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Faculty of Philology
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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE "NEW GENERATION SCHOOL TEACHER" PROJECT WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF UZHHOROD NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: One of the key fundamental changes in Ukrainian education made in the past five years is transforming foreign language teacher education system in Ukraine. The rationale behind the reform is training the 21st century teacher who is regarded as the key figure capable of leading the educational reform. Since it is impossible to develop 21st century skills and competencies such as communication, critical thinking, creativity, a sense of innovation, etc. without teachers possessing those skills and competences by themselves, the teaching profession acquires paramount importance and calls for radical changes in teacher training sector. Since the ratification of the Association Agreement between Ukraine and the European Union in 2014, ongoing education reforms in Ukraine have resulted in launching the "New Generation School Teacher" project jointly initiated by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council Ukraine. Its primary focus is transformational change in the initial foreign language (English) teacher education system in Ukraine and establishing Pre-Service Foreign Language Teacher Training (PRESETT) Curriculum in Methodology for Bachelor's level. The current paper addresses the main features and issues relating to the implementation of the "New Generation School Teacher" project within the context of Uzhhorod National University (English Philology department). Since the piloting start of the project in September 2017, there have been reported many positive developments in initial foreign language teacher training at the English Philology department relating to students' and teachers' learning outcomes. The Project has had a favourable impact on teaching practices of the whole department. The issue that needs to be addressed is the organization of school practice.

Keywords: teacher, teacher training, PRESETT, school practice

Introduction. Since gaining its independence in 1991, Ukraine has been making deliberate efforts to renew its education system across all the levels. Yet, the key fundamental changes in Ukrainian education have been made in the past five years following the ratification of the Association Agreement between Ukraine and the European Union in 2014. The new Law 'On higher education', which was put into effect in September 2014, provides necessary legal mechanisms for ensuring university autonomy, academic freedom and quality assurance in higher education. The new framework law “On education”, which was adopted in September 2017, introduces fundamental structural and content changes aimed at building an efficient system of school education in Ukraine capable of providing ‘the proper quality and lifelong learning opportunities’ for every learner [2, p. 83]. The New Ukrainian school starts on September 1, 2018 bringing into action the long awaited education reform. Moving away from rote learning and memorization, the New Ukrainian school aims at creating ample opportunity for every learner to develop the 21st century key competencies including communication, digital competence, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, lifelong learning, and critical thinking [3].

One of the top priority areas for changes in the educational sector is the teacher who acts as an agent of educational reform. Teachers play a vital role in achieving desired learning outcomes in terms of the 21st century skills. 21st century learners need 21st century teachers who have ‘a radically broader and more sophisticated set of competences than before’ by themselves [5, p. 5]. In this context, the teaching profession acquires paramount importance and calls for radical changes in teacher training sector.

In 2013, in response to ongoing education reforms in Ukraine and demands of the 21st century society the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine in collaboration with the British Council Ukraine launched the “New Generation School Teacher” joint project which aims at introducing transformational change in the initial foreign language (English) teacher education system in Ukraine and establishing Pre-Service Foreign Language Teacher Training Curriculum in Methodology for Bachelor’s level.

This paper outlines the main features and issues relating to the implementation of the “New Generation School Teacher” project within the context of Uzhhorod National University.

“New Generation School Teacher” project. Initially launched by eight Ukrainian universities and institutes in 2013, the Project was reported to have been implemented in ten universities and to be joined by another seven universities by October 2017 [6].

The elaboration of PRESETT Curriculum for trainee teachers of English within the framework of the Project was preceded by the Baseline Study conducted from March 2013 to February 2014. It was aimed at examining the current situation of pre-service foreign language teacher education in Ukraine, identifying the major problems and finding out ways of solving them [4]. According to its findings, the average proportion of hours allocated to the methodology component within traditional Bachelor's degree programmes is less than 4%. What is more, the course of methodology proved to be theoretically loaded with little or no connection to practice and widely delivered in Ukrainian [1, p. 2].

The new PRESETT curriculum has been designed taking into account all the recommendations of the Baseline Study with a clear focus on methodology as the key component in teacher education. It is composed of 6 modules covering three years of study (starting with year two through year three and finishing in year four) in comparison to a traditional methodology course lasting for one or two terms.

Most of the content areas of methodology of foreign language teaching such as teaching four basic skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing), planning, teaching language construction (grammar and vocabulary), classroom management, etc. have been reconceptualised in line with the main principles of communicative language teaching. Key innovations in terms of content relate to considering issues of second language acquisition, the development of learner autonomy, catering for SEN, planning for CPD, working with materials, etc. [4].

In addition to the new content, the course in English Language Teaching Methodology follows new approaches and uses new modes of delivery. The basic principle of delivery of the course is theory through practice which is achieved by means of workshops with traditional lectures and seminars being abandoned for good.

One of the most positive innovations brought about by the PRESETT curriculum is introducing school practice as its integral part in all three years of the course delivery. This way teacher training inside a university is directly linked to teaching practice in school classrooms where students have the opportunity to learn first by observation, then by performing as teacher-assistants and finally, in the last module, by practicing as teachers themselves. Maximising school-based training allows universities to provide trainee teachers with valuable hands-on experience so that teacher graduates entering the teacher profession are equipped with both knowledge and skills.

"New Generation School Teacher" project: **piloting at Uzhhorod National University**

The procedure of joining the project and implementing it from the beginning of an academic year (September 1) involves a few steps:

applying to the manager of the project at the British Council Ukraine, making changes to the curriculum in order to allocate the necessary number of hours to the Methodology course and building a team of teacher educators who will undertake a professional development training delivered by the British Council Ukraine.

Uzhhorod National University belongs to the so-called classical national universities in Ukraine. The University applied for joining the "New Generation School Teacher" project in the spring 2017. The implementation of the project started in September 2017 (2017-2018 academic year) at the basis of the English Philology department (the faculty of Foreign Philology). One of the qualifications that has been granted by the English Philology department to its graduates is "Bachelor in Philology, Teacher of English, German/French". According to the curriculum, the course in Methodology of foreign language teaching comprising 75 hours in total has been delivered in the fourth year followed by a three-week school practice. The main modes of its delivery are lectures and seminars.

According to the PRESETT Curriculum teacher training starts in year two and lasts for three years. According to Order of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (No 871 dated by August 12, 2015) "On conducting a pedagogical experiment on the methodological training of trainee teachers of English" a university decides on the number of groups to take part in the experiment. Hence, necessary changes to the curriculum must be made only for the groups participating in the experiment.

It was decided that one academic group of students (24 students) subdivided into two study groups would participate in the experiment. As a result, there are two academic groups of second-year students studying according to different curricula (one group is experimental and the other – a control group).

Table 1 shows the major differences in the list of courses delivered to the two groups according to the curricula. The courses that are delivered to the groups are marked with a tick (√). If there is a difference in the number of credits or hours, the number of credits (and total hours) is indicated (e.g. 11, 5 (345) – where 11, 5 shows the number of credits allocated for the course, 345 – the total number of hours).

Table 1
Comparison of the courses delivered to the control and experimental groups of second year trainee teachers of English according to the traditional curriculum and the new PRESETT curriculum

Courses	**Control group**	**Experimental group**	**Control group**	**Experimental group**
	Semester 3		Semester 4	
Introduction to literature studies and theory of literature	√	√	√	√
History of world literature	√	√	√	√
English (Practical course)	11,5 (345)	9 (270)	9,5 (285)	8,5 (255)
Basics of research and analysis of literary text	√	√		
Psychology (Age psychology included)	√			
Practical course in German/French	√	√	√	√
Linguistic area studies	√	√		
English phonetics			√	√
History of English			√	√
Science of law			√	
School practice		2,5 (75)		2 (60)
Methodology of teaching English		3 (90)		4 (120)

The Table shows that the main differences concern the courses Psychology and Science of law, which are delivered to the control group; and methodology of teaching English and school practice which are delivered only to the experimental group. In addition, there is a difference in the number of credits and hours allocated to English (practical course): the course which is delivered to the control group has a little more hours. The rationale behind the changes is as follows: 1) most of the core courses directly contributing to the qualification “Bachelor in Education, teacher of the English, German/French language and literature, teacher of world literature” have not been changed in terms of credits and hours; 2) since methodology is delivered in English and in the form of workshops based on pair and group work activities, students get ample opportunity to interact in English, which promotes the development of their level of the English language proficiency; 3) the PRESETT curriculum comprises topics that are covered in the course in Psychology in different modules, e.g. psychological factors in language learning, teaching young learners, etc.

The Project is implemented by a team of professionals at the English Philology department. Initially, six teachers of the department attended the Teacher Development Summer School (01-07 July 2017) delivered by the British Council Ukraine. This was followed by a series of dissemination events at the department and by more teachers attending the Teacher Development Winter School (21-27 January 2018), which resulted in building a team of teacher educators directly involved in implementing the Project at the department.

At the piloting start, teachers and students were provided with a set of materials dealing with the Project and its core documents. Regular meetings of the experiment team members at the department and meetings with students participating in the experiment enable monitoring the piloting of the project and identifying achievements and issues to deal with. So far, there have been reported many positive developments. Most students find the course very interesting and challenging. They enjoy the basic modes of its delivery; their active involvement in different group work activities (discussions, presentations, projects, etc.) has enhanced the development of their language skills and critical thinking. All the students participating in the experiment provided favorable reports on their school practice and were very enthusiastic about completing their school observation tasks.

The Project is also highly beneficial for teachers. Those teachers who are actively involved in the experiment are responsible for planning and designing methodology sessions. Although they find preparation time- and effort-consuming, it is beneficial when measured against the outcomes: by designing new sessions teachers develop professionally. Methodology workshops delivered within the framework of the experiment are regularly attended by teachers who are not involved in the project. This kind of dissemination has already resulted in changing the way other courses are delivered by the faculty: classes have become more interactive and student-centred.

Yet, there are some issues which need to be addressed. There is a lack of communication between university teachers and mentors supervising students at school. Since school mentors do not receive any payment for supervising students, they agree quite unwillingly to work with students. In such situations it is very difficult to choose the best school teachers to act as their mentors. Due to the lack of information about the project at schools, some teachers feel anxious about students filling in observation checklists in their classes.

Conclusions. Although the piloting of the "New Generation School Teacher" joint project of the British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine is still on, it is obvious that the project has already made positive changes in the pre-service language teacher education in Ukraine. The implementation of the project within the context of Uzhhorod National University has been favourably evaluated by all the participants of the experiment. The Project has contributed to the development and transformational change in the teaching practices of the entire English Philology department. The main issue which needs to be addressed concerns the organization of school practice. It is advisable that the government should provide financial payment to the school mentors and run a publicity campaign for the project involving all the levels of Ukrainian education system.

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THE LEGAL TEXT: CONSTITUTION, CONCEPTS, CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract: According to the constructive interdisciplinarity, the text draws attention of the theorists for several decades. In the new approaches, the text calls for complex research, including research centered on determining the mechanisms of producing and meaning understanding. A legal text is very different from ordinary speech. The concept of text is not identical at all authors, and sometimes it does not even have the same acceptance for one and the same author. However the legal text is based on the use of language, which is more than a stock of words, it is an instrument and an image, an object of power that seeks to be captured.The legal text reflects the terms and expressions of a legal system. In the legal text, language is a means of expression and texts constitute the main object of study. It is indisputable that law could not exist without a means of expression. The legal texts are very different depending on the type of legal act and its transmitters, are not uniform, as the legislator issues law, the judges speak it, the jurists comment on it, and the practitioners apply it. The style of law will differ from the style of a court order or a regulation. The proper drafting of the various types of texts is very important if we want the legal rules to be effective, that the judgments have exactly the same value that the judges impose on them, that the intention of the parties to a bilateral act to be expressed in the proper way. From this perspective, legal texts need to be coherent, drafted in impeccable style with the clearv use of terminology.

Keywords: term, terminology, specialized vocabulary, common vocabulary, legal text, legal definition.

În ideea unei unei interdisciplinarități constructive, textul atrage atenția teoriticienilor de câteva zeci de ani. Textul solicită, în noile abordări, cercetări complexe, dintre care şi investigații centrate pe problema determinări mecanismelor de producere şi receptare a sensului.

Textul, din punct de vedere semiotic-funcțional, poate fi definit ca *semn-lingvistic* (figura 1.1), cu codificări și subsemne, devenind *super-semn* [13, p.33].

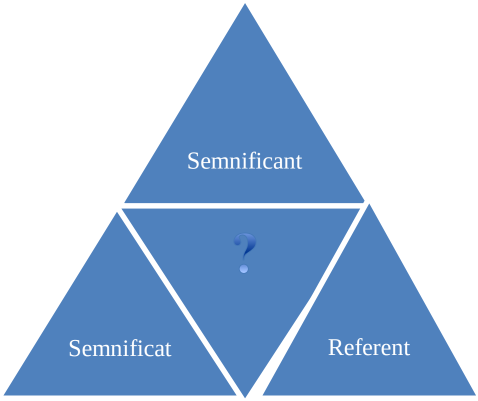

Fig. 1.1.Triunghi semantic.

