precise grammar forms tested. In a vocabulary specification, a list of testable words might be given. A reading specification might list in its supplement the textbooks from which reading test passages may be drawn, DOKs, etc.

To further polish this model and help teachers write congruent specifications, scholars such as Fulcher and Davidson (2007) define congruent specifications as those where there is a clear direct match between a specification and its items. Thus, let me introduce the concepts of "Speclish & Level of Generality." Therefore, *"Speclish refers to the unique genre of neither too-specific nor too-general language which characterizes a functional & generative test specification"* [3, p. 53]. This is an important notion because the way we write a recipe has to do with the correct phraseology and word choice in the spec itself, neither too specific not too general.

If we tend to write a spec which is too general in its directions, our item writers and teachers, who need to create test items, will not be able to infer what exactly is requested in the recipe. On the other hand, if our directions are too detailed, we run the risk of confusing our item writers in producing test tasks or items which are poorly written or too specific without allowing a good range of test items addressing particular skills. Having established this issue, let us illustrate a couple examples in the wording of a PA (Prompt Attribute):

- **PA 1** [3, p. 56].

"Each item will present, in multiple choice format, a sentence requiring a particular English verb tense. The wrong answer will reflect error analysis on the kinds of mistakes students typically have made in the course they just completed"

- **PA 2 (revised)**

"Each item will present, in multiple-choice format, a sentence requiring a particular English verb tense- in particular, compound future verb tenses (e.g., "will be going," "will have gone," etc.). The wrong

answer will reflect error analysis of the kinds of mistakes students typically have made in the course they just completed. See SS for a report on the most recent error analysis data."

Notice in the first example of a PA, the description is too general and the item writer trying to produce test items addressing verb tenses would get too confused since there is not enough specificity to confound the skills needed to be tested. On the other hand, the second example has identified an item format (MCh), a particular verb tense (compound future tense), provides examples, and refers back to the SS to identify specific student mistakes during the course of the semester. Thus, we can see more clarity onto what the designer of the test specification wants the item writer to produce. Consequently, some solutions proposed to fix these sorts of issues between specificity and generality are as follows:

- Use language that is not restrictive, but which also is not too loose and ambiguous.
- Language is a genre of comfortable and reasonable guidance.
- Language used is a compromise between specificity and generality.
- Obtain feedback from others in the test development team/teachers.
- Include results from piloting & trialing.
- Include QA of operational use of interviews generated from the spec.

Finally, we want to pull everything together to visualize what a test specification may look like following this model (See appendix 1 for a sample test specification). In addition, I would like to end up this article with another metaphor that we hope helps capture the idea of how the process of language testing is or ought to be.

Figure 6. A Metaphor for Language Testing and Item Test Specifications (Adapted from Perea, 2010. Teacher Evaluation of Item Formats for an English Language Proficiency Assessment. Department of Applied Linguistics, Portland State University. Portland, Oregon).

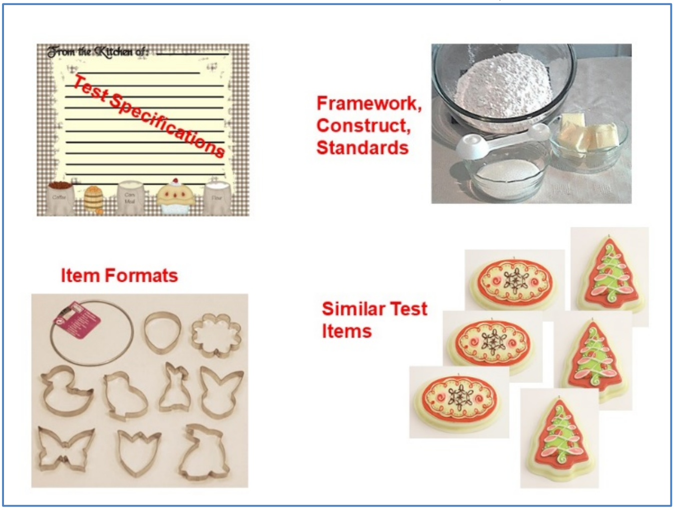


Figure 6 above, illustrates and compares how the process of creating test questions / items can be similar to baking 'cookies.' The very experienced baker or cook may know exactly how to bake cookies based on her experience throughout the years and familiarity with the ingredients and the process to do so. As time goes by, this person will become an expert and may not be inclined to use a recipe. All she needs are the ingredients, portions and even the tools to prepare the dough and bake it. Similarly, in our experience attending and conducting many item writing workshops those with the very intrinsic knowledge of language testing may know the nitty gritty aspects of item writing. However, those not familiar with such a process will struggle to master and to perfectionate this item writing skill. Further, in several contexts we have seen trainings being conducted with a vague or general vision of what is needed in terms of the items produced. Sometimes trainers, item writers and teachers only possess the standards or benchmarks, a few sample test items and a general idea of what the best item format to assess a particular skill is. Nevertheless, item writing is not the best it can be as teachers may not be satisfied with the quality of the test questions. What if in an item writing situation, no matter if conducted by a testing company or conducted by a group of teachers who want to develop a test, detailed item test specifications are present and are the result of a collaborative consensus-based dialogue amongst the participants? What if we had the theoretical background of what we want to test, the standards, a good framework, a well-defined construct or set of skills we want to test, but also a selection of good item formats, but most importantly, recipes or test specifications? Such interrelation of test specifications (recipes to cook test questions), clear and defined item formats (cooking molds), and the framework, standards and defined constructs/skills (cooking ingredients) will produce a set of well-defined test items or task (cookies), which are spec-driven. Spec-driven test items are the result of a long dialogue between the test collaborators, between trial and error, and a well-thought set of skills which are aligned to the mandate or standards driving the teaching curriculum.

A final benefit of spec-driven test questions is that specifications do not quite set in stone but continue evolving and improving with the collaboration of teachers. The design of classroom assessments should be specification-driven, iterative (evolving) and consensus-based (where all parties involved have a say in the process of test development). Finally, such process does not come from the top-down, but also from the bottom-up to make the best possible language assessment.

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Appendix 1. Reverse-Engineered Speaking Test Specification Created by Luis Perea (2003)©

Mandate:

ESL students must have exposure to practice oral skills and communicate in social settings and personal expression. Students need to be able to have frequent opportunities to practice speaking in a variety of topics, use critical thinking strategies, and with different audiences. These are important guidelines that are required by the State of Oregon and the K-12 TESOL standards to assess ELL students in their speaking ability throughout their academic life in high school. Additionally, the state requires that ELL students develop high levels of thinking processes such as those proposed in the Bloom's taxonomy, especially in analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating. Therefore, it is a mandate from the state of Oregon to assess/test ELL students in their oral ability periodically to gather data that will be beneficial to make recommendations on the students' oral English language demands. Such results will lead to an appropriate washback effect to improve future communicative language teaching strategies for ELL high school students.

General Description (GD):

ESL students will demonstrate their ability to state orally their opinion by supporting their point of view or by contrasting it with the suggested topic.

Students will use a set of aspects or suggestions relevant to the topic that reflects what a good friend looks like and will develop an argument that supports their ideas. By doing this, students also will analyze and reflect on their own personality and support their own ideas with evidence.

Prompt Attribute (PA):

The students will be asked to develop an argument based on a set of aspects/suggestions that describe what a good friend looks like. In an oral presentation, students will contrast whether or not friendship is more valuable than family relationships, will explain orally his/her point of view, and will defend it with evidence (previous experiences).

Requirements of the oral presentation During the first part, students will have a five-minute preparation time to think about their responses. Choices can be jotted down according to certain aspects or traits that describe friendship. For ins:

- Kindness
- Honesty
- Shared interests
- Fun to be with
- A shoulder to cry on
- Support

Additionally, other characteristics supporting this argument can be included by the student in a new category called “other”.

The teacher may make predetermined accommodation to:

1) Help students understand the purpose of the questions in the five-minute preparation time.
2) Elicit students’ ability to communicate by rewording, restating, or changing the question in order to facilitate the oral presentation and to determine the students’ English oral proficiency level as well as the future language demands that the student needs.

The oral presentation will be initiated by the teacher asking the student’s name as well as explaining the format/procedure of the oral presentation and making sure the student understands it. The student then will be asked to start his/her oral presentation. Depending on the pace of the presentation, the teacher may ask a question with a prompt or additional questioning in order to facilitate the presentation. Examples of questions can have a WH format, some question examples as illustrated in the Sample Item (SI) are:

- What are the qualities in yourself that you think your friends’ value?

Or a restated question by the teacher:

- Can you mention examples from your own experience showing that friend relationships are more important than your family relationships?

This test is not only a test of speaking or listening ability, but also a test of the student's ability to think critically how to:
- Compare/contrast ideas;
- Support own ideas with evidence;
- Analyze/reflect upon own personality and experience.

Therefore, critical thinking ability is also a vital part of students' second language communication skills that need to be reflected through comparing and contrasting ideas and defending their point of view in the L2.

Response Attribute (RA):

The student will have the choice to use his/her notes taken during the preparation time as a guide to organize and mention his/her point of view.

The student will speak from 10 to 15 minutes, if necessary; students will take more than 15 minutes to allow their speaking proficiency. Student will show sufficient original speech that will contain grammar that is appropriate to the context of the topic and students' utterances. Students' speech will be characterized of understandable speech rate, pronunciation, intonation, volume, and appropriate vocabulary suitable for the audience. In addition, they will be able to demonstrate orally:
- Their point of view and support it with evidence taken from previous experiences;
- Their analysis/reflection upon their personality that will lead to the description of their point of view;
- Their construction and defense of their own argument (either by comparing it or by contrasting it) based on the suggestions stated by the teacher in the Prompt Attribute (PA) such as: kindness, honesty, shared interests, fun to be with, a shoulder to cry on, support, and others; addressing the question, "what makes a good friend?"

Versus the question that leads to the argument of: "are family relationships more important/reliable than relationships with friends?"

There is not success of failure of the items, any response by the student depending on the oral ability and language structure used by the student, can be helpful to determine students' level of communication and exposure of critical thinking. Even the use of the mother tongue can be a factor to collect important data. See Specification Supplement (SS) for detailed student expectations in the oral presentation process.

Sample Item (SI) Directions:

You are going to make a 15-minute speech to demonstrate your oral skills in English as well as your capacity to make up an argument and defend it with evidence. You will talk about the importance of having a "friendship" and your "family relationships".

<u>Preparation time (five minutes)</u>

First, read the following traits that may describe the characteristics of a "good friend". Second, think about how these words are important to describe a good friend; you can jot down additional characteristics if you want in the chart below:

What makes a good friend? the advantages of a good friendship can be …

- Kindness
- Shared interests
- Honesty
- A 'shoulder to cry on'
- Support
- Fun to be with
- Other…
- ___________________________________

Now think about your family and the relationship that you have with each one of your relatives. Explain what is more important for you – your friends – or – your family – If you were given a choice whether to choose your family or your friends, what would it be? Explain why; give at least 3 good examples of your conclusion. Also provide examples from your own experience. Think of the advantages and disadvantages of your decision and talk about them.

Ask the teacher if you get stuck or have a question, you only have 5 minutes to prepare your speech.

Now, proceed to the next room and present your speech, be prepared to answer possible questions that the teacher may ask.

Specification Supplement (SS) 1

Relevant/detailed information for the oral presentation process should include the factors mentioned below. The teacher may refer to all the aspects and will choose the description that best describes the student's oral performance. It may be the case that a student may be marked in the scoring guide at different levels of the response attributes. This discrepancy will allow to see in detail what are the students' needs in terms or language demands and will allow an appropriate "washback" effect. Such language demands will be scaffolded to the students' future communicative language teaching strategies. This Response Attribute (RA) addresses what the student may show on his/her speaking ability in the target language and abilities to state a point of view with appropriate evidence.

Specification Supplement (SS) 2

Based on the information gathered during the English-speaking test and looking at the scoring guide based on a multiple trait approach,

(Name of the student) xxxxxxxx 's future speaking language demands need to be enhanced and scaffolded in the following areas: (please mark those that apply)

Language use
_____ Expressing point of view in the L2
_____ Providing reasons to support one's opinion in the L2
_____ Supporting reasons with detail and accuracy in the L2

Point of view & connection to own experiences
_____ Stating own opinion verbally in the L2
_____ Analyzing own and others' personality in the L2
_____ Reflecting upon own and others' personality in the L2
_____ Supporting ideas from previous experiences in the L2
_____ Supporting ideas with accurate evidence in the L2
_____ Constructing an appropriate argument according to the situation, suggestion given in the L2 _____ Supporting an argument by either comparing it or contrasting it with another in the L2

Grammar & vocabulary
_____ Providing multiple exposures to varied vocabulary in the L2
_____ Using varied vocabulary orally in the L2
_____ Providing practice to analyze word order in the L2
_____ Providing ample opportunities to learn grammatical structures of language in the L2

Fluency
_____ Providing ample opportunities to practice and engage into conversation & classroom discussion in the L2
_____ Providing ample opportunities to practice and engage into spoken English as well as listening to the L2 preferably with a native speaker

Pronunciation, intonation & volume
_____ Providing opportunities to practice reading aloud, conversation and reflecting on volume, intonation, pronunciation in the L2, preferably with an English native speaker
_____ Providing opportunities to paraphrase aloud aspects such as reading pieces as well as events (movies, radio, conversation, etc.) in the L2
_____ Providing ample opportunities to analyze, reflect, and correct own speech and modify foreign accent
_____ Providing ample opportunities to listen to native speakers of English pronounce the language

THE PRAGMATICS OF COMPLIMENT EXPRESSIONS BETWEEN NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH, RUSSIAN, AND UKRAINIAN

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Abstract: Pragmatics has been a paramount part in the field of intercultural communication for linguists. It concerns the study of linguistic interaction between people and it analyzes conversation and the speech acts. The present article focuses on the speech acts as a way to express in universal ways and with appropriate knowledge and, namely, on the usage of compliment expressions. We have taken as a basis Manes' definition of compliments as those speech acts which have the reflection and expression of cultural values because of their nature as judgments, over expressions of approval or admiration of another's work, appearance or taste. The objective of compliment expressions is to establish or to reinforce solidarity. Many of the values reflected through compliments are personal appearance, new acquisitions, possessions, talents and skills. The conclusions that we have drawn are made on the results that we have got from the online survey that referred to the following variables: compliment form (syntactic patterns), tone used by speakers, compliment frequency, relationship between the compliment speaker and hearer, gender relationship, speakers' age, and attributes praised. Participants consisted of native speakers of English interviewed in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over the Ukraine.
Keywords: ethnomethodology, compliments, speech acts, native speakers, compliment expressions, language forms, adjectives, attributes praised.

Pragmatics concerns the study of linguistic interaction between people and it analyzes conversation and the speech acts [18]. To acquire pragmatic competence, speakers must also have a good command of speech acts. Searle (1969) considers that "a speech act is the basic or minimal unit of linguistic communication" [17, p.16]. Speech acts are very important because they let people express in universal ways and with appropriate knowledge; therefore, knowing how to use speech acts, allows the speaker to have "communicative competence". For the purpose of the present study, the uses of compliment expressions have been analyzed. Manes (1983) defines compliments as those speech acts which have the reflection and expression of cultural values because of their nature as judgments, over expressions of approval or admiration of another's work, appearance or taste. The objective of compliment expressions is to establish or to reinforce solidarity. Many of the values reflected through compliments are personal appearance, new acquisitions, possessions, talents and skills.

In the present study, participants were interviewed via an online survey that collected information from the following variables: compliment form (syntactic patterns), tone used by speakers, compliment frequency, relationship between the compliment speaker and hearer, gender relationship, speakers' age, and attributes praised. Participants consisted of native speakers of English interviewed in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over the Ukraine.

Methodology & Results

The methodology employed in the present research is an ethnomethodology approach since the idea is to work with people in their natural contexts. Thus, researchers are concerned with describing a group, asking questions, etc. The method of data collection used was similar to that of previous studies on compliments such as those from Barlund & Araki (1985), Nelson (1985 & 1997), and Perea (1999).

There have been collected 245 compliments in English, 470 compliments in Russian and 292 compliments in Ukrainian. The context in which the expressions were collected come from participants' real-life situations, and a small percentage from the social media such as Facebook® and TV situations. For the English survey, 70.31% of the participants were females and 29.69% were male respondents. For the Ukrainian survey, 19.49% of the respondents were males, while 80.51% were females. Finally, for the Russian survey, 24.58% of the respondents were males, while 75.42 were females.

Our preliminary results indicate that both Ukrainian and Russian compliment expressions had approximately the same average of words, but the English compliments had slightly more as noted in table 1 below.

Table 1. Compliment Length

Russian compliments	Ukrainian compliments	American English compliments
5.9 words (445 compliments – 2025 words)	4,32 words (231 compliments – 1263 words)	5,5 words (245 compliments – 1360 words)

In regards of the adjectives used in the three languages, we can observe a high incidence of adjectives in the Russian compliments. As noted in table 2 below, about 45 different adjectives were identified in Russian, 35 in Ukrainian and 44 in English. The most prominent ones in Russian were: Красивый (pretty) – 31.5%, Умный (smart) – 5,1%; in Ukrainian: Гарний (pretty) – 25,2%, Розумний (smart) – 15, 4%, and Вродливий (beautiful) – 10,3 %; while in English: Good (+the best) – 19%, Great – 14,9%, and Nice – 12,3%. You can notice below the range of adjectives found across the different languages. This data yields important information for the second language speakers of these languages; it is necessary not to overuse or underuse adjectives that may cause negative transfer in the second language context.

Table 2. Adjectives Used in Compliment Expressions.

RUSSIAN ADJECTIVES	UKRAININAN ADJECTIVES	ENGLISH ADJECTIVES
Красивый (pretty) – 31,5% Умный (smart) – 5,1% Шикарный (elegant) – 3,5% Прекрасный (beautiful) – 3,5% Вкусный (tasty) – 3.2% Милый (nice) – 2.8% Хороший (good) – 2.8% Отличный (excellent) – 2,2 Крутой / Классный (cool) – 2.2%	Гарний (pretty) – 25,2% Розумний(smart) – 15, 4% Вродливий (beautiful) – 10,3 % Добрий(good, kind) – 8,1% Смачний (tasty) –7,5 % Щирий(sincere) – 6% Турботливий(thoughtful) – 3,5% Хозяйновитий (handy) – 3,4 % Найкращий (best) – 3% Веселий (jolly) – 2,5%	Good (+the best) – 19% Great – 14,9% Nice – 12,3% Beautiful – 9,2% Awesome– 5,1% Amazing – 3,6% Cute– 3% Wonderful– 2,6% Pretty– 2,6% Handsome– 2% Smart– 2%

Лучший (best) – 1,9% Добрый (kind) – 1,9%		
Others – 13% Обворожительный Enchanting Чудесный Wonderful Фантастичный Fantastic Обаятельный Charming Образованный Educated Выразительный Expressive Активный Active Общительный Communicative Интересный Interesting Позитивный Positive Потрясающий Stunning Решительный Resolute Мужественный Courageous Божественный Divine Удивительный Astonishing Честный Fair Искренний Sincere Приятный Pleasant Веселый Cheerful Харизматичный Charismatic Добрый Kind Открытый Open Продвинутый Advanced Верный Right Преданный Devoted Ответственный Responsible	Others – 15,1% Такий самий Thesame Вразливий Impressionable Класний Classy Загадковий Enigmatic М'який Soft Чесний Honest Смішний Funny Влучний Attractive Милий Nice Чудовий Excellent Найцінніший Mostvaluable Дивовижний Amazing Кмітливий Clever Найсмачніший The most delicious Непередбачуваний Unpredictable ВідкритийOpen Чуйний Sensitive Світлий Light Приємний Pleasant Відповідальний Responsible Геніальний Genial Файний Beautiful Досконалий Perfect Неперевершений Unsurpassed Шикарний Elegant	Others – 23,7 % Cool Brilliant Hot Thoughtful Sweet Talented Hardworking Kind Excellent Lovely Adorable Insightful Delicious Fascinating Professional Sexy Glowing Strong Incredible Successful Tough Confident Attractive Diligent Helpful Efficient Caring Brave Creative Hilarious Reliable Perfect Acceptable

Находчивы Resourceful Веселый Cheerful Остроумный Witty Добросердечный Kind-hearted Великодушный Generous Великолепный Great Экстраординарный Extraordinary Захватывающий Exciting Сумасшедший Crazy Современный Modern Шедевральный Masterpiece Гениальный Brilliant Вдохновляющий Inspiring Новый New		44 different adjectives (194 – 14%) 11 adjectives – 76,3 % 33 adjectives – 23,7 %
45different adjectives (311 – 18 %) 11 adjectives – 61.09 % 34 adjectives – 38.91 %	35 different adjective (234 – 15.7%) 10 adjectives – 84,9% 25 adjectives – 15,1%	

In what respects the attributes praised within the compliment expressions, the results indicated that Ukrainian speakers of Russian language tend to compliment someone’s appearance, traits / personality, skill / work, natural human traits and taste more than any other characteristic. Similarly, Ukrainian speakers of Ukrainian language complimented appearance, natural human traits, traits / personality and personal property. On the other hand, American speakers of English really admire someone’s skill / work (see high incidence in tables below), followed by appearance and traits / personality. Definitely, this has implications to avoid cross-cultural misunderstandings since we can clearly see how different cultures value different attributes when using compliment expressions.

Tables 3, 4, & 5. Attributes Praised by Language.