Din punct de vedere pur lingvistic, textul reprezintă o configuraţie, scrisă sau orală, de unităţi/ secvenţe propoziţionale coerente şi coezive semiotico-sintactic. *„Textul (microtextul) este o unitate sintactică, semantică şi pragmatică superioară frazei, unitate segmentabilă, în vederea operaţiilor de analiză, în unităţi inferioare şi la nivelul căreia se dezvoltă raporturile sintactice de coordonare, apozi- tiv, intermediar-explicativ şi intenţional."* [12, p.198].

Semnificativă este conceperea şi analiza textului din cele trei perspective semiotice: *semantică, sintactică şi pragmatică*.

Din punct de vedere *semantic*, textul devine unitar prin coerenţă şi delimitare a semnificaţiilor. Într-un alt sens, textul apare ca un „semn care indică un desemnat (...) cu două feluri de conţinut: conştiinţa şi realitatea senzorială". Ca fenomen al conştiinţei, semnul-text are un sens designator (mental), ca fenomen al realităţii, din contra, unul denotativ (empiric) [13, p.36].

Conceptul de text nu este identic la toți autorii, iar uneori nu are aceeași accepție nici măcar la unul și același autor. Într-un manual găsim formularea:„*enunțare lingvistică încheiată*", în același manual găsim o precizare la definiția dată:„*Textul este o unitate lingvistică, simțită ca încheiată potrivit intenției emițătorilor sau a receptorilor și constituită după regulile gramaticale ale limbii utilizate".*[4, p.156]. Aceste două definiții se nu au nici o corelare sau nu pot coexista una cu alta. Admițând aceste precizări, textul devine corelabil cu o anumită limbă. Putem contrapune acestei accepții un concept de text total diferit, care nu mai comportă discuții despre regulile unei anumite limbi. Conceptul de text este confundat tot mai mult în lingvistica actuală. Existând două perspective: pe de o parte fiind considerată o disciplină separată în interiorul lingvisticii, pe de alta este considerată lingistica ca atare.

În opinia marelui lingvist român E. Coşeriu, lingvistica textului constituie una dintre cele trei direcții conceptuale de bază, care se profilează în procesul de studiere lingvistică, celelalte două find lingvistica structuralist-funcțională (J. Dubois, A. Martinet) [6, p.306]. El şi lingvistica generativ-transformațională (N. Chomsky). Prin instituirea acestei ştințe, se renunță la abordarea taxonomică, fragmentată şi atomistă, preconizată de adepți lingvisticii structurale. E. Coşeriu este unul dintre primi mari lingvişti care a folosit termenul de *lingvistică textuală* pentru a desemna o ramură nouă în cadrul ştințelor limbajului (ani '50 ai secolului trecut). Această întâietate a savantului român este recunoscută de către J.-M. Adam, lingvist ale cărui lucrări ocupă un loc privilegiat în domeniul lingvisticii textului, dată find valoarea şi complexitatea ideilor sale [1, p.3].

E. Coşeriu distinge trei niveluri autonome: lingvistica limbii, lingvistica vorbirii şi lingvistica textului. În viziunea coşeriană, lingvistica textului este o metodă de interpretare a textului fundamentată lingvistic, este o lingvistică deschisă, menită să rezolve toate problemele ce țin de perspectiva textului, deoarece *„în principiu, toată lingvistica ar trebui să fie practicată plecându-se de la text"* [4, p.23]. Considerăm importantă, în contextul dat, distincția operată de către marele lingvist E. Coşeriu între *„gramatica transfrastică*", văzută ca o extindere internă a gramaticii tradiționale şi *„lingvistica textului*" propriu-zisă, care este o teorie a producerii textuale a sensului.

Aderăm acestei fundamentări coşeriene a lingvistici textului, prin care textul este definit ca *„posibilitate universală a limbajului*" [*Ibid*., p. 51]. În direcția acestei viziuni integratoare coşeriene se situează şi lucrările lui J.-M. Adam, care îşi propune conturarea propriei lingvistici textuale, ce constituie o teorie a produceri textuale a sensului, fondată pe analiza de texte concrete. Subscriem aici şi teoria cercetătoarei române C. Vlad care susține că lingvistica textului, reieşind din viziunea coşeriană, este o lingvistică a sensului, indiferentă la diversitatea limbilor particulare, al cărei obiectiv dominant este de a justifica sensul textual-discursiv al textului [16, p.26]. Din această perspectivă, lingvistica textului este o teorie a producerii textuale a sensului, o hermeneutică, care descrie şi explică modul de funcţionare a semnelor în textul-discurs, acceptat ca formă complexă de structurare transfrastică a limbajului. Evident că lingvistica textului se întemeiază pe analiza unor texte concrete. Dacă textul reprezintă o unitate comunicaţională (O. Moskalskaia, M. Bahtin, I. Coteanu *et alii*), secvenţa lingvistică nefind decât o realizare a acestei unităţi, atunci *„structurarea textului nu poate fi redusă – fie că este vorba de producţie sau receptare textuală – la funcţionarea unor reguli strict lingvistice”* [7, p.389]. Lucrările recente se înscriu, în mod special, într-o perspectivă pragmatică. În paginile acestor lucrări, se acordă un loc important studierii particularităţilor lingvistice ale textului şi se susţine ideea că textualizarea reprezintă o activitate procesuală de punerea în aplicare a unui algoritm gramatical.

Conform conceptului lui Dumitru Irimia, în stilul juridico-administrativ „limba devine dintr-un instrument pasiv de reflectare a realității extralingvistice și, eventual, de influențare a interlocutorului, un instrument „activ” de transformare a realității (...). Prin acest stil, limba provoacă transformări substanțiale în chiar planul ontologic al lumii obiective, în dimensiunile ei social-umane” [8, p.214].

În funcție de modul de realizare a dreptului pe care îl propune, nu există un singur limbaj juridic, ci mai multe: „există un limbaj legislativ, juridicțional, administrativ, notarial, doctrinal, un limbaj al maximelor și adagiilor etc; fiecare diferențiind tipuri de discurs, care, deși asemănătoare în unele privințe, pot fi net deosebite printr-o sumă de caracteristici observabile la nivel transtextual” [11, p.49].

Ion Coteanu consideră că: „Limbajul juridico-administrativ este determinat în diversele lui aspecte de raportorul dintre cunoștințele scopul legiuitorilor și ale celor care trebuie să li se supună” [5, p.156].

Cum într-o mare măsură textul juridic se bazează pe utilizarea limbajului, ceea ce este mai mult decât un stoc de cuvinte, este un instrument și o imagine, un obiect al puterii ce încearcă să fie acaparată (Michel Foucault consideră că puterea asupra limbii este una dintre cele mai importante dimensiuni ale puterii).

Textul juridic reflectă termenii și expresiile unui sistem juridic. În textul juridic, limba este mijloc de expresie iar textele constituie principalul obiect de studiu. Este indiscutabil că dreptul nu ar putea exista fără un mijloc de expresie [14, p.11].

Trăsăturile lingvistice și culturale ale dreptului organizează textul juridic într-un cadru instituțional bine stabilit, care cuprinde idei ce delimitează legalitatea dreptului. Există două elemente care constituie textul juridic :

- textul juridic pentru care dreptul conferă sens unor termeni ce formează vocabularul juridic;
- textul juridic pentru care dreptul își enunță conceptele într-o manieră specifică, ele alcătuind textul juridic [3, p.3].

Interferenţa dintre lexicul juridic şi cel comun a fost demonstrată de numeroşi cercetători, ceea ce dovedeşte caracterul de *universalie lingvistică* al acestui fenomen.

Ca urmare a evoluţiei complexe a termenilor juridici, determinată de factori sociali, culturali şi lingvistici, suprafaţa zonei de contact dintre vocabularul juridic şi cel general diferă în funcţie de limba abordată şi de epocă.

Caracteristica semantică a unui termen reprezintă componenta significantă a lui şi este percepută ca o microstructură incorporată, ca un element de bază şi ca un construct al unei teorii semantice. Caracteristicile sunt utilizate în scopul comparării şi clasificării conceptelor, în scopul formulării definiţiilor pentru conceptele respective, în scopul constituirii termenilor corespondenţi conceptelor etc.

Din punct de vedere praxiologic, caracteristicile se clasifică în intrinseci (inerente) şi extrinseci. *Caracteristicile inerente* se referă la însuşi obiectul, nu însă la relaţia acestuia cu alte obiecte. *Caracteristicile extrinseci* aparţin obiectelor doar în relaţia lor cu altele. Ele se divizează în:

- caracteristici ale scopului (aplicarea, funcţionarea, localizarea, poziţionarea în ansamblu);
- caracteristici ale originii (metoda de creare, descoperire, descriere, producere).

După E. Wüster [Apud, 2], există trei tipuri principale de relaţii în rândul conceptelor: relaţii logice; relaţii ontologice (partitive, de succesiune, a produsului material); relaţii ale efectului (cauzalitate, mijlocire, origine).

O *definiţie* este o descriere a unui concept prin intermediul altor concepte deja cunoscute, de cele mai dese ori, în formă de cuvinte şi termeni [9, p.11] include următoarea formulare: „Definition: verbal description of a concept."

Funcţiile definiţiei în terminologie sunt:

- determinarea conceptului;
- fixarea conceptului;
- izolarea conceptului de celelalte concepte înrudite (adiacente);
- încadrarea conceptelor în relaţie unul cu altul.

În dicţionarele explicative definiţiile servesc unui scop specific de diferenţiere a omonimelor de cuvintele polisemantice, precum şi de explicare a semnificaţiei şi uzului cuvintelor din lexicul comun.

Diferenţa dintre metodele de definire lexicografice şi enciclopedice ale unui domeniu terminologic se află în natura limbajelor specializate.

Teoria terminologică recunoaşte doar un singur tip de definire: definiţia analitică, ce identifică un concept în mod complet şi sistematic. Într-o manieră apodictică, distingem următoarele tipuri de definiţii:

1. Definiţii de analiză (*genus et differentiae*)
2. Definiţii sinonimice
3. Definiţii perifrastice
4. Definiţii de sinteză
5. Definiţii implicate (la utilizarea unui cuvânt în contexte explicative)
6. Definiţii denotative (extensia)
7. Definiţii demonstrative.

Întru concretizarea specificului cuvintelor din vocabularul specializat şi din vocabularul comun sunt admise definiţii, denominări ale noţiunilor, definitivări ale termenilor, desemnări de concepte care facilitează comprehensibilitatea unui anumit context.

Definiţia este o constatare sau o determinare, este o descriere explicită a conţinutului şi a relevanţei noţiunii. Conceptul de *definire în sine* redă explicaţia de sens parţială sau totală a unei noţiuni prin intermediul altor noţiuni. O definire, în formă explicită, este o echivalenţă logică formată din *definiendum* şi *definiens*. Definiţia reflectă caracteristicile semantice şi lexicale ale termenului cu care se operează. Conform unei norme tradiţionale corespunzătoare, o categorie de noţiuni definitivate trebuie să fie stabilită de o noţiune tipologică fundamentală şi de caracteristicile diferenţiale ce le reflectă (*definitio fit per genus proximum et differentiam specificam*).

Definiţia reprezintă cea mai importantă modalitate de asigurare a preciziei termenilor specializaţi. Ea are o dublă valoare – cognitivă şi practic-operaţională. După A. Stoichiţoiu-Ichim, definiţia are rolul de a asigura semnificaţia univocă (specializată) a termenilor juridici. Conform aserţiunii aceleiaşi autoare, „*o definiţie îndeplineşte funcţii cognitive (contribuind la perfecţionarea terminologiei respective) şi practic-operaţionale, fiind implicată în redactarea, interpretarea şi aplicarea legilor, precum şi în elaborarea lucrărilor lexicografice specializate*” [15, p.20].

Definiţiile pentru termenii juridici trebuie să corespundă următoarelor norme:

- să indice caracteristicile constitutive ale unei noţiuni terminologice;
- să fie univoce şi să nu conţină expresii figurate, metafore etc.;
- să se preteze introducerii într-un circuit sau într-un sistem (flexibilitate);
- să nu fie contradictorii (să corespundă realităţii obiective cognitive).

Unele definiţii din lexicoane şi enciclopedii sunt urmate şi de etimologia cuvintelor, care dezvăluie esenţa şi structura oricărui termen juridic. Conform celor constatate se va observa că, pe parcursul dezvoltării unei limbi şi al evoluţiei acesteia (precum şi la interferenţa unei limbi cu alta), termenii nu-şi pierd integral identitatea primordială şi rezistă schimbărilor de orice nivel.