Russian compliments

Appearance	Traits/ Personality	Skill/ work	Taste	Natural Human Traits	Other	Total
164 (36,8%)	100 (22,4%)	58 (13%)	54 (12,1 %)	58 (13%)	9 (2%)	445 (100 %)

Ukrainian compliments

Appearance	Traits/ personality	Skill/ Work	Personal property	Natural Human Traits	Other	Total
98 (42,4%)	28 (12%)	16 (7%)	22 (9,5%)	62(27%)	5 (2,1%)	231 (100%)

English compliments

Appearance	Traits/ Personality	Skill/ Work	Personal property	Other	Total
50 (20,4 %)	40 (16,2 %)	92 (36,45 %)	36 (14,7 %)	27 (10,95 %)	245 (100 %)

Finally, looking at the Compliment Form or Syntactic Patterns identified in the present study, we can observe that English compliment expressions had a more varied selection of grammatical patterns as compared to both Russian and Ukrainian speech acts. The most prominent syntactic formulas of the Russian compliments include: ***PRO+HAVE+ADJ+N/NP*** *(18.6%),* ***PRO+ADV (intensifier) +ADJ*** *(16%), and* ***PRO+ADJ****(10.5%).* Concerning the Ukrainian expressions the patterns with the highest percentage were: ***PREP+PRO+HAVE+(intensifier)ADJ+N/NP*** *(22%)*, ***PRO+(intensifier)+ADJ****(28.1%)*,***ADJ+N/NP****(7.3%)*, and ***PRO/ADV+LOOK*** *(7.3%)*. Finally, the main grammatical forms for the English compliments included: ***PRO+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT*** *(26%)*, ***PRO/NP+LOOK+ADJ+ COMPLEMENT****(26%)*, ***ADJ+NP****(14%)*,and ***I+like/love+NP****(10%)*. Thus, given these results, we can see some similarities between Russian, Ukrainian, and English grammatical formulas a noted in the following table 6.

Table 6. Grammatical Similarities by Language Forms.

RUSSIAN	UKRAINIAN	ENGLISH
PRON+HAVE+ADJ +N/NP У тебя красивые глаза. (You have beautiful eyes.)	***PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP*** В тебе такі хороші парфуми (You have very good perfume) ***Який (how)+HAVE+ (intensifier) ADJ+N*** Який у тебе гарний парфум! (How good perfume you have)	***PRO+HAVE+ADJ+NP*** Wow, you have very white teeth.
PRO+ADV(intensifier)+ADJ Ты очень умный. (You are very clever.) ***PRO+ADJ***	***PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ*** Він дуже влучний (He	***PRO+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT*** You will be successful anywhere you go

Ты красивая. (You are beautiful.)	is very accurate)	
PRO+LOOK+ADV Она выглядит изумительно. (She looks gorgeous!)	***PRO/ADV+LOOK*** Класно виглядаєш (You look cool)	***PRO/NP+LOOK+ADJ+COMPLEMENT*** You look beautiful today. Like a model!
ADJ Милая. (Pretty.)	***ADJ(+)*** Розумний (Smart)	***ADJ+NP*** Great job!
I like/love+(intensifier)+ your +N Мне нравится твоя обувь. (I like your shoes.) Я очень люблю твой голос. (I love your voice very much.)	***I LIKE (YOUR)+N*** Мені дуже подобається твоя зовнішність (I like your appearance so much)	***I+like/love+NP*** I really like your neighborhood! I love the color of your hair!
PRO+ADV+V Ты приятно пахнешь. (You smell good.) Вы хорошо поработали. (You did a good job.)	***PRO+ADV+V*** Ти гарно посміхаєшся (You smile beautifully)	***PRO+VERB+COMPLEMENT*** They did really well. I wish I had your legs. You are all legs!
PRO+HAVE+(intensifier)+N **You are (my)+the most+ADJ+N** **PRO+my+N**		

As noted in the aforementioned table 6, we can observe several similarities in grammatical forms, both across Ukrainian and Russian and surprisingly even with English compliments. It is rather interesting to see the most prominent ones such as *I+like/love+NP* and the *ADJ+NP*. For the purposes of a better understanding of the forms, we have utilized a set of grammar form tagging that would analogously fit the English grammar, or at least when a translation into English of the Russian and Ukrainian expressions is done, we can see the similarities more saliently.

The following tables 7 – 9 demonstrate in detail the syntactical patterns per language with their corresponding English translation. Also notice we have used in the Ukrainian/Russian compliments, an English formula in an attempt to showcase the similarities with the English formulas to provide a better perception of them.

Table 7. Compliment Forms in Russian Compliments.

Syntactic pattern %	**Example**
PRO+HAVE+ADJ+N/NP **18.6%**	У тебя красивые глаза. (You have beautiful eyes.) У тебя отменное чувство юмора. (You have perfect sense of humor.)
PRO+ADV(intensifier)+ADJ **15.9%**	Ты очень милый. (You are very pretty.) Ты очень умный. (You are very clever.)
PRO+ADJ **10.5%**	Ты прекрасна. (You are wonderful.) Ты красивая. (You are beautiful.)
ADJ+N/NP **9.4%**	Красивые цветы! (Beautiful flowers) Симпатичные сапоги! (Nice shoes)
PRO+LOOK+ADV **8.2%**	Ты выглядешь замечательно.(You look great.) Она выглядит изумительно. (She looks gorgeous!)
PRO+ADV+V **5.6%**	Ты вкусно готовишь. (You cook delicious.) Ты приятно пахнешь. (You smell good.) Вы хорошо поработали. (You did a good job.)
PRO+(intensifier)+ SUIT+ADV or N+(intensifier)+SUIT+PRO **4.7%**	Тебе идет эта прическа. (This hairstyle suits you.)

	Цвет этого платья тебе к лицу. (The color of this dress suits you.)
You are (my) +THE MOST+ADJ+ N **4.7%**	Ты у меня самая лучшая. (You are the best I have.) Ты моя красавица. (You are my beauty.)
ADJ ***3.3%***	Красивая. (Beautiful.) Милая. (Pretty.)
N2.2%	Молодец. (Good job.) Красавица. (Belle.)
I like/love + (intensifier) + your + N ***2%***	Мне нравится твоя обувь. (I like your shoes.) Я очень люблю твой голос. (I love your voice very much.)
ADV+(intensifier)+ADJ+N ***1.7%***	Такие красиве волосы. (So beautiful hair.) Такой вкусный ужин. (Such a delicious dinner.)
You are + LIKE + N/NP or Your +N+ are/is + LIKE+N/NP 2%	Ты как вода. (You are like water.) Твои успехи как бальзам на душу. (Your achievements are like a balm for my soul.)
ADV(intensifier)+ ADJ 1,5%	Очень красивая. (Very beautiful.) Очень вкусно. (Very delicious.)
N+ADV+V ***1,1%***	Платье очень хорошо скроено. (The dress is cut out very well.) Вареники получились очень вкусными. (Dumplings turned out very delicious.)
Other ***7,6%***	
Total ***(100%)***	

Table 8. Compliment Forms in Ukrainian Compliments.

Syntactic pattern %	**Example**
ADJ(+) 3,8%	Розумний (Smart) Мила (Cute)
ADJ+N/NP 7,3%	Гарний макіяж (Good make up) Красиві ямочки на щоках (Beautiful dimples)
intensifier + ADJ 1,7%	Дуже розумний (Very smart) Дуже гарна (Very pretty)
PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ + N 0.4%	Ти дуже відкрита та чуйна людина (You are very open and sensitive person)
PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP 22%	У тебе дуже гарні очі (You have very beautiful eyes) В тебе такі хороші парфуми (You have very good perfume)
Який (how) + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N 1.2%	Яка в тебе чудова сукня! (How beautiful dress you have) Який у тебе гарний парфум! (How good perfume you have)
Яка (how) + ADJ + N1,2%	Яка чудова погода (How great weather is) яке довге волосся (How long hair are)
Яка (how) + ADJ/PRO + N 0,8%	Яка ти красуня (How pretty you are) яка ти розумна (How smart you are)
N1,7%	Красуня (Beauty) Молодець(Well done)
PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ ***28,1%***	Ти дуже непередбачувана (You are very unpredictable) Він дуже влучний (He is very accurate)
PRO/ADV+LOOK 7,3%	Чудово виглядаєш (You look greatly) Класно виглядаєш (You look cool)

PRO+ADV+V 3,8%	Ти гарно посміхаєшся (You smile beautifully) Ти класно рухаєшся (You move awesome)
PRO+(intensifier)+suit+N 4,3%	Тобі дуже личить цей піджак (This jacket suits you much) Тобі так пасує ця зачіска (This haircut suits you much)
I LIKE (YOUR)+N 1,7%	Мені подобається твій колір волосся (I like your color of hair) Мені дуже подобається твоя зовнішність (I like your appearance so much)
PRO+(my)+N ***3%***	Ти моє золото (You are my gold) Ти геній (You are genius)
IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION 2,1%	Оце так варить в тебе голова (Your head works greatly) Ти на висоті (You are on height)
You are (my) +THE MOST+ADJ+N 0,4%	Ти найкраща подруга в світі (You are the best friend in the world)
NP + VERB + ADJ + COMPLEMENT0,4%	Пиріг приготований просто чудово (Pie is cooked absolutely great)
METAPHORIC EXPRESSION 1,7%	Грішно бути такою красивою!(it is a sin to be so beautiful) Твої очі передають всю твою красу (Your eyes are passing on all your beauty)
NP (VERB) + COMPLEMENT 1,7%	Ваш магазин здатен задовольнити будь-які потреби. (Your store is able to satisfy any needs) Ці картини, є шедевральньними.(These pictures are a masterpiece)
PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE + NP 0,4%	На тобі дуже гарні прикраси (You have very beautiful jewelry)

Silence ***0,8%***	Комплімент зроблений посмішкою (The compliment was made by smile)
NO PATTERN ***3,4%***	У молоді роки и були дуже привабливою жінкою (During your youth you used to be a very attractive woman)
Total ***100%***	

Table 9. Compliment Forms in English Compliments.

Syntactic pattern %	**Example**
ADJ+NP ***14%***	Great job! Awesome students, people, activities, and party at America House, Kiev!!!
PRO+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT ***26%***	You're awesome You will be successful anywhere you go You're a 10/10, for real, you're so beautiful
DEM ADJ+BE+ADJ/NP ***9%***	That was an insightful answer Hey that's a nice shirt, I like the style and the color is awesome This is really cute!!!
INTENSIFIER/ADJ+COMPLEMENT ***2%***	Very good, I'm very proud of you So honored to work with such great and talented future English teachers,

	translators, interpreters and philologists from Ukraine!!!)))
PRO/NP+LOOK+ADJ+ COMPLEMENT 26%	You look really professional in that outfit-I love the cardigan. You look beautiful today. Like a model! You look fucking hot.
POSS ADJ+N+BE+ADJ/COMPLEMENT 3%	Your hair is so cool Your home is lovely. What a great apartment Our grandchild is so adorable! Oh honey, your grades are so awesome! Great job!
I+like/love+NP 10%	I really like your neighborhood! I love the color of your hair! Sasha, I really liked your video presentation, it was very good!
PRO+HAVE+ADJ+NP 5%	You have perfect marketing skills and you are not afraid to speak to anyone You have a good memory. What's your secret?

	Wow, you have very white teeth.
PRO+VERB+COMPLEMENT ***13%***	They did really well I wish I had your legs. You are all legs! Your grades have improved greatly. I'm proud of you!
NP+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT ***1%***	The food was great! The pastor is a wonderful preacher
INTERJ+INTENSIFIER+COMPLEMENT ***2%***	Thanks so much for your very kind words! Thanks so much. It was great to have you. Thank you for sharing nicely with your sister
IMPERATIVE VERB+COMPLEMENT ***1%***	Keep posting the amazing photographs Look at you!!! Go Luis! Great job, keep up the good work!
IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION ***1%***	Way to go Congrats
QUESTION+COMPLEMENT ***1%***	Can you try not to be so awesome, you are making the rest of us look bad
INTERJECTION+NP ***1%***	Bravo, my intellectual friend!

	Thanks friendo
Other NO PATTERN1%	Without your help we would be in trouble
Total (100%)	

Conclusion

As we have observed in these preliminary results, there exist numerous pragmatic implications to be taken into account while teaching ESL in a Russian and Ukrainian classroom. We can see the importance of understanding the syntactical formulas in the three languages in teaching compliments to avoid pragma-linguistic failure. It is advisable to teach compliment structures throughout the syntactic formulas we have pointed to. Another important aspect is paying attention to the *praising attributes* to see how native speakers of English (living in the USA), Russian and Ukrainian (living in Ukraine), tend to compliment people. These results also allow us to draw conclusions on the cultural peculiarities that can be observed in language production.

Upon completion of the data analysis on the current study, we shall be able to provide further information on variables such as role relationship of the giver and receiver of the compliment, compliment frequency, attributes praised by gender according to nationality, tone employed, average age of the participants, and even a deeper analysis in terms of semantics, metaphorical language and so on.

Further recommendations for future studies would be interesting in responses to compliments (perlocutionary speech act) to see how native speakers of these languages respond to these expressions

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INTONATION ALS EINE WICHTIGE KOMPONENTE DER KOMMUNIKATIONSFÄHIGKEIT

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Abstract: A lot is spoken about forming the phonetic competence in foreign language schools. Thus, this article deals with the importance of the sound (phonetic) aspect of oral communication in foreign language teaching where special attention is paid to intonation. There is a central object of study from the perspective of spoken speech parameters. Future professionals must speak a foreign language, have interpersonal and professional communication skills. These skills allow you to feel confident in a foreign business environment, to be competitive in the labour market. But it is worth mentioning that the knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical rules is insufficient for this. It is necessary to identify the main point, accents and pauses. The author states that intonation, emotions, skills intoning sentences are very important in a foreign language. Thus, the given article discusses the functions of intonation, emphasizing the main features of the intonation of the German language and indicating their syntactic and phonetic peculiarities.
Keywords: foreign language skills, language learner, the phonetic aspect; intonation; oral communication; systemic intonation analysis.

Um die Wende des 20. Jahrhunderts, mit der Entwicklung von modernen Technik und Wirtschaft, kam es zur wachsenden Mobilität der Menschen und zur weiten Erstreckung des internationalen Dialogs nicht nur in den Alltagssituationen sondern auch bei der Geschäftskommunikation. Es löste einen zunehmenden Bedarf nach Fachleuten mit guten Fremdsprachenkenntnissen aus und rief die

Notwendigkeit hervor, in der fremden Sprache mündlich oder schriftlich kommunizieren zu können.

Um die Verständigung zwischen den Kommunikationspartnern zu erzielen, das heißt Informationen zu verstehen und richtig zu interpretieren, aber auch verständlich darauf zu reagieren, muss man ein gutes Niveau der Sprachbeherrschung haben. Man muss das gemeinsame Objekt der Kommunikation kennen, mit beruflichen Termini operieren können.

Allein Fremdsprachenkenntnisse aber, d.h. das Sprachwissen (Lexik, Grammatikstrukturen und Regeln ihres Gebrauchs), genügen oft nicht. Um diese Unvollkommenheit des Sprachgebrauchs zu überwinden, setzt man in der Fremdsprachendidaktik Anfang der 70er Jahre das Sprachkönnen anstatt des Sprachwissens in den Vordergrund. Dabei wird di kommunikative Kompetenz als übergeordnetes Lernziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts erklärt.

Die kommunikative Sprachkompetenz hat mehrere Komponenten: eine linguistische, eine soziolinguistische und eine pragmatische Komponente. Die linguistische Komponente umfasst lexikalische, phonologische und syntaktische Kenntnissen und Fertigkeiten. Die soziolinguistische Komponente baut auf soziokulturelle Bedingungen der Sprachverwendung, die unterschiedliche gesellschaftliche Konventionen (Normen für die Beziehungen zwischen den sozialen Schichten und Gruppen) einschließen. Die pragmatische Komponente impliziert den funktionalen Gebrauch sprachlicher Ausdrucksmittel, ist für interaktionelle Szenarien und Skripts verantwortlich. Alle Komponenten der kommunikativen Sprachkompetenz stellen Kompetenzen eines gesellschaftlich handelnden Menschen dar, zeugen von seinen Kommunikationsfähigkeiten.

Für die Ausbildung von Fachleuten mit Fremdsprachenkenntnissen, die fähig wären, erfolgreich zu kommunizieren, soll sich der Lernende im Fremdsprachenunterricht neben den Sprachkenntnissen auch verschiedene Kommunikationsformen aneignen: eigene Meinung mündlich und schriftlich ausdrücken, an der Geschäftskommunikation teilnehmen, argumentieren usw. Damit der Fachmann auch konkurrenzfähig ist, muss er auf Sprechakte der Gesprächsführung vorbereitet werden, wie Bewerbungsgespräch, Kundendienst in verschiedenen Bereichen.

Die Kommunikationsfähigkeit des zukünftigen Fachmannes kann im Rahmen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts geübt werden. Dafür wird vom Lehrer möglichst oft das authentische Material gewählt, damit der Lernende die natürlich gesprochene Sprache verstehen und darauf reagieren kann, sowohl im Alltag als auch im Beruf. Man könnte dazu private Alltagsdialoge und die aus dem Berufsleben analysieren, der Gesprächssituation entsprechende Aufgaben lösen lassen, indem man bestimmte sprachliche Handlungen realisiert. Da es im realen Berufsalltag mehr gesprochen als geschrieben wird, soll im Rahmen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts das Hörverstehen praktiziert mit der Aufgabe, in mündlicher Form auf das Gehörte zu reagieren. Dabei werden gewöhnlich folgende Formen der mündlichen Äußerung für die Berufskommunikation geübt: Telefongespräche, Interviews, Bewerbungsgespräche, Diskussionen usw. Diese Übungsformen sind mit den Fortgeschrittenen effektiver, die bereits über den nötigen ortschatz und Satzstrukturen verfügen.

Da das Telefongespräch keinen persönlichen Kontakt bietet, ist es eine besondere Form in der Geschäftskommunikation, die einem Fremdsprachlerner größere Schwierigkeiten bereitet, weil dabei sowohl sprachliche als auch akustische und interkulturellen Unterschiede als Störfaktoren auftreten.

Vor dem Interview als einer Form der beruflichen Geschäftskommunikation steht die Aufgabe, Informationen über eine Person, Institution oder Waren anzufragen. Für die erfolgreiche Kommunikation hat der zukünftige Fachmann nicht nur klar und deutlich seine Absichten zu äußern, sondern viel mehr den Geschäfts- und Gesprächspartner zu hören und zu verstehen. Dafür werden im Fremdsprachenunterricht W-Fragen, Rück- und Nachfragen gut erarbeitet.

Beim Bewerbungsgespräch müssen die Lernenden über ihre Pläne sprechen, ihre Meinung äußern. Dafür können in der Unterrichtssituation Diskussionen organisiert werden, um echte Interaktion zu simulieren. Die Fremdsprachlerner müssen zuhören lernen, die Meinung der Gesprächspartner analysieren, auf das besprochene Problem eingehen, selbst Argumente finden.

Dafür gibt es eine bestimmte Technik, d.h. rhetorische Fragen, Wiederholungen, Ausrufe, Inversion, betonte Sprachkonstruktionen. Die Aufteilung der Sprechakte bietet eine Möglichkeit, konkrete Sprechsituationen in ihrem sozialen Kontext im Fremdsprachenunterricht zu vermitteln.

Eine reale Kommunikation in Fremdsprachen erfordert vom Fremdsprachenlerner außer Fremdsprachenkenntnissen auch die

Beherrschung der funktionalen Kompetenz, von der man danach urteilen kann, welchen Kenntnisstand er hat und wie korrekt er diese Fremdsprache gebraucht. Die Aneignung der funktionalen Kompetenz hat den Zweck, die Kommunikationsfähigkeit zu entwickeln, die als eine Einheit drei Komponenten umfasst: Reproduktion, Interaktion und Wahrnehmung.

Damit die Kommunikation in Sprechakten erfolgreich verläuft, muss man bei der Entwicklung der Fähigkeit zur mündlichen Kommunikation in Fremdsprachen die Wichtigkeit des phonetischen Aspekts im Auge behalten. Nämlich die Rolle der Intonation. Sowohl in Alltagssituationen als auch in der Geschäftskommunikation ist sehr wichtig, das Hauptanliegen hervorheben, richtig akzentuieren und Pausen machen zu können. Nicht weniger von Bedeutung sind Intonation und Emotionen. Wegen der mangelnden fremdsprachlichen Äußerungsfähigkeit, d.h. Sprachkönnen, können Missverständnisse verursacht und die Kommunikation gestört werden. Dadurch kann die Kommunikationsabsicht nicht realisiert bleiben.

In der Sprachwissenschaft werden folgende Funktionen der Intonation unterschieden: *Gliederungsfunktion* – dank dieser Funktion strukturiert man die lautsprachliche Äußerung in zusammengehörige Sinneinheiten. *Distinktive Funktion* impliziert steigende Intonation und hat interrogatives Tonmuster. Die fallende Intonation hat terminales Tonmuster. *Regulative Funktion* zeigt die Unabgeschlossenheit einer Äußerung an. Die gleich bleibende Intonation hat progredientes Tonmuster. Expressive, empathische Funktionen dienen zum Ausdruck von Gefühlen.

Als Hauptfunktionen von Intonation heben Sprachwissenschaftler die *kommunikative Funktion* hervor, die mit der Bedeutung und syntaktischen Struktur des Sprachkontinuums verbunden ist, und die emotional-expressive, die mit der subjektiven Einstellung des Sprechers zu den Gegenständen der realen Welt korreliert.