Abordând textul juridic, abordăm intenția. Precum dreptul își are finalitățile sale precise, textul juridic are una sau mai multe intenții bine delimitate și determinate. Un text juridic poate forța sau provoca anumite comportamente, legea (hotărârile, actele juridice, normele legislative) au un obiectiv principal de a specifica drepturile și obligațiile în întregime.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH CAN BE DIFFERENT: INTRODUCING NEW METHODOLOGY CURRICULUM

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Abstract: The article presents the main stages of introducing new methodology curriculum designed within New Generation School Teacher Project. The Project is an innovative initiative supported by British Council Ukraine and Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (since 2013). The article gives an outline of the following project stages: baseline study, study visits, the Curriculum design, piloting the Curriculum, and the Project monitoring. The baseline study (2013-2014) proved the necessity for the change in pre-service teacher education. The study visits to University of Modern Languages (Tashkent, Uzbekistan) and Norwich Institute of Language Education (Norwich, England) (2014) gave the possibility to observe and study the best practices of English teaching methodology. The Curriculum design stage (2014–2015) became the way of introducing innovative approaches, content, modes of teaching and learning, modes of interaction and new place of school experience into the programme of Pre-service teacher training. The piloting stage that embraced 10 Ukrainian pedagogical universities gave the possibility to implement the Curriculum innovations in the methodology course. The Project monitoring (2016-2017) was based on students' online questionnaires, project team members' monitoring visits which included meetings with rectors, deans, heads of the departments, methodology teachers; students' focus group discussion, demonstration lesson analysis. The Project monitoring programme provided data for evaluating the first year results. The results supported previous hypothesis that the introduction of the new curriculum would have a positive influence on the students in terms of developing 21st century skills as well as their motivation to choose teaching as a career.

Keywords: new methodology curriculum, New Generation School Teacher Project, British Council Ukraine, Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, baseline study, Curriculum design, Project monitoring.

Nowadays English is considered to be the language of trade, travel, education and international relations. The need for higher standards of English among the Ukrainian citizens has been brought into focus as the country sees its future as an inseparable part of the world community. Long-established traditions in English language teaching in Ukraine presupposed emphasis on knowledge of grammar and vocabulary with little or no need to see the language as a means of active communication or as a life skill. Such tradition of teaching English is now neither relevant nor sufficient. The improvement that is needed can only be achieved if standards of English teaching are raised at every educational level.

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages as a tool for setting internationally accepted standards for proficiency in foreign languages is seen as an important educational aspiration and a key plank in economic development. Like other countries Ukraine has begun to use this document as a reliable reference for setting the standards that need to be achieved. Secondary school has English as obligatory part of curriculum, thus giving its students the chance to master English from the start to at least B1 level. School beliefs and practices of teaching and learning English also play a significant role in the students' attitudes towards English. Consequently, the change can be implemented only if the teachers of English are trained differently and serve as agents of change. This inevitably led to understanding that pre-service EFL teacher training should undergo some change in its turn. This understanding brought together two institutions equally interested in the quality of teaching English in Ukraine: Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council Ukraine. In 2013, they started The New Generation School Teacher Project (NGST Project) with the principal focus on introducing change to the initial teacher education system in Ukraine.

The NGST Project that has been on for five years already has brought about some reflections and thoughts of what can be done to improve English as a medium of international communication in any field. So far, the Project has had the following stages: baseline study, study visits, the Curriculum design, piloting the Curriculum, and the

Project monitoring. As the authors think, providing more information about each stage might give a ground for further improvements in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching.

Baseline study (2013 - 2014). A sound understanding of the situation and of future needs was gained by means of conducting baseline study in 2013-2014. The Project team collected and analysed documents governing the preparation of future teachers of foreign languages: standards, curricula, and syllabi. They also studied the interests, needs and influence of interested parties in the project. The primary beneficiaries were defined as students and school teachers, as well as university students and lecturers. Ministry of Education and Science Ukraine, Departments of Education, Rectors of Universities were defined as secondary beneficiaries. The team conducted a survey of stakeholders' attitudes to the state of methodological training of student-teachers. The Report on the Baseline Study was published in 2014 [1].

The key findings of the Baseline Study were as follows:

- a wide variation in the number of hours allotted to language improvement and to methodology among the eight universities surveyed
- average proportion of total programme hours devoted to methodology was found to be less than 4%
- methodology usually delivered in Ukrainian or Russian
- methodology widely taught and assessed as a theoretical discipline, with courses delivered as lectures devoid of interaction
- methodology courses pay insufficient attention to a number of essential aspects of language teacher preparation, for example Intercultural Awareness, Developing Independent Study Strategies, Developing ICT Competence and Learner-Centred Approaches.
- insufficient attention to modern ways of assessing progress and achievement in a foreign language
- in some cases, little or no connection between theory and practice (here between the methodology course and the practicum in schools)
- no unified approach to the final assessment of student teachers [1].

On completion of the Baseline Work, a Ukrainian consultant (Oleksandr Shalenko) and a UK consultant (Rod Bolitho, Norwich Institute for Language Education) were taken on to guide the team through the design of the new curriculum.

Study Visits (2014). The team made two study visits as part of their research: to Uzbekistan where the PRESETT project had been running for over seven years and the first graduates were already teaching at schools, and to the UK to look into the preparation of foreign language teachers in universities.

The Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of Uzbekistan working with British Council Uzbekistan implemented a joint project to improve the quality of Uzbek teachers of English pre-service training. This joint project is referred to as PRESETT (2008 – 2012). Data from the Baseline Study persuaded high-ranking officials to introduce some changes in the system of PRESETT. It resulted in adopting Presidential Decree on foreign-language teaching (2012).

Some of the main points of the Decree may be summarized as follows:

- Foreign languages should be taught to international standards to meet the commercial, industrial, scientific and academic needs of Uzbekistan.
- Foreign languages, mainly English, are to be taught from the first year of schooling.
- The communicative approach is to be adopted.
- National standard should go in align with international standards, particularly with CEFR.

The document envisaged the total reform of the teaching of foreign languages, especially English, in Uzbekistan. The PRESETT project is considered by many experts as the mechanism to deliver the reforms set out in the decree. At the outset (2008 – 2009 academic year) the project was implemented in a few experimental groups of the University of World Languages. As part of the pilot project the quantity of groups in the University of World Languages increased every year. In 2013 – 2014 academic year it reached 100%. The experience of PRESETT is being shared with other Uzbek universities (18) training EFL teachers. The teachers from different regions of Uzbekistan engaged in implementing the PRESETT Curriculum are regularly trained, supported with resources and supervised by PRESETT team members. Successful completion of the courses enables them to become trainers themselves. The National Professional standards for EFL teachers have been recently adopted for both Bachelor and Master levels.

The Government of Uzbekistan and the Ministry of Public Education have provided an appropriate legal framework to facilitate changes in national higher education and management. The European dimension has been incorporated into the national higher education context: higher education degrees of Bachelor, Master and Doctor have been introduced; the national education standards for EFL teacher training have been adopted. The national policy on language education has undergone considerable positive changes. Professionally oriented courses and methodology of teaching a foreign language are taught through both language strand and methodology strand.

The study visit to Norwich Institute of Language Education (NILE, England) took place on March 24-26, 2014. The project team studied and analysed the ways the foreign language teachers are trained in England. The most common way to get a qualification of a teacher of English as a second language in particular is to take up Master's Degree in Education on completing Bachelor's programme in Arts or Humanities. Among others, offered by NILE there were such courses as Cambridge English CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and Delta, Professional development programmes for EL teachers, trainers and other education professionals. The striking peculiarity of such programmes to team members was the number of hours allotted to teaching practice which constitutes up to 70% of all duration of training.

These visits served to reinforce the conclusions from the in-Ukraine research.

Curriculum design. Taking into account the results of the baseline study and study visits to Uzbekistan and Great Britain, the team started thinking about the way the Methodology Curriculum should be organised. It was agreed that the curriculum should be based on the following principles [5, p. 2-3] :

1. *Methodology as the key to the preparation of student teachers.* According to this principle Methodology is considered to be the core of language teacher education which provides a bridge between theory and practice. Methodology in this curriculum is concerned with the application of knowledge in real situations rather than about knowledge itself. The curriculum includes a profile of a newly qualified teacher of English, which is effectively the intended overall target of the methodology curriculum.
2. *Delivery in English.* The curriculum is developed in English and taught through the medium of English. The delivery in English

promotes the development of students' language and professional competences. As the Methodology course starts in Semester 3, the students have a possibility to improve their language level and their professional competence.

3. *Standardisation of basic requirements.* The number of hours for methodology set at the same level at all PRESETT institutions. Course modules are standardised in terms of aims, content, outcomes and assessment specifications.
4. *Language courses to complement methodology courses.* Language classes to be taught in a way that exemplifies good practice, thereby illustrating the principles underlying the Methodology courses.
5. *Variety of approaches to teaching.* The project team thinks that traditional lecturing is not an efficient way of delivering content on a practical course. Accordingly, the new curriculum suggests a range of modern teaching approaches, including task-based learning, the use of case studies, simulations, group projects and problem-solving. All of these approaches are intended to promote high levels of interaction and students involvement in their own learning processes.
6. *Carefully phased school experience.* Students undertake school practice throughout the whole methodology course applying the sandwich approach.
7. *Continuous assessment throughout the programme.* Assessment in the Methodology Curriculum consists of two main components: continuous assessment and final assessment.

Curriculum Outline and its Main Characteristics. The curriculum is made up of six modules (Understanding learners and Learning; Preparing to Teach 1; Preparing to Teach 2; Preparing to Teach 3; Specialised Dimensions; Professional Development). Each module represents a broad area of methodology, and contains a number of units, each of which covers an essential specialist topic for English teachers in training [3, p. 1-4].

Some topics are reconceptualised and some are totally new and have been introduced into the Curriculum owing to their importance to the school needs. The table below represents the content areas of the PRESETT Curriculum.

Table 1. Content Areas of PRESETT Curriculum

Reconceptualised Topics	New Topics
Principles of Communicative Language Teaching	Psychological Factors in Language Learning
Teaching Grammar in Context	Second Language Acquisition
Teaching Vocabulary in Context	Developing Learner Autonomy
Language Skills – Teaching Listening	Classroom Management
Language Skills – Teaching Speaking	Working with Materials
Language Skills – Teaching Reading	Error Analysis and Dealing with Errors
Language Skills – Teaching Writing	Classroom Investigation 1
Planning Teaching	Catering for Special Educational Needs
Testing and Assessment	Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Learning and Teaching English
Teaching Young Learners	Classroom Investigation 2
Developing Intercultural Competence	Planning for Continuing Professional Development

Each unit has an allocation of 18 hours of class contact time and 12 hours of self-study. Module descriptions include aims, learning outcomes and recommended assessment specifications. Unit descriptions contain detailed objectives, indicative content and recommended reading references.

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Students undertake school practice throughout the whole methodology course. There are three phases to students' school experience: guided observation; teacher assistantship; observed teaching [6]. *Guided observation* takes place in Semesters 3 and 4. It gives students an opportunity to observe experienced teachers at work and to make connections with their learning during the first year of the methodology course. To help in this process they complete specially designed observation tasks. Guided observation takes place once a fortnight (one full day of at least 4 class hours) throughout Year 2. During *Teacher assistantship* in semesters 5 to 7, students act as teacher assistants, planning teaching, undertaking microteaching and generally supporting the English teachers. Modules in these semesters also include observation tasks aimed at linking methodology classes to school experience. It is recommended that students spend one day (minimum 4 hours) in classes at school with no classes timetabled at the university. Observed teaching in semester 8 puts students into the role of teacher under the supervision of school-based mentors and university tutors. Students spend six weeks full-time in schools. During the *observed teaching*, students have weekly meetings with tutors to discuss and reflect on their experience. The Ministry guidelines specify a total of 17 credits for school experience, 6 of which are allocated to observed teaching. However, only observed teaching counts towards final assessment. Observation tasks during Modules 1 to 5 feed into continuous assessment. Overview of School Experience is given in Table 2.

Table 2. Overview of School Experience

Semester	**Module**	**School Experience**	
		Stage	**Frequency**
3	1 Understanding Learners and Learning	Guided observation	Once a fortnight
4	2 Preparing to Teach 1	Guided observation	Once a fortnight
5	3 Preparing to Teach 2	Teacher assistantship	Once a week
6	4 Preparing to Teach 3	Teacher assistantship	Once a week
7	5 Specialised Dimensions	Teacher assistantship	Once a week
8	6 Professional Development	Observed teaching	6 weeks full time

Assessment in the Course. *Continuous assessment* is carried out by the methodology teacher during each module and is both progress- and achievement-focused. Its main aim is to evaluate how successfully students achieved the learning outcomes for the module. Students complete assignments (including portfolios) for which they are given grades according to the detailed criteria in the assessment specifications for each module in the Curriculum. 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: essays, reflective writing, report presentations, quizzes, lesson plans, case study materials, test design, a professional development plan, portfolio, etc. 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 [2, p.1].

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.

Piloting the Curriculum. The next important stage of the project is piloting the new curriculum "English Language Teaching Methodology". According to the Ministry order the piloting started in September 2016 and will cover the period between 2016 and 2019. Ten Ukrainian universities are currently participating in the curriculum piloting. 470 students, 53 university teachers, 188 school teachers from 46 schools are involved in pilot study.

In order to measure if the curriculum had been implemented in a proper way and was having the desired result, the project team developed monitoring and evaluation plan. Having chosen the indicators to measure the success of the curriculum, the team identified how the data would be collected, the frequency (monthly, annually, etc.), which tool would be used, where it would be reported, and how quality report would be managed.Thus, the following tools were used to collect data: monitoring visits and online questionnaires.

The monitoring visits were made by project team members in November and December 2016. The monitoring plan included focus group dialogues with rectors, deans, heads of the departament, methodology teachers, students. To hold the dialogues, a set of questions for each stakeholder was designed. Demonstration lesson was an essential part of monitoring and evaluation plan. They were thoroughly analysed against a set of designed criteria.

The respondents to the online questionnaire were the students, studying FL Methodology according to the new curriculum; methodology teachers, piloting the curriculum and school teachers, supervising school experience. The first results of piloting the curriculum were got in June 2017. They were discussed on 12 October

2017 in the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and were highly appreciated by Lilia Hrynevych, the Minister of Education and Science of Ukraine.

The findings of the Project Monitoring. The New Methodology Curriculum has been created, documented and extensively trialled through the collective actions of the Project team. Over a period of nearly two years, this Curriculum has been taught by an increasing number of institutions to an increasing number of students. Though the Curriculum has not had its first graduates yet, it received positive ratings when students were asked if they found it useful and motivating. More significantly, the students who had just returned from teaching practice reported that the the methods and techniques they had learned during their training were motivating for the students in the schools they had been attached to.

The examination of the situation in regard to its stakeholders – the Ministry of Education, Universities, schools and the British Council, it was concluded that support for the New Methodology Curriculum is high among all stakeholders.

Conclusion. The analysis of the main stages of the NGST Project implementation leads to the following conclusions:

- -the new curriculum is a modern programme aligned with international standards, particularly the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
- -the curriculum can be used as a tool for enhancing the quality of pre-service EFL teacher training in order to carry out the New Ukrainian School Reform set out by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
- the curriculum provides in-built mechanisms for applying its innovative principles in both methodology and language teaching and learning
- the curriculum offers a model for introducing international standards into Ukrainian universities as a mechanism for upgrading university education and meeting global standards.

Thus, the need for replacing the traditional curriculum with the new one is feasible, desirable and urgent as it represents a major innovation in EFL teaching and learning in Ukraine. The New Methodology Curriculum contributes to international initiatives in curriculum design and methodology, so by adopting it, HEIs in Ukraine would be able to draw on all of the documents and resources of the Council of Europe and, more widely, the global language-teaching community.

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GLOBAL COMPETENCE IN EFL TEACHERS' EDUCATION

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Abstract: The article is devoted to the problem of development of EFL teachers' global competence. It analyses the importance of development of new EFL teachers' training programs taking the development of global competence as a part of professional literacy into account. It characterizes the possibilities to develop global competence in the process of English learning: setting up projects in English that are proposed by a teacher and relevant to new important discoveries of the humanity; reading and analyzing English literature; writing an essay; on-line discussions in English and meeting with foreigners. The success of a modern student, future EFL teacher, is determined by not only speaking skills, but also by knowledge and personal interest in global problems, as well as skills and abilities for cross-cultural communication, as well as the willingness to be accustomed to the new challenges of the world. The importance to develop EFL teachers' global competence that becomes apparent in the possibility to understand global problems and the capacity to solve them has increased. EFL teachers' global competence is cosely connected to a communicative competence. Future EFL teachers demonstrate the capacity to understand and perceive different audiences in order to achieve the general aim; realize the influence of effective communication on a collaboration in the interdependent world. A global competence opens a way not only to knowledge about the world but also stimulates to act, to understand and create possibilities to change something using creative ideas at local, regional or state level. Global education allows to evaluate the potential influence of own opinions and judgements on other people, to define their consequences.

Keywords: global education, global competence, communicative competence, professional competence, EFL teachers' training programs.

Currently, in the epoch of innovative changes, and new experience as the consequence of global processes, a necessity to research and study the important world phenomena, events, as well as to be in cross-cultural communication with countries all over the world are of great importance. Modern society faces the unprecedented changes and possibilities, and therefore needs the new professional competence and abilities. All in all, there is a substantial body of evidence to support the view that well-qualified specialists of any current field must be well-informed with the features of different professions and cultures to find a successful way out of global problems. Consequently, scientists discuss possibilities to form a new competence that would be able to unite people with various linguo-cultural features for a collective, creative collaboration with the ethic codes of professional conduct. Here we are referring to a global competence orientated to: gaining a thorough understanding of global and cross-cultural problems; imparting knowledge and skills that are necessarily crucial for work in the difficult and inconsistent conditions of information society; possibility to live with and to be taught by people of different professions; importance of the deferential cooperation with other people.

The Canadian and American researchers, in our opinion, have achieved the considerable success in proving and analyzing the importance of global competence in the current education (Weber N., Evans M., MacDonald A., & Ingram L. A. [8], Goddard J. T. [4] and others). They confidently clarify that modern teachers begin their pedagogical career with thorough knowledge, abilities and skills necessary for the effective cooperation with students and create favourable conditions for studies in the class as well. However, despite plenty of the effective programs of teachers’ training and professional development, young specialists do not have enough theoretical knowledge and professional skills for teaching the future generation to live and work in more peaceful and conscious society [2].

Taking into consideration the great importance of global education and necessity to form future specialists’ global competence of the XXI century, main characteristic features of the global competence in EFL teachers’ education are left to be nor researched and found out to the end. We tend to think about the significance of improving a global competence in EFL teachers’ education. Researchers who consider English to be the language of international communication explain the aforementioned belief. They point out that philologists should have pedagogical and cultural competence as well to resist the harsh challenges of globalization that are closely connected to a global competence.

The urgency of the research has no doubt. Notwithstanding the evidence, a global competence as the important constituent of EFL teachers’ professional literacy has not been analyzed.

The aim of the article is to analyze the importance of forming a global competence and its place in the system of EFL teachers' professional training.

Currently, plenty enough of scientific researches, normative acts and documents define the necessity to apply global education to the programs of EFL teachers' professional training [5]. For instance, in the United States the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) together with National Board Certification set Professional Teaching Standards for EFL teachers' professional training. It is said that communicative, cultural, professional and global competences are of great importance for EFL teachers. These Standards in particular explicate:

- the importance to develop all types of speech and language activities, speaking fluently;
- a necessity to evaluate speaking skills of EFL teachers in order to enhance the EFL Teachers' training program;
- language, linguistic, cultural and literary components of studying in order to form the aforementioned competence;
- the importance to study methodology of foreign languages teaching taking into account world educational tendencies;
- the key role of pedagogical practices of students at schools under the instructions of well-qualified supervisors;
- possibilities to study and use information-communication technologies in practice;
- the importance to participate in the mobility programs for studying foreign languages in a natural environment [2].

It is necessary to emphasise that the great importance of the aforementioned Standards for EFL teachers' global education development are orientated on forming speaking skills, giving a positive outlook in all. It will help to identify the additional personal interest in other questions and find the possible variants of different problems' solution.

We consider that scientific achievements and researches of experts in foreign languages education will help local teachers and researchers in the development of new EFL teachers' training programs taking into account the calls of present time. Consequently, a global competence will become the acquired crucial constituent of EFL teachers' professional literacy and education in general.

Hence, we are convinced that the success of a modern student, future EFL teachers, is determined by not only speaking skills but also by knowledge and personal interest in global problems, by skills and abilities for cross-cultural communication, as well as by the willingness to be accustomed to the new challenges of the world. In other words, the importance to develop EFL teachers' global competence, that becomes apparent in the possibility to understand global problems and the capacity to solve them has increased. On such conditions students will develop skills as follows:

- to study the world out of the usual environment, as well as to analyse the important problems of humanity;
- to determine clearly and thoroughly own and other's priorities;
- to communicate effectively with different members of audiences without geographical, language, ideological and cultural borders;
- to realize themselves as important players of world events [6].

There is no doubt, that the development of all these skills is a difficult task that needs considerable efforts during EFL teachers' training.

The development of global competence, as an important component of modern education, is better initiated during the study of core disciplines and mastering the aquired knowledge but not after studying. We reckon that English teaching requires the use of such methods and principles of studies, such system of exercises and tasks, that would be orientated not only on the different skills development (listening, speaking (dialogue and monologue), reading, writing) but also on forming a global competence, as the crucial component of EFL teachers' professional literacy.

Researchers provide important insights into the possible ways to form global competence and its importance during the English studying.

Foremost, findings prove the popularity of the project work in English study. This means that students and then pupils are involved in group or srudent's projects, that reflect the researches' subjects offered by a teacher and are connected with transnational nature of the humanity's scientific opening [1].

Thus, the project work must be the constituent part of English studying. In this case, a student uses different skills to realize, for example, a problem of climate changes in the world, society's preparations to the inevitable changes related to the scientific and technical progress, as well as differences between the English and Ukrainian humour and others. The analysis of these and other questions is extremely important for understanding the diversified society of today's world. In our point of view, students should find not a right answer to a question, but present their own emotional attitude toward they read and heard.

Despite the fact that nowadays, researchers draw their attention to a three-level competence (the ethic level means to study and research the cultural variety and common human values; the level of actions means the possibility to speak different languages; the academic level means knowledge that is necessary for understanding the nature of globalization and all processes related to this phenomenon) [1; p. 7], these constituents can correlate with each other, as well as help each other. Moreover, they can be considered as different subjects for studying [1].

In this case, for teaching reading as well as listening in English it is expedient to use texts, audio and videotape recordings where peculiar features of foreign society and characteristic traits of its national culture are presented. It would be worth reading and studying some pieces of literature in English, writing literary essays to express students' personal point of view on the information they have read, comparing literary translations to the native language and others.

We consider that EFL teachers' global competence is cosely connected with a communicative competence. It is impossible not to notice the influence of information-communication technologies on methods and principles of teaching English. The prime example of the communicative cooperation can be the organization of on-line meetings and lessons with the representatives of foreign native speakers. Students from both sides can use verbal and unverbal behavior, language cliches and expressions, as well as intonation. In this case, future EFL teachers demonstrate the capacity to understand and perceive different audiences in order to achieve the general aim; realize the influence of effective communication on a collaboration in the interdependent world.

Thus, it is possible to mention that the aforementioned communicative situations during English studying will influence the development of global competence that can be found in skills and abilities:

- to understand the variety of judgements related to the specific information and to realize the influence of these ideas on communication;
- to listen and communicate in an environment that is not natural;

- to elect and use information-communication technologies for communication.

As discussed by foreign researchers W. Fischman, B. Solomon, D. Schutte, and H. Gardner [3], a global competence opens a way not only to knowledge about the world but also stimulates to act, to understand and create possibilities to change something using creative ideas at local, regional or state level. Global education allows to evaluate the potential influence of own opinions and judgements on other people, to define their consequences.

Overall, any problem that needs a solution – from climate changes and national safety to the healthy life and varieties of rest – is globally important. Information technologies did possible instantaneous distribution of information in the world. Today, as never before, the diversified society, cultures, nations are interdependent and need specialists who are able to solve problems. That time comes, when global education is extremely important not only for some professions, but it is the necessity for everyone in the world.

To conclude, forming communicative competence during the English studying can be realized by different ways and it becomes the constituent part of EFL teachers' training and teachers' productive work in the information society. It has been found that a global competence of EFL teachers is formed during the study of a set of professional disciplines and orientated on: the special particular knowledge that will help to understand the correlation between different world events and problems; pedagogical abilities and skills that will help students to analyse and realize numerous changes in the world as well as varieties of traditions; cross-cultural competence and the best way to adapt oneself to the set of new social and cultural norms happened in the society; obligations to teach the habitants of the globalized world.

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LEXIKALISCH-SEMANTISCHES FELD „GEIZ" IN EINEM DEUTSCH–RUSSISCHEN VERGLEICH

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Abstract: The article studies the lexical-semantic field "Greed" in the German and Russian languages. The relevance of the study of the problem of lexical-semantic fields is attributed to the fact that, the field, representing in itself the hierarchical structure of the set of lexical units which are united by a common meaning and reflecting a certain conceptual sphere in the language, allows to establish the diverse aspects of its lexical units, to identify their nationally specific features. The structure of lexical-semantic groups of nouns, adjectives and verbs that make up this lexical-semantic field in both languages is analyzed by means of definitional and componential analyses. The paradigmatic connections between its components are determined and analyzed and on this basis, the general and specific features of the lexical means of verbalization of the studied lexical-semantic field in the German and Russian languages are defined.