Wenn man einen Satz liest, indem man jedes Wort getrennt von anderen ausspricht, so werden diese Wörter nur als Lexeme empfunden. Ein Satz würde erst dann entstehen, wenn man die genannten Wörter durch die Intonation verbindet, indem man gleichzeitig ihren Satzgliedwert und ihre Satzstellung hervorhebt.

Dabei können verschiedene Satztypen entstehen, die mit der kommunikativen Aufgabe des Satzes verbunden sind.

Ich gratuliere der Schwester zu ihrem Geburtstag. (Aussagesatz)

Hast du auch die Schwester zu ihrem Geburtstag gratuliert? (Fragesatz)

Ich gratuliere Ihnen zum Geburtstag! (Ausrufesatz)

Durch die Intonation kann man seine Einstellung, seine emotionale Empfindung der gehörten Information zum Ausdruck bringen. Man kann durch die Intonation ebenfalls dem Satz einen neuen Beigeschmack verleihen, zum Beispiel, einen Aussagesatz fröhlich, gleichgültig oder mitleidvoll klingen lassen, einen Fragensatz könnte man gleichgültig oder erstaunlich aussprechen, einen Ausrufesatz kann man böse, erstaunlich oder fröhlich präsentieren.

Zur kommunikativen Funktion des Satzes gehört eine wichtige, neue Information mitzuteilen. Der Kern solch eines solchen Satzes, bildet dann das Wort, welches diese neue Information enthält. Um diesen kommunikativen Mittelpunkt herum gruppieren sich weitere Satzglieder. Abhängig davon, welche Position dieser kommunikative Mittelpunkt im Satz einnimmt, mit welcher Tonführung dieses Satzglied ausgesprochen wird, kann der Hörer den Satz sinngemäß verstehen.

Abhängig vom Grad der Wichtigkeit können Wörter im Satz unterschiedlich stark betont werden. Es gibt Hauptbetonung (Wichtigkeit Grad 1), Nebenbetonung/-en (Wichtigkeit Grad 2). Im Satz kann ein beliebiges Wort Wichtigkeit Grad 1 haben.

Heute Morgen kommt der Vater <u>nach Budapest</u>. (nicht nach Hause)

Heute <u>Morgen</u> kommt der Vater nach Budapest**.** (nicht heute Abend)

Heute Morgen <u>kommt</u> der Vater nach Budapest**.** (nicht fliegt, sondern kommt schon)

Heute Morgen kommt <u>der Vater</u> nach Budapest**.** (nicht Frau Merkel)

Im Wort mit der Hauptbetonung verändert sich die Tonhöhe, die Dauer der betonten Silbe. Der Wechsel der Tonhöhe ergibt die Melodie, die abschließend oder weiterweisend sein kann. Man unterscheidet für das Deutsche folgende Typen der Tonführung – *terminale*, typisch für Aussagesätze, Ausrufsätze und Fragesätze (mit W-Fragen):

„Im traurigen Monat <u>November</u> war´s.“ (*Heinrich Heine*)

„<u>Hier</u> sitz ich, forme Menschen nach <u>meinem</u> Bilde!“ (*Johann Wolfgang von Goethe*)

„Wer baute das siebentorige Theben?“ (*Bertolt Brecht*)

Weiterweisende Tonführung, Melodie der Nichabgeschlossenheit, typisch für die Sätze mit mehr als einem Syntagma. Nach der Silbe, die die Hauptbetonung trägt, steigen die unbetonten Silben allmählich nach oben. Man trifft solch eine Tonführung gewöhnlich im Anfang- und Zwischensyntagmen eines erweiterten einfachen oder komplexen Satzes.

„Als sie einander acht Jahre kannten (und man darf sagen: sie kannten sich gut), kam ihre Liebe plötzlich abhanden.“ (*Erich Kästner*)

Interrogative Tonführung wird in Fragesätzen ohne Fragewort gebraucht (Satzfrage). Bei dieser Melodie steigen unbetonte Silben des Nachlaufs bis zur honen Tonstufe.

„Herr Ritter, ist Eure Liebe so heiß, Wie Ihr mir's schwört zu jeder Stund,?“ (*Friedrich Schiller*)

Die Regeln der Satzbetonung und Tonführung unterscheiden sich von Sprache zu Sprache. Die Besonderheit der deutschen Sprechweise könnte man durch syntaktische Struktur der Sätze erklären, durch feste Regeln der Satzgliedstellung. Das deutsche Prädikat kann mehr als aus einem Wort bestehen, sodass die Hauptbetonung selten auf dem letzten Wort liegt, es trägt in solchem Fall den phonetischen Regeln nach das vorletzte Wort die Hauptbetonung.

„Leg deinen Schatten auf die Sonnenuhren, Und auf den Fluren lass die Winde los.“ (*Rainer Maria Rilke*)

Im Deutschen werden Akzente aus einer Mischung aus Anstieg der Lautstärke, Erhöhung der Tonhöhe und Dehnung der Silbe realisiert. Das Zusammenspiel unterschiedlicher phonetischen Mittel verleiht einen besonderen Rhythmus der deutschen Sprechweise, deren erfolgreiche Aneignung auf das tagtägliche auf Üben im Unterricht zurückzuführen ist.

Eine korrekte Intonierung der Sätze in einem fremdsprachlichen Gespräch ist ein Schlüssel zu einem akzentfreien Sprechen. Der Lehrer übernimmt die Aufgabe, die Lernenden in den fiktiven Lebenssituationen im Fremdsprachenunterricht unterschiedliche Bedingungen der Kommunikationssituation bekannt zu machen, lässt sie kommunikativen Intentionen angemessen vermitteln und die Äußerungen, Sprechhandlungen der Interaktionspartner verstehen und richtig interpretieren. Wenn man dabei auf die Besonderheiten der deutschen Sprechweise nicht aufmerksam gemacht wird (z.B. die Ausdrucksmöglichkeiten der Intonation nutzen), kann die Situation entstehen, in der man zwar korrekt spricht, aber dabei ist man nicht im Stande, Neugier des Kommunikationspartners zur mitgeteilten Information zu wecken und seine Aufmerksamkeit im Laufe des Gesprächs zu unterstützen (z.B. durch Pausen, Hervorhebung und Änderung der Tonhöhe). Mit anderen Worten muss man seine Kommunikationsfähigkeit demonstrieren, indem man durch gutes Zuhören die Botschaften des Kommunikationspartners entschlüsselt, richtig interpretiert und darauf entsprechend reagiert.

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SENSURI POETICE ALE CROMONIMULUI NEGRU ÎN OPERA POETICĂ A LUI BOGDAN GHIU

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Abstract: The present research deals with he poetic works of Bogdn Ghiu from the perspective of examining the chromatic symbolism of ‚black'. The poet's imaginary images become elements-concepts of his writing: the page, the period, the letter, etc., all these being attributed a chromatic scale. 'White' and 'black' are two essential colours used by the poet to construct images in his poetry. The black colour by symmetry postulates the existence of white and vice versa; thus, a poetic image is being created in the colours of the chess game – black and white. This chromatic opposition may serve as inference to the coal drawing or engravings, or even to the arts of graffiti. As a veritable artist, the poet uses basic signs, such as the dash and the dot to obtain complex images, and harnesses the plain and economical sign – the dot (white and black) – to express profound imageries. From the point of view of semiotics, white and black constitute a system in the poet's chromatic code, where the white period stands for the creation of the divine world while the black one – the poet's creation.
Keywords: chromatic, black, white, poetic meaning, textualism.

Motto: „Scrisul
rămâne o artă pe deplin umană şi divină, scriind poţi face acel semn
ca abisul în care să se resoarbă lumile,
scriind, hîrtia poate lua foc de lumina lui Dumnezeu..."
(Cezar Ivănescu)

Reprezentant al „lunediștilor", al Cenaclului de luni, condus de N. Manolescu, Bogdan Ghiu se înscrie în direcția poeziei „textului" (Alexandru Mușina), practicând „ceea ce se cheamă, în terminologia consacrată, poezia poeziei" " [4, p. 405], fiind, precum afirmă același N. Manolescu, „ [...] printre puținii care au rămas, până târziu, fideli texualismului, sub semnul căruia E. Simion l-a așezat de timpuriu și definitiv" [5, p.1351].

În această ordine de idei, pentru a creiona mai pregnant profilul și imaginarul poetului Bogdan Ghiu, găsim de cuviință să punem în lumină un moment nelipsit de relevanță și în planul textualismului, „care pune în relaţie eul individual cu textul, orice manifestare a eului fiind o generare / resuscitare / reasamblare de text” "[7, p.96]. E vorba de amintirile evocate de N. Manolescu despre ezitarea în fața cuvântului sau tăcerea poetului: „Pe Bogdan Ghiu l-am văzut de mai multe ori înainte de a-l vedea. Dacă un cunoscut mare poet român a început să vorbească de la patru ani (aluzie la poetul „mut ca o lebădă”- Lucian Blaga), Bogdan Ghiu n-a încercat s-o facă nici la douăzeci și patru. Îl cunosc de o bună bucată de vreme și nu cred să fi auzit din gura lui mai mult de câteva cuvinte. Și le cântărește bine, cuvintele, sau le caută până ce uită ce treabă are cu ele sau, Dumnezeu știe, preferă să scrie în loc să vorbească. Scrie o poezie despre poezie: despre cuvinte, așadar. Probabil ca să învețe să vorbească” " [4, p.401].

Așadar, textualist prin definiție, Bogdan Ghiu lasă să se întrevadă, așa cum observă, pe bună dreptate, criticul N. Manolescu „o altă temă decât aceea a textului însuși și anume una sufletească, a vulnerabilității celui care, scriind, se poate pomeni căzând în lume”[*ibidem*]. Or în acest context, observăm că prin prezența sa la Cenaclul de luni unde, de obicei, tăcea avem a face cu o funcţie simbolică a limbajului ca „sursă de dorinţă, niciodată satisfăcută, de comunicare inter-psihică" [2, p.3]. Poate această reticență în fața limbajului l-a determinat să-și canalizeze poezia pe tematica scriiturii, pe poezia textului etc., această tăcere despre care scria și N. Manolescu denotă rezonanța în imaginar a tuturor modulațiilor limbajului (literă, vocală etc.), mai mult decât atât, toate modulațiile limbajului devin grilă de percepție a lumii, a universului – o dinamică inconștientă a dorinței pasive de a comunica – poate că tema scriiturii este tocmai aceea ce este remanent în fiinţa umană din suferința de a nu-i fi fost înţelese dorinţele pasive, ar fi spus Françoise Dolto. Or explicația faptului menționat ne-o dă însuși poetul în poemul *Când nu apari*: *A scrie înseamnă a nu vorbi, a tăcea/A te constrânge singur/să taci./ Scriu ca să tac. / Foarte puține, prea puține cuvinte. / Am început să văd cu gura?*

Pe bună deptate, s-a afirmat că Bogdan Ghiu este „nu numai unul dintre cei mai importanți scriitori ai literaturii noastre actuale, ci și un autor cu un profil foarte interesant, atipic, greu de „prins” într-o formulă. Poet, eseist, poet-eseist și eseist-poet, un intelectual critic pentru care asumarea lumii de azi – prin reflecție, prin limbaj – e indispensabilă, e un mod de a fi...” "[4, p. 9].