Keywords: lexical-semantic field, lexical-semantic group, paradigmatic relations, hyperonimy, hyponimy, synonymy.

Die Untersuchungen semantischer Strukturen erfreuen sich nach wie vor einer großen Beliebtheit. Sie tragen einen interdisziplinären Charakter und stehen im Mittelpunkt von Forschungen zur strukturellen und kognitiven Semantik, zur Linguokulturologie, Psycho- und Soziolinguistik. Dabei werden semantische Strukturen unterschiedlich verstanden (Apressjan 1995, Karaulov 1976, Vendina 2010, Sternin 2010, Weißgerber 1962, Kühn 1979, Schippan 2002, Busse u.a. 2005, Kämper-Jensen 2009, Harm 2015). In diesem Beitrag wird eine von solchen semantischen Strukturen unter die Lupe genommen, nämlich lexikalisch-semantisches Feld „Geiz“ in der deutschen und russischen Sprache. Die Einzigartigkeit lexikalisch-semantischer Felder (LSF) besteht in ihrem Vermögen, vielfältige linguokulturelle Konzepte zu verbalisieren, das Universale und das Nationalspezifische in der Weltwahrnehmung verschiedener Völker zum Ausdruck zu bringen. Eine eingehende Analyse von LSF lässt sowohl die prioritären lexikalischen Einheiten als auch ihre paradigmatischen Beziehungen in der hierarchischen Feldstruktur feststellen.

LSF wird hier als „grundlegende Struktureinheit aufgefasst, die aus einer Menge bedeutungsnaher Lexembedeutungen besteht“ [2, S. 61]. Aufgrund paradigmatischer, syntagmatischer oder semantischer Relationen zwischen den Wörtern eines LSF können seine Elemente in lexikalisch-semantische Gruppen (LSG) eingeteilt werden. Unter der LSG verstehen wir paradigmatische Gruppierungen der lexikalischen Einheiten, die auf ein und denselben außersprachlichen Aspekt inhaltlich bezogen sind und die einer Wortart angehören [3, S. 48]. Als Minimaleinheit der LSG gilt nicht das Wort selbst, sondern eine seiner lexikalisch-semantischen

Bedeutungen, soweit das Wort nicht eindeutig ist. Die Elemente einer LSG verfügen über die sogenannte semantische Invariante - die Bedeutung, die gewissermaßen allen Einheiten der LSG eigen ist, weisen zugleich differenzierende Merkmale auf. Außer den grundsätzlichen Hyponymie- und Hyperonymierelationen können unter den Elementen innerhalb einer LSG systemhafte Beziehungen der Synonymie, Antonymie, Konversion u. a. bestehen [1, S. 73]. Wie auch ein LSF ist eine LSG hierarchisch zu strukturieren.

Die quantitative Analyse der LSGs in beiden zu vergleichenden Sprachen hat ergeben, dass die Substantive die zahlreichste LSG bilden, der die LSG der Adjektive folgt. Die zahlenmäßig kleinste Gruppe bilden die Verben. Quantitativ unterscheiden sich die LSGs der Substantive in beiden Sprachen kaum voneinander: die deutsche LSG enthält 36 Lexeme (45,6%), die entsprechende russische – (46,9 %).

In beiden Sprachen haben die lexikalisch-semantischen Gruppen eine ähnliche Struktur. Den Kern bilden die Archilexeme ‚Geiz’ bzw. *‚жадность‘* und das Zentrum die abwertenden und umgangssprachlichen Wörter, die das entsprechende Sem in ihren Sememen enthalten (z.B.: dt. *Gier, Habsucht, Raffsucht, Unersättlichkeit;* umg.: *Knickerei*, *Pfennigfuchserei*, *Filzigkeit* – rus. *алчность, корысть, скупость;* umg.: *прижимистость, скупердяйство*, *ненасытность*). An der Peripherie der russischen LSG von Substantiven befinden sich Lexeme mit salopper Bedeutung (*жлобство, жмотство, крохоборство, скопидомство*). Die Peripherie der deutschen LSG konstituieren neben den Wörtern mit salopp gefärbten Bedeutungen auch Dialektismen, wie *Kniepigkeit, Knickstiebel*, *Rappenspalter*.

Infolge der morphologischen und der semantischen Analyse von Substantiven, die die untersuchten LSGs im Deutschen und im Russischen bilden, stellte es sich heraus, dass die zu vergleichenden Lexeme Divergenzen in ihrer Wortbildungsart, sowie in Namen- und Bedeutungsübertragung aufweisen. Für die Bildung der deutschen Substantive ist vor allem die Komposition (*Geldgier, Raffsucht*) vorherrschend, für die Bildung der Konstituenten der russischen LSG ist dagegen die Derivation typisch (*копить-скопидом; жадничать-жадина*). Im Laufe des Bedeutungswandels haben manche deutschen lexikalischen Einheiten ihre Bedeutung auf Grund innerer Ähnlichkeit oder logischer Beziehung übernommen, während die Bedeutung der russischen Substantive infolge der metaphorischen Übertragung, nämlich auf Grund der Ähnlichkeit von Eigenschaften, entstanden ist, z.B.: *алтынник, копеечник* von der Geldbezeichnung; *скобарь* von der Bezeichnung des Gegenstandes, der dem Zweck dient, zwei Sachen zusammenzuhalten oder etwas an etwas zu befestigen: *Плюшкин* vom Namen einer der handelnden Figuren des Werks von N. Gogol „Die toten Seelen", der diese negative Charaktereigenschaft typisch war; *Гарпагон* vom Namen der reichen, aber engstirnigen und geizigen Hauptfigur der französischen Komödie „Der Geizige" von Moliere)

Für die Elemente der LSGs von Substantiven ist vor allem Hyperonymie/Hyponymie - Relation typisch. Als Hyperonyme fungieren die Lexeme ‚Geiz' und ‚жадность', die das Sem „übertriebene, abstoßend wirkende Sparsamkeit" enthalten. Alle Elemente dieser LSGs haben dieses Sem in ihren Sememen und treten somit als Hyponyme zu den Archilexemen ‚Geiz' und ‚жадность' auf. Bei der semantischen Analyse der LSG-Konstituenten in beiden Sprachen wurde festgestellt, dass die deutschen lexikalischen Einheiten im Gegensatz zu den russischen eine umfangreichere Palette von differenzierenden Semen aufweisen. Sie unterscheiden sich voneinander durch einen übertriebenen Wunsch nach Besitz (*Habgier, Besitzgier*), nach Geld (*Begierde, Geldgier*), Profit (*Profitsucht, Profitgier*). Zwischen den Kohyponymen der untersuchten LSG bestehen u.a. synonymische Beziehungen, dabei handelt es sich sowohl um bedeutungsgleiche (dt. *Habgier-Besitzgier, Geizhals-Geizkragen, Knicker-Pfennigfuchser*; rus. *стяжательство-алчность, скряжничество-жмотство; жмот-скряга*) als auch bedeutungsähnliche (dt. *Knauserei-Kniepigkeit, Geizkragen-Knickstiebel, Rappenspalter-Pfennigfuchser; скупердяйство-скупость, крохоборство-скаредность, скупец-скряга*). Der Vergleich der synonymischen Relationen zwischen den Kohyponymen von beiden LSGs hat ergeben, dass im Deutschen die Anzahl der bedeutungsgleichen und bedeutungsähnlichen synonymischen Paare ungefähr gleich ist, während in der LSG der russischen Substantive die bedeutungsähnlichen Lexeme in Mehrzahl sind.

Im Gegensatz zu den russischen Lexemen weisen die deutschen Konstituenten der LSG von Substantiven eine Partonymie-Relation auf. So ist das Substantiv *Habgier* partonym zu dem Substantiv *Raffgier*, weil es nur eine von mehreren Bedeutungen des

Lexems *Raffgier* enthält und eben „Gier nach Besitz“, während *Raffgier* „Gier nach Besitz, Gewinn, und Geld“ bedeutet.

Die Verwendung von stilistisch gefärbten Lexemen dieser LSG in der Rede verleiht dem Gesagten eine abwertende, eher negative Schattierung. So ironisiert der Journalist einer einflussreichen deutschen Zeitung über die Südkoreaner, wenn er ihre übertriebene Kauflust *Konsumrausch* nennt:

„Nebeldecke, grüne Landschaften und Gebirge lassen hier jeden Reisenden die Harmonie zwischen Mensch und Natur spüren. Die zwei Seiten Südkoreas: Hier strenge konfuzianische Tradition, dort Großindustrie und Konsumrausch. Neben Betonwüsten stehen pompöse Tempel und Paläste.“ („Die Zeit“, 06.07.2009).

Eine bewertende Funktion erfüllt auch das Wort ‚*скаредность*‘ im folgenden Textbeispiel: *„Этот богатый курский помещик дрожал над каждой банкой консервов и проявлял величайшую скаредность в то время, когда наверху беспрестанно бухали орудия и когда каждая секунда угрожала нам взрывом от неприятельской торпеды.* („Tsushima“ A. S. Nowikow-Priboi).

Im Text realisiert sich also auch die pragmatische Funktion der stilistischen Synonyme, die der untersuchten LSG angehören, denn mit deren Hilfe drücken die Autoren nicht nur ihre eigene Ansicht aus, sondern beeinflussen auch die Meinung ihrer Leser.

„Ich denke, wichtiger als jede Pfennigfuchserei wäre eine Professionalisierung der Arbeitsabläufe in der Schule: Jeder macht seinen Job optimal und professionell und nicht einer alle irgendwie.“ („Die Zeit“, 05.07.2007)

„Er führte in frommer Erkenntnis seiner an Geiz grenzenden ***Knickrigkeit*** *diesen Geburtsfehler auf seine partiell schottische Herkunft zurück“*. („Die Welt“, 23.12.2000)

Die LSG der Adjektive ist in der deutschen Sprache zahlenmäßig nicht bedeutend größer als die entsprechende Gruppe im Russischen: die deutsche LSG besteht aus 31 Lexemen (39,2 %), die entsprechende russische - aus 27 (32,5 %). Die Analyse der wortbildenden Strukturen hat gezeigt, dass für die Adjektive der beiden Sprachen vor allem die Derivation typisch ist. Trotz der quantitativen und wortbildenden Ähnlichkeit weisen die Strukturen der beiden LSGs einige Divergenzen auf.

In der Mitte dieser LSGs stehen Hyperonyme ‚geizig‘/ ‚жадный‘. Das Zentrum der deutschen LSG belegen gehobene (*begehrlich,* veraltetes *insatiabel*), abwertende (*gierig, habsüchtig, raffgierig*) und umgangssprachliche abwertende Wörter (*knauserig, filzig, knickerig*). Die Peripherie belegen *verfressen, neugierig* und dialektale Lexeme. Die letzteren kann man in 4 Untergruppen einteilen: norddeutsche (*kniepig, netig, giepig*), ostmitteldeutsche (*zach*), österreichische (*notig, schmutzig*) und schweizerische (*knorzig, rappenspalterisch*). Die meisten Lexeme (58%) zeichnen sich durch den allgemeinen deutschen Gebrauch aus, 16% werden umgangssprachlich verwendet und 26% sind dialektal.

Im Zentrum der russischen LSG liegen die Wörter des allgemeinen russischen Gebrauchs (*алчный, стяжательский, скупой, корыстный*), an der Peripherie - umgangssprachliche Lexeme (*прижимистый, зажимистый, загребущий*), Lexeme mit salopper Bedeutung (*жмотский, жлобский, скупердяйский*) und Wörter, die nur in bestimmten Situationen als sinnverwandte auftreten können (*обжорливый, прожорливый*).

Es fällt sofort auf, dass die Anzahl der russischen saloppen Adjektive viel größer ist, als die der deutschen. Was die Semantik anbetrifft, so wurde festgestellt, dass sich die deutschen Adjektive wie auch Substantive voneinander durch differenzierende Seme ‚übertriebener Wunsch nach Besitz, nach Geld, nach Gewinn' unterscheiden. Die Konstituenten der deutschen und der russischen LSG von Adjektiven stehen vor allem in synonymischen Beziehungen zueinander. In beiden LSG dominieren dabei unvollständige Synonyme.

Die synonymischen Lexeme der LSGs ‚geizig' bzw. ‚жадный' weisen auf diese negative menschliche Eigenschaft hin, was folgende Textbeispiele veranschaulichen:

„Wohl um dem ***habgierigen*** *Stiefvater zu entkommen, heiratete sie, kam jedoch vom Regen in die Traufe : Ihr Mann war ein Schürzenjäger , sonnte sich in ihrem Ruhm und kassierte ihre Honorare."* (Die Zeit, 04.04.2013)

„Denn längst ist die Abwesenheit der Unternehmen in den Verbänden kein ostdeutsches Phänomen mehr. Und auch die untertarifliche Bezahlung von Arbeitnehmern in der Bauwirtschaft kann nicht mehr auf eine Gruppe ***raffsüchtiger*** *Kapitalisten beschränkt werden*. (Der Tagesspiegel, 31.01.2000)

Нынче сидят ребятки и никого близко не подпускают: как только появляется новое интересное производство, они тут *же прибирают его к своим* ***загребущим*** *ручонкам.* (Argumenty i fakty, 16.06.2014)

Прижимистые люди к дизайнерам не обращаются, у них психология такая: «Зачем мне кто-то? Я сам могу расставить мебель». (Argumenty i fakty 14.07.2017)

Neben der Synonymie -Relation ist in der LSG der Adjektive auch Partonymie -Relation festzustellen. Als Beispiele dafür dienen die Lexeme *habgierig* und *begehrlich*. So ist das Adjektiv *habgierig* partonym zu dem Adjektiv *begehrlich,* weil es nur eine von mehreren Bedeutungen des Lexems *begehrlich* enthält und die Eigenschaft ‚Gier nach Besitz' benennt, während *begehrlich* „Gier nach Besitz, nach Genuss, nach Erfüllung der Wünsche" bezeichnet.

Die quantitativ kleinsten Gruppen der untersuchten lexikalisch –semantischen Felder bilden die LSGs von Verben, die deutsche LSG umfasst 12 Lexeme, die russische - 17. Den Kern der LSGs bilden die Oberbegriffe ‚gieren'/ ‚жадничать'. Im Zentrum der deutschen LSG befinden sich gehobenes *kargen,* Wörter des allgemeinen deutschen Gebrauchs (*gieren, sich bereichern, raffen*), sowie umgangssprachliche Lexeme (*knausern, knapsen, knappen, kleckern*). An der Peripherie liegen dialektale Wörter (*knarzen* (schweizerisch.), *schmorgen* (westmitteld.) und die Wörter mit salopper Bedeutung (*knickern, knickern*). Im Zentrum der russischen LSG platzieren allgemein gültige Lexeme (*скупиться, жалеть*), an der Peripherie umgangssprachliche und die Wörter mit salopper Bedeutung (*скупердяйничать, крохоборствовать, жмотничать, жилиться, жаться*).

Zwischen einigen Kohyponymen der untersuchten LSGs bestehen totale (dt. *knausern-knapsen, raffen-gieren, knapsen-knappen;* rus. *скупердяйничать-скаредничать, жалеть-скупиться*) und partielle (dt. *kargen-kleckern, schmorgen-knausern;* rus. *скупиться-жмотничать, жаться-скупиться*) synonymische Beziehungen. Es ist hervorzuheben, dass manche russischen Verben von entsprechenden Geldbezeichnungen abgeleitet sind, z.B.: *алтын-алтынничать, копейка-копеечничать*.

Die oben angeführten Verben heben besondere Merkmale von Vorgängen, Handlungen oder Prozessen hervor und charakterisieren somit die Personen, die diese Vorgänge, Handlungen oder Prozesse ausführen. So bewertet der Journalist der deutschen Zeitung „Die Zeit" die übertriebene Sparsamkeit mancher Deutscher negativ, indem er das Verb *knausern* („mit etwas übertrieben sparsam umgehen“) in seinem Text verwendet:

*„Anders die Deutschen. Sie **knausern** auch als Rentner. Sieben von zehn Ruheständlern bauen ihr Vermögen nicht ab, sondern bleiben sparsam und vergrößern es weiter.* („Die Zeit“, 01.02.2007)

Demselben Zweck dient auch die Verwendung des synonymischen Lexems kleckern im folgenden Textbeispiel.

*… Die Prämie, nach ihrer Aufstockung fünf Milliarden Euro schwer, hat die Große Koalition im Rekordtempo durchgewinkt, nach dem Motto: Nur nicht **kleckern** in der Krise.* („Die Zeit“, 15.05.2009).

Dieselben Funktionen erfüllen die Synonyme des Lexems ‚жадничать‘, was folgendes Textbeispiel demonstriert: *Но когда речь заходила о войне, часто вспоминалось что-нибудь забавное или курьёзное. Скажем, как повар раздобыл где-то бочонок сметаны, и долго скаредничал.* (Argumenty i fakty, 17.05.2013)

Die Untersuchung der das LSF „Geiz“ konstituierenden lexikalisch-semantischen Gruppen von Substantiven, Adjektiven und Verben im Deutschen und Russischen hat ergeben, dass jede der analysierten LSGs ein logisches, hierarchisch strukturiertes System darstellt, dessen Konstituenten durch gemeinsames semantisches Merkmal zu einer Ganzheit vereinigt sind, die ihre Struktur und Stellung im lexikalisch-semantischen System der deutschen bzw. der russischen Sprache bestimmt. Die infolge der Komponentenanalyse festgestellten differenzierenden Seme lassen die zwischen den Lexemen jeder LSG bestehenden paradigmatischen Beziehungen verfolgen. In diesem Sinne ermöglicht eine feldmäßige Forschung der Lexeme mit den gemeinsamen semantischen Merkmalen „Geiz“/“жадность“, „geizig“/“жадный“ und „geizen“/“жадничать“ die Zusammenstellung der Informationen über das lexikalische Inventar für die Verbalisierung des linguokulturellen Konzepts „Geiz“. Der Vergleich der lexikalisch-semantischen Felder lässt Divergenzen und Konvergenzen zwischen deren Konstituenten feststellen und kann daher eine solide Grundlage für die Aufbereitung von entsprechenden Beschreibungs- und Übungsmaterialien für den kommunikativ orientierten, interkulturellen DaF-Unterricht bilden.

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ACADEMIC EMAIL REQUESTS: A CHALLENGE FOR EFL LEARNERS

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Abstarct: The study aims to investigate the level of pragmatic competence of Romanian learners of English when performing requests in academic email interaction. It focuses on the analysis of the linguistic form of authentic email requests written by students of USARB (Alecu Russo Balti State University) to faculty. The study examines the way politeness is expressed in academic email requests by analysing the level of directness employed, as well as the use of internal modification of the head act of request. The findings reveal cases of negative transfer of strategies from students' mother tongue into English. This stresses the need for pragmatic instruction, which will contribute to developing the EFL learners' pragmatic competence.

Keywords*:* conventionally indirect request, direct request, non-conventionally indirect request, negative transfer, pragmatic transfer.

The topic of the present study was prompted by my observation that when making requests in English, students tend to be very direct. In my teaching activity I often use email communication with my students. Very often students ask me to send them the PPTs that were used in class or the books that are available in electronic form. Looking at the language they use to formulate their requests, I thought this would be an interesting topic for investigation. There were two issues that attracted my attention: the syntactic form used when making requests and the way politeness is expressed in email requests.

To begin with, here is a request that I received from one of my students: *I am sending you the examples I would like to analyze in my research, please have a look and tell me if they are ok.* As can be seen, it is correct from the grammatical point of view, the student tried to be polite – she used the politeness marker *please*, yet the request does not seem to follow the norms of lingustic politeness characteristic of English. It is easy to notice that it follows the Romanian rules of politeness, according to which an imperative structure accompanied by the politeness marker *te rog/ vă rog* is used to make a polite request. Polite usage in Romanian allows many more direct imperatives than English does. Although *please* is often used as a politeness marker in English, when used with an imperative form, it is not sufficient to make a polite request.

We witness a case of interference of the mother tongue (in this case Romanian) in realizing a language function, and namely when making requests in English. This kind of interference is called negative transfer. As K. Bardovi-Harlig and R. Sprouse explain, negative transfer occurs "when the influence of the native language leads to error in the acquisition or use of a target language" [1, p. 1]. As such, it may occur in different language areas: phonetics, morphology, syntax, vocabulary acquisition and pragmatics. In this article we are interested in the pragmatic transfer that occurs when native speakers of Romanian make requests in English.

Pragmatic transfer refers to "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" [6, p. 207]. One of its two facets is the pragmalinguistic transfer, defined by J. Thomas as "the inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from one language to another, or the transferring from the mother tongue to the target language of utterances which are semantically/syntactically equivalent, but which, because of different 'interpretive bias', tend to convey a different pragmatic force in the target language” [8, p. 101].

In other words, pragmalinguistic transfer involves using certain strategies and forms from the mother tongue into the foreign language. Such a transfer may affect the degree of politeness of a particular utterance, which, consequently, may lead to failure and misunderstanding in intercultural communication.

The study focuses on the analysis of the linguistic form of 30 authentic email requests written by students of USARB to faculty. It examines the way politeness is expressed in academic email requests by analysing the level of directness employed, as well as the use of the internal modification of the request. Internal modification of the request includes lexical and syntactic means that soften the force of the request.

The first item of analysis was the level of directness. In the analysis of the data we followed Blum-Kulka’s coding scheme, according to which requests are classified into direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect or hints [4, p. 201]. We included only the categories for which we found examples in the data. Thus, the category locution derivable (*You’ll have to/should/ must/ ought to...)*, where the illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution and which in Blum-Kulka’s coding scheme refers to direct requests, was not introduced. Want statements, where the utterance expresses the speaker’s desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about (*I want you to advise me a few interesting books*), were omitted too. Similarly, the suggestory formula group (*how about ...?/ why don’t you ... ?*), which in Blum-Kulka’s coding scheme belongs to conventionally indirect requests, was not included.

Direct requests express the speaker’s intention very clearly, without any ambiguity. They include the following categories:

- Mood derivable: where the grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force, e.g. the imperative (*Send me the book, please*);
- explicit performatives: where the illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb (*I kindly ask you to send me the list of topics for the presentations*);
- hedged performatives: where the illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified (*We would like to ask you to send us the homework for tomorrow*);

- need statements: where the utterance expresses the speaker's need that the hearer carry out the act (*I need your advice*).
- Conventionally indirect requests are „procedures that realize the act by reference to contextual preconditions necessary for its performance, as conventionalized in a given language" [4, p. 201]. Structures that belong to this category include:
- Query preparatory (ability, willingness, possibility): *Can you help me with this problem? Could you send me the list of topics?/ Would you like to check the abstract, introduction and conclusion of my thesis?*
- Stating preparatory: *I will be very grateful to you if you can tell me the title of the article*.

Non-conventionally indirect requests include "the open-ended group of indirect strategies (hints) that realize the request by either partial reference to object or element needed for the implementation of the act ('Why is the window open'), or by reliance on contextual clues ('It's cold in here')" [4, p. 201].

Of these three categories, conventionally indirect requests are considered the most polite. By asking about the hearer's ability, willingness or possibility to perform an action, the speaker is seen as non-imposing, following thus R. Lakoff's politeness rule "Don't impose" [7]. These forms are seldom interpreted in their literal meaning, i.e. questioning ability, willingness or possibility, but are understood as being requests. Direct requests and non-conventionally indirect requests (hints) are treated as containing a lower degree of politeness. Direct requests break R. Lakoff's rule "Give options" and hints may sound impolite since they require more effort from the speaker to decode their meaning [2, p. 144].

The table below illustrates the frequency of the three strategies (direct requests, conventionally indirect requests and non-conventionally indirect requests) in the data.

Table 1. Level of directness in email requests

Strategy	**Frequency**
Direct requests	43 % (13)
Conventionally indirect requests	50 % (15)
Non-conventionally indirect requests (hints)	7 % (2)

As can be seen, conventonally indirect requests have the highest frequency (50%), followed by direct requests (43%) and by non-conventionally indirect requests (7%). Taking into consideration the fact that the requests were addressed by students to faculty, the percentage of direct requests is rather high. This might be interpreted as a case of negative transfer of request strategies from the students' mother tongue into English.

Direct requests express the speaker's intention very clearly, without any ambiguity. However, two pragmatic principles seem to be in conflict with each other in such a case. On the one hand, such requests follow P. Grice's [5] maxim of manner but on the other hand, they break R. Lakoff's politeness rules "Don't impose" and "Give options" [7].

The table below shows the substrategies of direct requests and their frequency in the present study.

Table 2. Frequency of substrategies of direct requests

Substrategy	**Examples**	**Frequency**
Mood derivable (the imperative)	*Please read my speech and write your remarks.*	9
Explicit performatives	*I will kindly ask you to let me know when you get these two documents.*	2
Hedged performatives	*We would like to ask you to send us the homework for tomorrow because we are a little confused.*	1
Need statements	*I need your advice.*	1
TOTAL		13

The study shows that students used imperatives more frequently than other direct substrategies. In fact, this substrategy accounts for the majority of direct requests (9). Since students addressed the requests to faculty, who have a higher status, they mitigated the directive force of the imperative with the politeness marker *please*. In fact, the politeness marker occurred in all the requests that are expressed by means of an imperative. In eight cases it was used in front position and in one case – in mid-position. *Please* was the only internal mitigator used in mood derivable requests in this study. Both the frequent use of the imperative to make requests and the use of the politeness marker *please* are indicative of negative pragmatic transfer from the students' mother tongue. This may hamper communication with native speakers of English, especially in requests addressed by students to faculty.