Departe de a fi picturală, mai degrabă, aridă, monocromă din punct de vedere stilistic, poezia lui Bogdan Ghiu trimite la desenul crochiu în cărbune sau gravură, iar uneori la arta graffiti. Imagini definitorii ale imaginarului lui Bogdan Ghiu devin elementele-concepte ale scriiturii: pagina, punctul, litera etc. cărora le este atribuită o gamă cromatică. Poetul ca un veritabil gravor utilizează semnele fundamentale linia și punctul pentru a obține imagini complexe. Întrucât Bogdan Ghiu valorifică semnul fundamental, simplu și extrem de economic - punctul (punctul alb, punctul negru) pentru a exprima viziuni profunde, se cuvine să evocăm în acest context simbolismul acestuia: „Definiția geometrică a unui punct este aceea a unei cantități abstracte care nu constă din părți, și de aceea este invizibilă și incomensurabilă. Punctul îi dă naștere și-i marchează și extremitatea unei linii, dar constituie și „condiția limită a abstracției unui volum" și are o complexă semnificație simbolică: aceea de centru, origini, foc, principu al unei emanații și termenul întoarcerii sale; în afara de aceasta indică puterea creatoare și sfârșitul tuturor lucrurilor" [1, p. 209].

Spectrul cromatic atribuit conceptelor menționate mai sus este unul extrem de sărac: *senin* (1 ocurență*), roșu* (3 ocurențe), *verde* (*înverzești* 3 ocurențe), *gri* (1 ocurență) etc. Culorile care participă cu tușe substanțiale la structurarea imaginarului în poezia lui Bogdan Ghiu sunt *albul* și *negrul*. Deși predominând sub forma obsedantă a paginii albe, *albul* reclamă prin simetrie existență negrului, astfel că se profilează zona noastră de interes în acest studiu - sensurile poetice ale cromonimului *negru*.

Mai jos propunem concordanțele cromatice ale cromoniumului *negru* în opera poetică a lui Bogdan Ghiu.

1.	*Punctul alb (care există deja)/și punctul negru (pe care îl pun eu)* (Două puncte (Poem*)*
2.	*Împăturită noaptea-n foaie./O-nțep și curge în odaie* (Privirea cotită (Indicații de ieșire)
3.	*Cu sângele negru, uscat* (În drum [spre Sighișoara])
4.	*Să fac iar alba, ușoară, pagina neagră, scrisă greu, apăsat* (Fragment)/
5.	*Există poeți care nu întunecă pagina deasupra căreia și pe care scriu* (Daniel, Virgil (o celebrare și o explicație)
6.	*Din literă vie, neagră, cu sângele prizonier care singur umple pagina și face gestul cuvântului, textul, totul, ei devin încetul*

	cu încetul paginî albă, goală, în care ni se dă de scris (Daniel, Virgil (o celebrare și o explicație)
7.	*Nu există decât o singură pagină pentru/ toți cînd se termină mă întorc/până devine neagră, corpolentă* (Cum să scapi până la urmă)
8.	*Citeam în întuneric ultimele lumini. De jur împrejur, noptea era o literă în care încercăm să citim cuvinte* (Încercarea de a spune tot adevărul)
9.	*Scrisul lor se întinde ca o pagină neagră pe fața lumii, neagră peste ochii ei negri* (Hașurăm și colorăm (O aventură a cunoașterii)
10.	*Voi hașura pagina! O voi împărți și o voi colora în negru. „Uciderea pruncilor”. „Uciderea gândacilor de bucătărie”. Renunț la scris.Hașurez și colorez (Hașurăm și colorăm* (O aventură a cunoașterii)
11.	*Acum îmi acopăr ochii cu/o cârpă neagră și privesc/înainte* (În aerul liber)
12.	*Ai băut trei cești de cacao groasă,/neagră/Ai înnebunit pe căldura asta* (Pantaloni și cămașă)
13.	*Ea are casă, mașină, un număr de telefon./Am să-i duc o pisică neagră, băiat, cu capul rotund* (Ioan apocalipsa)
14.	*Se face atunci că labirintul se mută/în afara labirintului, acolo unde/numai visul cel negru, cu ochii deschiși, /te oartă cu forța, fără toiag* (O vizită la oameni)
15.	*Bestia se stinge încet ucisă de visul cel/negru ce rătăcește sub frunte* (O vizită la oameni)
16.	*Nu trebuie să scrii prea mult, doar să indici. Scrie indicial : nu iese fum (negru, negativitate, umbră) fără foc, dar focul să fie ceresc („origine” deja dispărută, esențial evanescentă: vie prin urme negre*.(Ne-poezie)

Așadar, Imaginarul lui Bogdan Ghiu configurează preponderent lumile/universurile în culorile jocului de șah – alb și negru: *Punctul alb (care există deja)/și punctul* ***negru*** *(pe care îl pun eu) (Două puncte (Poem).*

În poemul *Misiunea și destinul poetului* regăsim în mod explicit imaginea punctului ca lume (sau a lumii ca punct): *Să ne arate până unde ne putem îndepărta și de la ce distanță, privind înapoi, peste umăr, lumea devine un punct, care e deja literă, mare, goală, cu care* *începe altceva (textul promis).* Bogdan Ghiu tinde să explice el însuși unele dintre conceptele sale poetice, probabil, din grijă pentru maniera în care scriitura sa e receptată de lector. Astfel, poemul *Daniel, Virgil (o celebrare și o explicație)* ilustrează acest fapt: *Poeții se rânduiesc nu unul deasupra celuilalt, ci unul lângă altul, ca două litere puse să promită sens. Ei sunt îngropați acolo unde stă și sensul, la îndemână, aproape, dedesubt, aici. Din* ***literă*** *vie****, neagră****, cu sângele prizonier, care singură umple pagina și face gestul cuvântului, textul, totul, ei devin încetul cu încetul* ***pagină albă****, goală, în care ni se dă de scris [...] Rostul poeților esă devină* ***pagină albă****, vie, orbitoare, în care stă îngropat sensulviitoarelor scrieri. Cuvintele lor- masă de scris. Pagină care este deja cuvânt. Ce nu se poate citi,, căci nu a fost scris. Cel care a stat vreodată deasupra paginii albe (...) nu poate să treacă (...) dincolo de ea. Nu va putea rămâne aici. Oricât ar încerca doar să scrie, să alunece, să se poată întoarce cu negru, vârful lui va sfâșia hârtia, va ieși(coborî) în lume. Cel care, singurul, a stat vreodată deasupra a simțit cum de atâtea ori ființa lui a devenit cerul înstelat al acestui loc*

Din punctde vedere semiotic cromonimele *alb* și *negru* constituie un sistem[2] în codul poetic supranumit Bogdan Ghiu în care punctul alb este expresia creației lumii/divine, iar punctul negru – expresie a creației poetului. Așa cum fiecare element al unui sistem semiotic/cod își structurează unitățile de semnificare datorită corespondențelor cu celălalt element sau în funcție de raporturile pe care le întreține cu acesta, apare întrebarea dacă *punctul alb și punctul negru (albul și negrul)* se opun în mod polar, dacă sunt ireconcilliabile, excluzându-se reciproc? (*Cu scrisul meu tot mai mărunt, mai închis, precum cactușii în pustiu, încercând să umplu paginile mari, reci, deja scrise ale lumii/ Eu, să scriu printre rândurile altora, peste ele.Să fac iar albă, ușoară, pagina neagră, scrisă greu apăsat. Nu scriu pentru a umple pagini, ci pentru a le curăța pe unicele care există, pentru a pune la îndemînă pagini albe, curate* (*Fragment*).

În definitiv, ce presupune acest joc de opoziție *alb – negru* (indiferent de natura determinatului)? Răspunsul ni-l dă însuși autorul: *Există poeți care nici nu scriu, care nu fac decât să prepare viitoarele pagini albe ale poeziei (Daniel, Virgil (o celebrare și o explicație*) sau

[2]Perspectiva semiotică postulează sistemul ca „ansamblu de diferențe care opun unități de aceeași natură și de același statut” " [6, p.122].

Scrii, scrii, textul trece în pagină, acoperă pagina cu text, cu alte și alte pagini de text, care nu mai sunt pagini, sunt text, încet, încet rămâi tu pagină, albă, goală, amenințătoare, insuportabilă. Te reduci până la pagina albă din tine. Rămâi –devii – propoziție simplă, clară. Împotriva frazei care e lumea. Singura. (Poem. Lui Mircea Ivănescu); *Ei ne-au făcut sensibili la gol! Scrisul lor se întinde ca o pagină neagră pe fața lumii, neagră peste ochii ei negri*

Scriu cu un punct. Scriu cu punctul și nu mă pot opri. Voi hașura pagina! O voi împărți și apoi o voi colora în negru ; „Uciderea pruncilor" „Uciderea gândacilor de bucătărie". Renunț la scris. Hașurez și colorez.

Punctul alb – punctul negru; pagină albă – pagină neagră; propoziție simplă – fraza; „Uciderea pruncilor" - „Uciderea gândacilor de bucătărie" - toate acestea constituie imagini ce reprezintă două lumi: lumea creației divine – lumea creației poetice (scriiturii). Este cumva vorba de același principiu ca în jocul de șah, în care „faptul însuși de a pune două valori în opoziție dă sensul negrului sau albului. În această perspectivă, nici albul, nici negrul nu preexistă opoziției. Aceste opoziții sunt pur negative: valoarea negrului este de a nu fi alb și viceversa" "[6, p. 120]. *Negru* dezvoltă aici sensurile de creație, prin negru poetul-scriptor devine „emițător"/creator" de „lumi semantice negre" pe pagina albă, aceste două lumi-puncte având evident valențe comune. *Nu trebuie să scrii prea mult, doar să indici. Scrie indicial: nu iese fum (negru, negativitate, umbră) fără foc, dar focul să fie ceresc („origine" deja dispărută, esențial evanescentă: vie prin urme negre)* (Ne-poezie). Acest registru simbolic alb-negru intră într-o fascinantă alchimie cromatică *sui generis* reversibilă în sensul că albul devine negru și viceversa în creuzetul scriitorului Bogdan Ghiu: *Să fac iar alba, ușoară, pagina neagră, scrisă greu, apăsat* (Fragment); *Nu există decât o singură pagină pentru/ toți cînd se termină mă întorc/până devine **neagră**, corpolentă* (Cum să scapi până la urmă); *Scrisul lor se întinde ca o pagină neagră pe fața lumii, neagră peste ochii ei negri* (Hașurăm și colorăm (O aventură a cunoașterii). Reprezentarea grafică a lumii fiind punctul alb, iar punctul negru al propriei creații.