Conventionally indirect requests have the highest incidence in the present study (50%). They are considered polite since they give the hearer the option to decide whether to carry out the request or not. Students seem to be aware of the fact that the relationship between interlocutors influences the choice of the request strategy, and namely that a more distant relationship between interlocutors requires an indirect formulation of request.

Of the two substrategies mentioned earlier in this paper, the query preparatory was used more frequently (13 cases). The stating preparatory substrategy occurred only in two cases: *I will be very grateful to you if you can tell me the title of the article./ I'll be grateful if you can give me some individual work for the English lesson.* It is important to point out that students used very few structures to make indirect requests. Most of them were interrogative sentences with the modal verbs *can* and *could*. However, the English language offers many more structures for conventionally indirect requests.

The table below illustrates the types and frequency of query preparatory requests used in this study.

Table 3. Frequency of query preparatory requests

Query preparatory types	**Examples**	**Frequency**
Ability	*Can you check my paper, please?* *Could you have a look at the contents of my work?*	12
Willingness	*Would you like to check the abstract, introduction and conclusion of my thesis?*	1
Total		13

It is important to point out that both *can* and *could* were used in requests. However, few students seem to be aware of the difference in the degree of politeness of requests containing these verbs. Thus, *could* (5), which makes a request more polite, had a lower frequency than *can* (7).

Another issue that requires attention in teaching requests is the perspective or orientation of conventionally indirect requests. As pointed out by Blum-Kulka et al. [3, p. 58–9] a speaker can:

1. stress the role of the hearer by making a hearer oriented request, e.g. *Can you lend me your dictionary?*

2. stress his/her own role by making a speaker oriented request, e.g. *Could I have your dictionary for a minute?*

3. use an inclusive 'we', e.g. *Why don't we do it now?*

4. use an impersonal construction, e.g. *I was wondering if there'd be any possibility of borrowing a car?*

Of the first two perspectives, the speaker-oriented one is considered more polite since no imposition is placed on the addressee. In the data analyzed for the present study the speaker perspective occurred only once. It shows that students do not know about the possibility of using different perspectives. Nor do they know the difference between them.

Just as was the case with direct requests, the only internal modifier that students used to mitigate the force of the conventionally indirect requests was the marker *please*.

The results of the present study show that students tend to transfer request strategies from Romanian into English. Thus, many of their requests in English are expressed directly, via imperative sentences. In addition, they seem to use the politeness marker *please* as in Romanian to soften the imperative, believing that in such a way they make a polite request. Except that, they seem not to be aware of the fact that the language of requests depends on the relationship between interlocutors. All of this emphasizes the need to pay more attention to teaching English requests, with a focus on the following aspects: linguistic means used to formulate conventionally indirect requests; internal modification of requests which includes lexical and syntactic means that mitigate the force of the request; the perspective in conventionally indirect requests.

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CAN LANGUAGE EDUCATION BE A DETERRENT TO LANGUAGE CHANGE?

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Abstract: In its first part, the paper deals with standardization and prescriptivism, and their relationship with language education, while in the second, it considers a few examples of grammatical structures which have been the target of prescriptivism for centuries: *will* vs. *shall*, the stranded preposition, the split infinitive, and the mandative subjunctive. Their current status, and the impact that prescriptive rules promoted by language education has had on them is revealed based on the results of recent corpus studies.

Keywords: language education, language change, standardization, prescriptivism, non-standard forms

Many people in the Anglo-American culture expect communication - spoken or written - to be done in standard English. To speak or write a standard variety is to apply the recommended sets of rules or norms collected in dictionaries, grammars, pronunciation manuals, guides on usage, style and etiquette, which are part of one's education. The standard formal written English has actually become the *lingua franca* of the professional world, and messages that are linguistically inaccurate are likely to be rejected here. On the other hand, in spite of its reputation of being rather traditional and conservative, language education is expected to provide students with the flexibility necessary to carry out an appropriate discourse in whatever terms a situation requires. English teachers, therefore, need to teach both the conventional principles of language, which are partly represented by the restrictions of prescriptive grammar and vocabulary usage, and to reconcile this demand with an accurate representation of contemporary spoken and written English, based on modern linguistic research. These expectations are assumed to shape not only the Anglo-American educational systems but also the learning of English as a foreign language worldwide.

Nevertheless, prescriptions themselves have changed slightly over time: some have been dropped completely, as is the case of the distinction between *shall* and *will* used for expressing future. Others, such as the use of the nominative case for the subject predicative after the copula *be* (e.g. *It is I vs. It's me*) are considered obsolete and are not adhered to in speech by the great majority of English speakers. Yet such prescriptive rules are still taught, learnt and observed by educated people, especially in writing.

Prescriptive rules are restrictions on syntactic constructions and word usage that have survived for centuries as shibboleths for the educated. Eighteenth century prescriptivists such as Robert Lowth or Lindley Murray claimed that prescriptive rules somehow 'improve' English and keep it in a state of excellence. This stand is particularly difficult to defend nowadays when modern linguistics has made it clear that any language variety can be successful communicatively within a given group. Moreover, one of the first voices that considered prescriptivism ineffective was a prescriptivist's. Samuel Johnson, wrote in his 1755 *Dictionary of the English Language:*

Those who have been persuaded to think well of my design require that it should fix our language, and put a stop to those alterations which time and chance have hitherto been suffered to make in it without opposition. With this consequence I will confess that I flattered myself for a while; but now begin to fear that I have indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience can justify. When we see men grow old and die at a certain time one after another, from century to century, we laugh at the elixir that promises to prolong life to a thousand years; and with equal justice may the lexicographer be derided, who being able to produce no example of a nation that has preserved their words and phrases from mutability, shall imagine that his dictionary can embalm his language, and secure it from corruption and decay.

Johnson's *Preface* to the *Dictionary* (1755, §84 [quoted in 7, p. 518])

Many prescriptive rules are now found unintuitive by both native and non-native English teachers and students, who often also think that the time spent on teaching and learning them is useless, as one cannot say in earnest that these rules represent ‘good’ or ‘correct’ English, the more so as historically they may have never been used in oral communication by native English speakers and few are acquired through child language acquisition. In social terms, however, different language varieties may assure various degrees of success. This is to say that the best arguments for the preservation of the prescriptive rules are the social factors which influence attitudes to language and language use. As Patrick Bassett, quoted in D. Schaffer [15, p. 59], put it:

A truth of life is that a substantial number of people in our culture still expect communication to be addressed in standard English. Those people are likely to reject whatever message is intended if the image the message carries is inappropriate. Thus, the goal of teaching prescriptive rules of standard English is to give to all students a flexibility to conduct a discourse in whatever terms the specific situation requires.

As long as society regards the knowledge and the application of the prescriptive rules as a sign of education, which is considered a highly-valued social asset, a prestigious factor in employment and other social situations, the learning of these rules is accepted. Moreover, if learners believe that social factors may be important in their careers and realize how they may be penalized academically and socially if they do not comply, they will motivate themselves to learn the prescriptive rules. Interestingly, a point that Robert Lowth made in his 1762 *Short Introduction to English Grammar* was that his grammatical prescriptions were welcomed by the upwardly mobile middle class, “who, in their desire to climb the social ladder … needed guidance as to the norm of linguistic correctness – ‘polite’ usage – that accompanied the new status they aspired to. Lowth’s grammar had not originally been written for this purpose, but this was the function it came to have in the eyes of the general public.” [2, p. 179].

There may be one more explanation for the survival of the prescriptive rules in language education: the teaching tradition. It is comfortable and reassuring for teachers to know that the final word on grammar and word usage was set down by Samuel Johnson, Robert Lowth or Lindley Murray, that the ‘guardians of English’ (as they have been called along the centuries) have fixed the language in a ‘state of excellence’ (in Samuel Johnson’s words), and that for more than 200 years students have been molded by the same view of English.

Tradition, however, may sound more reassuring for teachers than for students.

Linguists, in their turn, insist that there are constitutive correctness conditions for all natural languages, true for both formal and informal style, which define the difference between grammaticality and ungrammaticality, and can be justified based on evidence. By contrast, prescriptions (and proscriptions) are not ‘constitutive’, but ‘regulative’, to use John Searle’s terms [16]. They regulate the use of the language, in the sense that language could be used in ways that either comply or not with these rules. As a matter of fact, prescriptive rules may be harmless as they warn against using the language in ways that many people use all the time. They assume the existence of already defined standards and make sense only in relation to them. One can speak about ‘correctness’ only in relation to a frame of reference or standards, based on relatively stable sets of norms.

Some prescriptive rules are closer to the constitutive rules than others. Among the prescriptive rules that are closest to the constitutive ones may be included established criteria of educated written language such as the use of the suffix -*s* for the third-person singular of the present tense simple, or the use of complete sentences. However, many of the prescriptions are unsustainable, from the ban on the use of double negatives to other rules with little or no basis in actual usage such as the prohibition of stranded prepositions or that of the split infinitives.

There are also issues on which the grammarians have not agreed, where different rules are applied in written and spoken language, or in different registers of writing and speech, such as the use of contractions, of either *who* or *whom* in interrogatives (e.g. *Who/ Whom did you see?),* the use of either the singular or the plural verb with nouns such as *data,* the use of the accusative or genitive pronoun in object clauses (e.g. *I disapprove of him/ his doing it*), the meaning and use of adverbs such as *hopefully* or *literally*, etc. Moreover, there may be changes in the spoken language that some people resist, such as the use of the nominative after prepositions, as *in between you and I,* the use of the accusative in subject position (e.g. *Sue and me went for a drive)* or the replacing of *I said* by phrases such as *I was like …, I was all …* or *I was ….*

In what follows a few examples of prescriptive rules are examined, and their usefulness is considered from the standpoint of recent corpus studies.

The first example is the *will – shall* rule formulated by John Wallis in his *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* of 1653 [18]. Wallis prescribed that *will* should be used with second- and third-person subjects in future nonemotional uses, while *shall* with the first person, unless there are overtones of "emphasis, willfulness, or insistence", in which case the persons may be reversed, i.e., *will* should be used with first person subjects, and *shall* with the second and third person ones. These uses of *will* and *shall*, however, correspond to neither present-day English uses nor to historical ones. Both *will* and *shall* imply and have indeed implied futurity, with *will* often expressing intention and *shall* obligation. They have been used rather freely in future constructions, which makes Wallis's prescriptivist constraint arbitrary:

*It **will** be fine.*	*1. **Shall** we go now?*	***2.** You **shall** do your duty.*
3. *I **will** watch it.*	*4. **Shall** I help you?*	***5.** You **shall** want for nothing.*
6. *I **will** be loved.*	*7. When **shall** we go?*	*8. The truth **shall** set you free.*
*He **will** survive.*	***Shall** we take a short rest?*	*(Omnilexica)*

According to recent corpus studies (Mair, 2006 [12]; Leech, Hundt, Mair and Smith, 2009 [10]), the decline of *shall* is similar in both British and American English, but the trend is more obvious in American English, where *shall* has almost entirely disappeared and *will* is used almost exclusively for expressing future. This is to say that the rule has become even more unnatural than it was two hundred years ago. Native students who are told of this prescriptive rule find it amusing and indicative of the extremes reached by prescriptivists. Foreign students need to be told that the ban is not valid for spoken English, but that social factors have kept it popular in writing to this day.

An equally illogical and unintuitive rule is the clause-final preposition ban, or preposition stranding one, which refers to a pattern in which a preposition can be placed somewhere other than immediately before its complement, usually at the end of a sentence. It can be found in several types of sentences: *wh*- interrogatives, *wh*-relatives and those containing passive constructions:

*What are you laughing **at**?*
*This is the woman (whom) I was thinking **about**.*
*The car looks like it has been bumped **into**.*

It is even possible to have several stranded prepositions following a few verbal idioms:

*Which account did you take money **out of**?* [8, p. 630]

Although great literature from Chaucer to Milton to Shakespeare to King James's *Bible* is full of stranded prepositions, preposition stranding became the object of prescriptivist prohibition, as the grammarians insisted that English followed the Latin syntax, thereby forcing English speakers to use awkward constructions. One such construction was made famous by Winston Churchill, who reputedly answered the reproach of ending an official paper with a preposition by saying: "Sir, this is the sort of nonsense up with which I will not put." [14, p. 9] Churchill's sentence ironically echoes one of Robert Lowth's own sentences in *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) [10, p. 62]: "This is the sort of nonsense up with which I will not put", meant to admit that preposition stranding was more suitable for formal than for informal English and to satirize the awkwardness that results from such a prohibition. It also suggests that the rule was applied not only to prepositional verbs, but extended to phrasal verbs, too. The rule is still taught in schools.