În concluzie, opoziția cromatică alb-negru în scriitura lui Bogdan Ghiu răspunde afirmației lui Heraclit din Efes: „Ceea ce tinde să se separe se unește din tonurile cele mai diferite, se compune cea mai frumoasă armonie și totul se naște din discordie" [*apud*. 3, p.8].

Un alt poem *În drum [spre Sighișoara]* dezvăluie o altă ocurență cromatică - **sângele negru** - metaforă a unui trecut medieval: *Cu altă literă, aceea a luminii/ascunzând întunericul,/ cu o consoană – obiect medieval/împiedicînd răsuflarea, /cu sângele negru, uscat. /Respirația e drum./Vântul este lumina nopții.*Cromonimul *negru* aici participă la prefigurarea ideii de trecut a unui loc - Sighișoara. În general, drumul, după Alain Botton, induce o stare introspectivă, activând emoțiile și ideile cele mai importante din om, iar un drum spre Sighișoara - un loc, un miez al autenticității, al rădăcinii echivalează cu o readucere aminte de sine însuți, de partea care se leagă de un anume sentiment de neam, de mister, de plenitudine.

Astfel, vectorii semantico-poetici ai cromonimului **negru** la Bogdan Ghiu, cunosc mutații semnificative, distanțându-se mult de matricea mentalului colectiv românesc în care culoarea neagră este culoarea tristeții, a doliului, mâhnirii și duhurilor rele etc.

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INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION AND CULTURAL IDENTITY AT EFL LESSONS

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Abstract: The article describes the relationship between language and culture as well as the ways of discussing about cultural identity and cultural diversity at EFL classes to university students. The author offers an analysis of researchers' views of the interaction between culture and language and suggests some practical ideas for intercultural dialogue at EFL classes. The author of the article highlights the idea that knowing the language gives an appearance of understanding people of different cultures but does not give a sufficient knowledge about the foreign culture. Taking into account that verbal as well as nonverbal communication involves much more than transmitting a particular message and it reflects everyone's identifications, keeping their cultural values, the author of the article suggests several practical ideas for EFL classroom to provide a real interaction between cultures through comparison of different cultural values.
Keywords: communication, cultural/ intercultural awareness, cultural identity, intercultural communication

The multicultural reality generates clearly the phenomenon of interculturalism. Understanding this phenomenon depends much of the concept of identity. To live is actually to have an identity. The person defines himself through individual identity, in relation to his social group and social environment. Communicative act involves the interaction of two or more individuals, each of whom brings to the situation of communication their psycho-cultural features, personal experience and individual view of the world. On the one hand, culture determines the individual world view and individual behaviour styles (including communicative one) and on the other hand, the degree of native culture influence upon its representatives may be different and it depends on many factors.

Inter-lingual and interpersonal interactions are often shaped by cultural norms, manners, types of behaviour and expectations at different situations: at EFL classes or some business negotiations. Nowadays university students are involved in diverse exchange educational programs, such as *ERASMUS, EUROEAST, TEMPUS, JANUS* and others. Speaking about the culture of a particular nation, we mean not only to cultural heritage that for centuries was accumulated in the territory of his residence. Culture in its broadest sense includes values, ideals and worldview of the people, their customs and traditions. People who identify themselves with the same culture trust each other more than strangers. When they are in other cultural environment, they experience the conflict of old and new norms, called “cultural shock”. Conversation between people from different cultural backgrounds often leads to frustration and misunderstanding if they do not have enough knowledge and even not ready to communicate with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Researchers, such as Gudykunst, Bhugra, Ruben, Pavlenko, Ting Toomey, Hall, Smidt, Baldwin, etc. highlighted the idea of focus teacher’s attention on cultural issues at EFL classes and to help students to build intercultural communication competence. S. Ting–Toomey in “*Communicating across cultures*” points out that verbal as well as nonverbal communication involves much more than transmitting a particular message and it reflects everyone's identifications, keeping their cultural values. The interaction between culture and the individual is generally considered through comparison of different types of identity.

As Bhugra states it is the ‘*Racial, cultural and ethnic identities form part of one's identity, and identity will change with development at a personal as well as at a social level along with migration and acculturation*’ [Bhugra 2004:3]. The very notion of identity is related to self-identification and awareness of belonging to a certain group of individuals. But according to Ting-Toomey, identity must be defined as “the reflective self-conception or self-image that we each derive from our cultural, ethnic, and gender socialisation processes. It is acquired via our interaction with others in particular situations” [Ting-Toomey 1999:28]. According to Ting-Toomey’s definition, identity is the reflective view of a person’s self, and this reflection is relevant to his or her culture. Traditionally there are several types of identity: cultural, ethnic, linguistic, gender, professional, personal, and others. This separation is necessary and at the same time is rather arbitrary. As Ting - Toomey states that culture influences much on personal identity. However, different types of identity rightfully can be separated from one another and interact in different ways with each other.

Cultural identity is understood as a self-identification with a particular culture, a culture of the applicable forms and norms of behaviour. Every individual who is aware of himself as a member of a cultural community is the representative of his cultural heritage. The boundaries between the cultural, linguistic and ethnic background can be blurred in a multicultural society (for example, in Russia or in Spain); in the context of mass immigration (for example, in the USA or in Canada); in the multilingual environment (for example, in Switzerland or Holland). Russian researcher A. Pavlenko mentions that identity is composed of many components and in the situation of communication we can notice one or the other of them [Pavlenko 2001:196-202]. For example, in professional communication with colleagues from other cultures, similarity (or compatible) of professional identities can smooth out the differences in cultural identity. Personal identity is generally more mobile as is caused not only a sense of belonging, but also a personal experience of participation in community life: cultural, ethnic, professional.

The most successful classification of personality traits necessary for successful intercultural communication, we find at G-M. Chen, who divides them into four groups: the power of the individual, communicative competence, psychological adaptability and cultural literacy. Person's power includes self-perception, open communication, that is, the desire to reveal information about them; self-monitoring, that is, the ability to modify their behaviour according to the information received, as well as relaxation, i.e. the ability to not be anxious in the communication process.

The communicative competence, according to G-M. Chen, consists of the following components:

a) *Language competence* (the ability to understand and use language that is communication);
b) *Flexibility of behaviour* (the ability to choose the most appropriate forms of behaviour);
c) *Management of interaction in the process of communication* (the ability to start a conversation, etc.);
d) *Social competence* (the ability to simultaneously maintain their own identity and feel empathy for the other person).

Psychological adaptability is the ability to adapt to the new environment and cope with the state of "culture shock", which is characterized by frustration, a sense of alienation, rejection of features from other cultures, and so on. Referring to individual feathers that prevent the effective cross-cultural communication, we found at E. Jandt that barriers in intercultural communication can be the following:

a) *Anxiety* (which makes focusing on their own feelings, rather than on what they talk); b) *Waiting for the similarities between cultures rather than differences, which can lead to a false premise*; c) *Ethnocentrism*; d) *Stereotypes and prejudices*; e) *Language problems*; f) *Ignorance of the peculiarities of non-verbal communication* [Jandt 1988:448].

As our world becomes more and more culturally diverse, we, language teachers, should make changes in educational curriculum to teach a foreign language with a goal of speaking, living and interacting in-between spaces not forgetting about our cultural identity. Most theorists in the field of FL teaching have not yet provided an adequately developed understanding on which practitioners can base their teaching. The other theorists suggest specific activities for integrating culture and the teaching of vocabulary, grammar, listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing, while another consider that newspapers could be vehicles to teach culture.

Peterson and Coltrane suggest various strategies to teach language and culture that is helpful for practitioners to integrate cultural aspect in their EFL lessons. Based on their research, we adapted their ideas and introduced at our EFL lessons the following:

1. ***Using authentic materials*** (films, news, websites, photographs, magazines, restaurant menus, travel brochures, and other printed materials to engage the students in discussion of cultural issues).

At our lessons we were working with R. Weschler's comedy "My big fat Greek wedding", focusing on the vocabulary and cultural differences. It was interesting and useful for students to understand such words and expressions as: *Corinthian columns, heritage, a mean punch, to drive smb' crazy, to come up with*, etc.

During group discussion, the students were to answer the following questions: *a) If you were Ian, would you have agreed to join another church in order to marry Toula? b) Has the United States largely succeeded in creating a great "melting pot" (in which people from all cultures have blended together), or is it more like a "salad bowl" (in which people from different cultures stick to their own groups)? c) How does your family compare to Toula's? What about compared to Ian's?*

2. ***Using proverbs*** (to help students to explore the target or own culture).

At laboratory lessons we practiced such activity as: Find the end of the following proverbs:

- A Bulgarian proverb: You can wash a dirty bottom,…
- A Romanian proverb: Honey is sweet, …
- A Russian proverb: A kind word is like …
- A Gagauz proverb: Good advice is given; …

(…but you can't wash a dirty tongue; ...good esteem is not given; ... but the bee stings; ... a Spring day)

3. ***Having students act out a miscommunication based on cultural differences***.

We suggest to students with B1 level to comment on the following cultural "*misunderstanding"*": *Claire, Emma, Michelle and Tom are four British students in Spain for the year. They decide to spend the evening in a bar or two. Not knowing Bilbao very well yet they get a bit lost and stop to consult a town plan. They are pleased when a young inhabitant approaches and offers to show them a few bars. They chat and he wants to know where the four come from. Tom is Irish and the women are English. Tom and the Spanish man walk ahead of the women and the Spanish man begins to talk politics and compares the situation in the Basque country with the situation in Northern Ireland and then asks Tom why he is with English women. Claire, Emma and Michelle are right behind and don't know what's going on. Suddenly Tom turns round to them and says 'Right, let's drop him and go'.* Would you have done what Tom did or not? Why?

4. ***Presenting objects*** (jewelry or images that originate from the target culture to serve as a foundation from which the teachers can discuss other cultural, historical, and linguistic factors). We suggest using even well-known cultural symbols of different countries to speak or to prepare a project on the historical or linguistic factors.

5. ***Using exchange students*** (eg. *ERASMUS* scholarship holders) to compare cultural values and traditions of different countries.

6. ***Using literary texts, films and television segments*** (to provide students with an opportunity to witness behaviours which are not obvious in texts) [adapted from Peterson and Coltrane, 2003].

Language teacher should practice empathy as they relate to their students in cultural matters and pay attention to student's cultural identity, behaviour patterns, ambiguity and tolerance. The teachers should show openness to new ideas and ways of thinking while students should develop their attitudes toward their own and the second language culture as well as their view of individualism versus collectivism. Practicing the ideas described above at our EFL classes, we focused on the creative written activity – "*What's in a name?"*

when students had to think about the ***origin*** of their names. The issues that they expressed at their presentations were the following: a) Thoughts and feelings you have about your own name; b) You like it or not, you think it suits you or not; c) Your name has/has not an influence on the way you regard yourself; d) Your name's signification. We would like to share some of their answers.

a) "*…I was named Natalia thanks to my father… People with this name have a deep inner desire to create and express themselves, often in public speaking, acting, writing or singing. They also tend to have beauty around them in their home and work environment. People with this name tend to be a powerful force to all whose lives they touch. They are capable, charismatic leaders who often undertake large endeavors with great success. They value truth, justice and discipline and may be quick tempered with those who do not. If they fail to develop their potential, they may become impractical and rigid…*"

b) *"...I have always been interested in the origin of my name and what is the meaning of my name. To my mind, this research helped me to find the answers on my questions. Let me begin by pointing out that many scientists belief that my name is a Russian, Catholic, Slavonic and Orthodox name and besides I rather know that my name is a Polish one. My name has several version of the origin. On the one hand, my name comes from male`s name Yoann, which belongs to the ancient Hebrew name and which means:" God is gracious". I think this is a primary meaning of my name. On the other hand, it is a Slavonic name, which comes from a Slavonic word. This word means a river which was called "Yana"...*

Summing up, an important aspect of foreign language learning consists of acquiring the formal elements of the target language. The link between language and culture in the process of learning a foreign language is reflected in the meaning and usage of the elements of the target language. It is essential to find meaningful ways to incorporate the richness of students' cultural backgrounds into the curriculum. Recognizing and validating multiple cultural identities in the classroom community and developing positive student–teacher relationships strengthen individuals' sense of worth and, ultimately, their academic performance.

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ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ МАЛЫХ ФОРМ ФОЛЬКЛОРА В РАБОТЕ С УЧАЩИМИСЯ С ИНТЕЛЛЕКТУАЛЬНОЙ НЕДОСТАТОЧНОСТЬЮ

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Abstract: This article discusses the problem of using small forms of folklore in working with learners with intellectual disabilities. The authors point out the peculiarities of the psycho-physical development of children with intellectual disabilities, correlate them with various small forms of folklore. The pedagogical influence of riddles, proverbs, fables, proverbs, nursery rhymes, jokes is substantiated by concrete examples, which influence not only the mental development of this category of children, but also contribute to their emotional development, motivate to learning activities, expands the concept of the world.

Keywords: folklore, psycho-physical development, intellectual disabilities, emotional development, motivate

В системе образования Молдовы активно внедряется постановление правительства РМ «О развитии инклюзивного образования на период 2011-2020гг». Это предполагает совместное обучение детей здоровых и имеющих особые образовательные потребности в обучении и воспитании.

Анализ, проведённый в рамках проекта «Подготовка дидактических кадров дошкольного и начального образования» в БГУ им. А.Руссо показал, что особые трудности образовательные учреждения испытывают в интеграции детей с умственной недостаточностью. К инклюзии этих детей педагоги относятся с большой настороженностью и сомнениями в их успешной социализации (Зорило Л.[4])

На процесс включения этих детей в систему общеобразовательной школы резко негативно реагируют родители нормально развивающихся детей, частично (35%) – учителей и дефектологов, которые говорят о том, что дети не получат полный набор необходимой специальной помощи, которую они могут получить в специализированной школе (М. И. Перетятку, Л. И. Зорило [5]).

Интеллектуальная недостаточность у детей проявляется в следующих особенностях: нарушена интеллектуальная регуляция эмоций, неадекватность, затруднения в развитии высших (интеллектуальных, моральных, эстетических) чувств, низкий уровень развития средств эмоциональной выразительности.

В этой связи пристальное внимание исследователей направлено на определение содержания и условий оказания коррекционно-педагогической поддержки детям с интеллектуальной недостаточностью, испытывающим трудности в усвоении куррикулума (Hriţcu M. Ş.[3], Юматова И. И. [8]).

Одним из средств умственного развития детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью является народная педагогика, и в частности малые формы фольклора - попевки, прибаутки, загадки, пословицы, поговорки, потешки. Они влияют на умственное развитие детей, развивают их эмоционально-волевую сферу, удовлетворяют детскую потребность в веселье, формируют социокультурный опыт детей.

Значимость умственного воспитания обосновывается тем, что в народной педагогике этой задаче посвящен специальный раздел - народная дидактика. Без знаний, развития мышления, внимания, памяти невозможно было стать мастером своего дела, хранить множество профессиональных знаний, сведений, разрабатывать новые приемы работы.

Анализ литературы позволил сформулировать основные задачи умственного воспитания в процессе использования малых фольклорных форм:

1. формирование познавательной активности, желание познать новое;
2. освоение знаний, которые потребуются детям в процессе учебной деятельности; 3) развитие психических процессов ребенка: внимания, памяти, мышления, воображения, фантазии;
3. развитие речи детей, обучение счету;
4. выработка интеллектуальных умений: анализа, синтеза, обобщения, абстрагирования, выделения главного.

Особое значение в процессе использования малых форм фольклора исследователи придают развитию у таких детей абстрактного мышления, умения выделять главное. Они объясняют это тем, что малые формы фольклора обладают возможностями комплексного воспитательного воздействия. Так например, большая часть сказок, пословиц, примет, поговорок имеют иносказательный, переносный смысл (Медникова Л. С. [6]).

Знакомя детей с приметами, мы учим их не только понимать смысл приметы, но и использовать эти знания в своей жизненной практике, что особо значимо для детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью.

Для изучения и применения примет ребенок должен быть максимально внимательным, уметь целенаправленно наблюдать за явлениями природы, поведением животных, птиц, насекомых и др. Он должен уметь сопоставить увиденное, сравнить с другими приметами, на основании чего сделать обобщение, вывод, сформулировать прогноз. Естественно, что эта деятельность является важным средством умственного воспитания детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью, так как способствует решению задач обучения детей с ориентацией на зону ближайшего развития.

Поговорки и пословицы – важный источник умственного развития детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью, так как это устное народное поэтическое творчество знакомит детей с социально-историческим опытом, который в них находит отражение.

Многие известные педагоги в своих работах указывают на большой педагогический потенциал пословиц. Так, Я.А. Коменский трактовал пословицу как высказывание, в котором одно говорится, а иное подразумевается. В этой трактовке Я.А. Коменский признаёт педагогические функции пословиц и указывает на их эффективное педагогическое воздействие на умственное развитие детей. Это особо важно для детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью, так как во-первых, намек выступает, как средство воздействия на сознание детей, во - вторых, обучение идет от известного к неизвестному (знакомый предмет порождает новую мысль). А дети с интеллектуальной недостаточностью, знакомясь с пословицами, осваивают сущность процесса мышления.

Обычно пословицы имеют поучительное содержание, что прямо влияет на воспитание у детей умения поступать с позиции нравственных правил. Например: «Без труда не вытащишь и рыбку из пруда»; «Под лежачий камень вода не течёт»; «Не имей 100 рублей, а имей 100 друзей»; «Семеро одного не ждут»; «За двумя зайцами погонишься — ни одного не поймаешь»; Волка ноги кормят»; «Дело мастера боится» и др.

Многие пословицы мотивируют детей на хорошую учёбу, так как демонстрируют значение ума, образованности в разных сферах жизни: «Богатый без ума - тело без головы», «Умная голова сто голов кормит, а худая и себя не прокормит».

В работе с данной категорией детей загадки по своему содержанию формируют у детей представления об окружающем мире, учат находить сходства и различия в предметах. Например, «В тесной избушке ткут холст старушки». (Пчелы).

То есть знакомые предметы в загадках показаны детям с необычной стороны, раскрывают ещё не познанные ими стороны действительности, учат наблюдательности.

Большое значение загадки имеют для обучения детей решению арифметических задач, так как они представляют собой логическую связь между предметами, которая обязательно содержит вопрос, на который детям надо ответить. Ведь отгадать загадку – это значит совершить целый ряд мыслительных операций. Например, «Не бьет, не пугает, а плакать заставляет» (лук). В этой загадке отмечена только характерная реакция человека, который взаимодействует с луком. Ребёнку же предстоит проявить смекалку, сообразительность.

Очень важны загадки, которые формируют у детей теоретическое мышление («У семерых братьев по одной сестрице. Много ли сестриц?» (Одна). «Сидят три кошки. Против каждой кошки - по две кошки. Много ли их?» (Три)).

Значение загадок в работе с детьми с интеллектуальной недостаточностью не ограничивается только развитием мышления. Они обогащают детей сведениями о природе и знаниями из различных областей человеческой жизни: «Сперва блеск. За блеском - треск. За треском - плеск. (Молния, гром, дождь)».

В работе с детьми имеющими интеллектуальную недостаточность используются скороговорки, которые сообщают детям полезную информацию, развивают их артикуляционный и речевой аппарат, а также память.

Многие скороговорки сообщают детям полезную информацию, например о домашних животных («Бык тупогуб, у быка губа тупа», «Рыла, рыла свинья, вырыла полрыла»), дают детям хозяйственные советы («Променяла Прасковья карася на три пары полосатых поросят. Побежали поросята по росе, простудились поросята, да не все»).

Основным назначением небылиц, в умственном воспитании детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью является их познавательная функция. Они развивают познавательную активность детей, формируют у них умения устанавливать причинно-следственные связи, дают детям материал для анализа и систематизации.

Ехала деревня мимо мужика,
Вдруг из под собаки лают ворота.
Выхватил телегу конь из-под кнута
И давай дубасить ею ворота.
Крыша испугалась, села на ворон...

Осмысление противоречий, которые содержат небылицы, требуют от детей серьезных умственных усилий, использования мыслительных операций: сравнения, обобщения, анализа, выделения главного.

Учитывая важность развития у детей чувственно-эмоциональной сферы в работе с детьми используются прибаутки, которые представляют собой стихотворную короткую весёлую историю.

Сова, совинька, сова,
Большая голова,
На колу сидела,
В стороны глядела,
Головой вертела.

Игра является одним из самых значимых по воспитательному и развивающему воздействию источником обучения и воспитания детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью. Особое влияние она оказывает на развитие мышления ребенка. Указывая на эту сторону игры, А.С. Макаренко отмечал, что в каждой хорошей игре есть, прежде всего, рабочее усилие и усилие мысли. Сообразительность, быстрота аналитической мысли, умение предвидеть результат - все эти и аналогичные им качества вырабатываются в игровой деятельности («Прятки», «Казаки - разбойники» и др.). Затем дети с интеллектуальной недостаточностью переносят их в другие жизненные ситуации.

В сочетании с другими источниками фольклора, такими как песня, загадка, сказка, игра оказывает влияние не только на умственное развитие детей и возможность развивать их познавательную активность, но и способствует коррекционно-развивающей деятельности, направленной на коррекцию поведения и дисциплины ребенка.

Таким образом, различные малые фольклорные формы, опыт их применения подтверждает целесообразность их использования в учебном и воспитательном процессе с целью умственного воспитания детей с интеллектуальной недостаточностью. Данные источники обладают высоким эмоциональным потенциалом, способствуют дополнительной мотивации учения, носят комплексный характер, позитивно воздействуют на развитие памяти, внимания, мышления и др.

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