Another prescription, the split-infinitive one, sometimes blamed on Bishop Lowth, is actually an illogical and unintuitive 19th century invention. It forbids the placing of any adverb or adverbial clause between the marker *to* and the bare infinitive. It is also based on the Latin model, where the infinitives cannot be split, as they are single words identified by inflectional suffixes. And yet, the ban on the splitting of the infinitive was imposed on English, which often makes use of a 'long', two-word infinitive structure that is often separated by adverbs, like in *to strongly believe*.

Despite the long history of the split infinitive, which apparently goes as far back as Layamon's *Brut* of the early 13th c., according to Ackerman, R. [1], by the beginning of the 20th century, the prohibition was established in schools and in the press. However, post-1960 usage and style manuals tend to accept the split infinitive (e.g. Follett's *Modern American Usage*, 1966: 313; *Fowler's Modern English Usage* in Gower's revised 2nd edition, 1983, etc.), the more so as according to the *American Heritage Book of English Usage* of 1996

[5], people split infinitives all the time, and consider simple split infinitives unobjectionable.

Apparently, the acceptability of the split infinitive is supported by its structural resemblance to other structures, as shown by the next three sentences:

He gradually retired from all his positions.

He will gradually retire from all his positions.

He wants to gradually retire from all his positions.

However, tolerance of split infinitives varies according to their type. One-word splits are better tolerated than long ones, with the notable exception of *to* ***more than*** *double*. In corpora of contemporary spoken English, adverbs such as *always* and *completely* appear more often in the split position than the unsplit [17, p. 245–246].

Everybody is very concerned ***to actually get*** *food to people who are really absolutely desperate now*. (from BNC KRT S_brdcast_news)

To conclude, although modern English usage guides have dropped the objection to the splitting of the infinitive, it is still considered in some quarters to be a mark of weak style in writing even if style guides accept it.

In contrast to the previous three completely arbitrary, unnatural and apparently unsuccessful prescriptions, which only demonstrate resistance to change and the resilience of old forms, recent corpus studies indicate a rare success of language education through prescriptivism: the revival of the mandative subjunctive [10, p. 52]. Considered formal in character by Jespersen [9, p. 318], Quirk *et al* [13, p. 157], or a disappearing feature of English [3, p. 207], [5, p. 274], the subjunctive has survived in spite of its few distinct forms.

The subjunctive is used to form sentences that do not describe objective facts, but statements about one's state of mind, intentions, opinions, beliefs, purposes, or desires, in subordinate clauses following mandative expressions such as *important, demand, require, move, suggest* and increasingly after *on (the) condition (that),* e.g.:

I ***suggest*** *that the meeting* ***be*** *postponed.* (*Omnilexica*)

'After escaping and being recaptured three times he was allowed his freedom ***on condition that he left New Zealand****.'*
(https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/condition)

'Reisz had accepted the job ***on condition that he would be allowed*** *to produce a series of non-advertising documentaries.'*
(https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/condition)

It is also used to express obligation or necessity:
*I **require** that all my employees be/ must be/ should be on time.* (*Omnilexica*)
*Life **doesn't require that we be** the best, only that we try our best.*
(H. Jackson Brown, Jr. in *Omnilexica*)

Characterized by paradigmatic poverty, formal syncretism with the indicative, and showing a less clear exhortation than the modal periphrasis, the subjunctive forms are a less visible grammatical feature. For instance, the verb *leave* in a sentence like: *It is important that they leave early* is ambiguous between indicative and subjunctive. Actually, only the third person singular of the present tense simple (that lacks the -*s* ending) differs from the subjunctive form, and the negated form:

*I'd suggest that she **leave** early.*

***I'd suggest** that Tom **not do** that anymore.* (*Omnilexica*)

Actually, only the verb *be* has both a distinct present subjunctive *be* in its bare form, as in *I suggest that the word **be** removed*, and a past subjunctive *were* for the 1st and 3rd persons singular, as in *If I/ he **were** young*.

Leech, Hundt, Mair and Smith's 2009 [10] corpus studies have shown that although in absolute frequencies the mandative subjunctive is vastly more common in writing than in speech, it has become especially frequent in spoken American English, but also more frequent in British texts of all types, apparently losing its formal connotation. The mandative subjunctive is replacing periphrastic constructions with *should* (more so in American English than in British English), although *should* may fail to replace the subjunctive in the long run. Although today, in formal writing, the *should* subjunctive forms are preferred over the indicative, American English uses less the periphrastic construction with *should*, and moreover, the ratio of *should* subjunctives is higher in the spoken than in the written corpora.

Although dispreferred in mandative contexts in American English and in informal spoken British English, the indicative, as in *'However, it is allowed on condition that claims are filed within the prescribed 12 month period.'* (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/condition) has become a frequent alternative, which shows that the indicative remains a viable alternative in informal written and particularly in spoken British English.

The past subjunctive in its turn is increasingly replaced in colloquial usage by the modal variant. The past tense *was* helps to convey a non-factual nature of the situation:
‘When he became too old to work on the farm, Banneker sold it to the Ellicot family ***on condition that he was allowed*** *to live in the farm house for the rest of his days.’* (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/condition)

The American increase in the use of the *were*-subjunctive in conditional contexts could be explained by both the revival of the mandative subjunctive, which may have lent support to the receding *were*-subjunctive, and the stronger American prescriptive influence. [9, p. 68] The revival of the mandative, a conservative feature imposed following persistent prescription is a phenomenon similar to what David Crystal [4] called a ‘last ditch situation’ in a period of transition in which language education has been moving away from dogmatic to pragmatic views on use.

To conclude, the development of modern linguistics in the 20th and 21st centuries, especially the advent of corpus linguistics, disturbed the waters of traditional grammar teaching and showed that there are no purely linguistic grounds for learning the prescriptive rules. Moreover, the majority of English teachers themselves, while still favouring the inclusion of prescriptive rules in the English curriculum, show a raised awareness of linguistic theories and of general linguistic attitudes towards language phenomena, and also feel encouraged to take a more flexible stand by the slew of linguistically-oriented syllabi and textbooks such as the functional, lexical and post-communicative ones. For pragmatic reasons, the less obviously useful but still valued characteristics of formal, written, standard English are still taught to both native and non-native students, taking into account the latter’s concerns about employability and social prestige, and offering practical reasons for the learning of certain formal, prescriptive rules of grammar and usage. By placing what is expected of students into this perspective, and by explaining that the prescriptive grammars of English answer their concerns, teachers may motivate at least some of their students to take into account grammatical and usage prescriptions.

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BACKWARD DESIGN: WHEN A GOOD ENDING MAKES A GOOD BEGINNING

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Teaching is a means to an end. Having a clear goal helps to focus our planning and guide purposeful action toward the intended results.
Wiggins and McTighe (2005)

Abstract: The article examines the principles of backward design as a means of designing the whole instruction process. It looks at the possibilities this method offers in terms of material design, lesson design and curriculum design. The assumption is that backword design helps teachers to plan their instruction activity so that it is both meaningful and motivational. Students seem to get a better awareness of the undergoing instruction process, being able to understand its purposes.

Keywords: backword design, material design, planning, teacher’s role.

Research in language education aims to offer viable solutions that will enhance both the teaching and learning processes. One important issue is to determine the teacher’s role in the involved processes. Special attention has been paid to the teacher’s role as a facilitator scaffolding the process of a foreign language acquisition, a role undeniably extremely important. In the student-centred classroom the teacher guides and encourages, motivates and inspires so that eventually students take control over their own learning.

While adopting a historical perspective on the roles teachers have had, Kumaravadivelu distinguishes three main categories: teachers as (a) passive technicians, (b) reflective practitioners, and (c) transformative intellectuals [5, p. 8]. The passive technician performs the role of the conduit, the reflective practitioner – the role of a facilitator, and finally the transformative intellectual – the role of a change agent.

The role adopted by the vast majority of scholars is definitely that of facilitator. Harmer [4] argues, however, that teachers might adopt various roles in their practice depending on the students' needs. Thus, teachers might adopt the role of a controller, organiser, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. Harmer suggests switching the roles when it is appropriate to do it, and consciously carry out and perform the adopted role.

While determining the teacher's role it quite often happens that one of the fundamental roles is underestimated. In order to facilitate the foreign language learning process, the teacher should be able to design appropriately his/her instructive process, and as a consequence improve the quality of teaching. It is particularly the role of a designer that needs to be revalued as 'no matter how competent a motivator a teacher is, if his/her teaching lacks instructional clarity and the learners simply cannot follow the intended programme, motivation to learn the particular subject matter is unlikely to blossom' [3, p. 26].

Richards argues that the process of teaching is an act of performance where the teacher should have developed a series of teaching skills that will help him/her 'carry herself through the lesson' [7, p. 9]. For example, the novice teacher should adopt the routines while planning his/her lesson and think of how to: open the lesson, introduce and explain tasks, set up learning arrangements, check students' understanding, guide student practice, monitor students' language use, make transitions from one task to another, and end the lesson. Yet, this routine approach is rather mechanical and is not goal driven. The scholar states that expertise comes with the course of time, whereas the teacher becomes more flexible and being able of performing 'improvisational teaching' [7, p. 10].

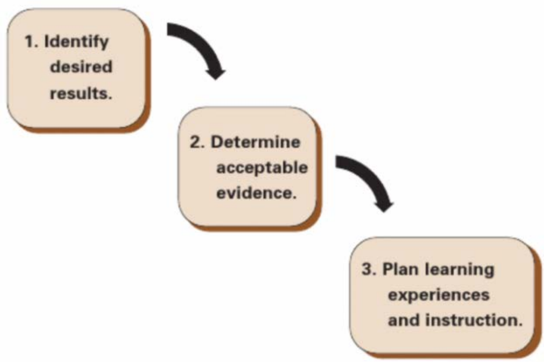
Experienced teachers might perform better than novice teachers. Yet, even the act of improvisation should be goal-driven and not teaching skills-driven. Richards points to the fact that teaching actually is 'a complex cognitively driven process affected by the classroom context, the teacher's general and specific instructional goals, the teacher's beliefs and values, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher's management of critical moments during a lesson' [7, p. 10].

In Brown's opinion [2, p. 149-150] one of the steps in planning a lesson is to determine the topic and the purpose of the lesson, and then write down the overall goal. This should be done only after having considered the curriculum and the 'tone' of the textbooks. The suggested method seems to be more content driven and less established goals oriented.

So far, designing a lesson plan has been considered from the traditional perspective where first and foremost how to teach content is taken into consideration, whereas the end results are considered at the end. This method encourages the teacher to cover the curriculum by designing a series of activities which will reflect the content of the lesson. The correlation of activities to the goals is considered last. This might be the cause for what Nunan calls 'fragmentation' in the modern course books, and which means that the sequence of activities is difficult to understand. The scholar warns against using fragmented activities which might puzzle students who would view such a lesson as 'confusing, unprincipled and piecemeal' [6, p.215].

Wiggins and McTighe [8] have advocated for a shift in the traditional paradigm in order to ensure instructional clarity and help learners follow the intended programme. The scholars emphasize the need of logically inferring the lessons, units, and courses from the results sought, and not deriving them from the methods, books, and activities with which teachers are most comfortable. That is why starting with the end actually helps proceed more logically towards the desired destination, and as a result promote enduring learning. Hence the notion of backward design was introduced, which is believed to offer 'a robust approach to planning' [8, p. 8). Teachers are no longer expected to merely cover the curriculum, they are actually expected to create it.

Figure 1. Stages of Backward Design



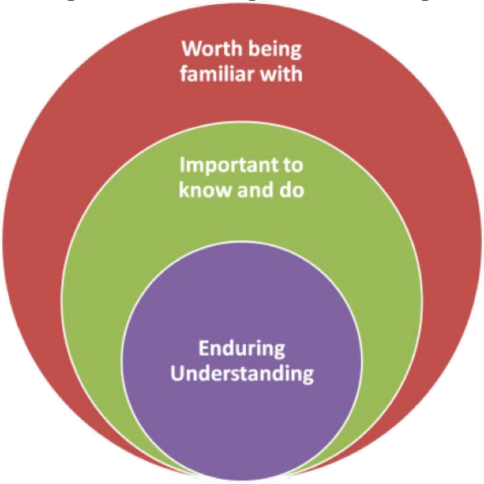
There are three stages of Backward Design (Figure 1). The first stage consists in identifying the desired results. The teacher should basically ask three questions:

1. What should students know, understand, and be able to do?
2. What is worthy of understanding?
3. What enduring understandings are desired?

Wiggins and McTighe put special emphasis on understanding. They warn against using the terms understanding and knowledge interchangeably as knowledge relates to a body of coherent facts, whereas understanding to the meaning of facts. The student is expected not only to know something to be true, but also to understand why it is true, what makes it knowledge. In addition the student should be able to judge when to and when not to use what he/she knows. In Wiggins and McTighe's opinion understanding should be viewed as meaningful inferences.

It becomes thus a priority for the teacher-designer to identify the enduring understandings in order to realize his/her desired goals. Wiggins and McTighe suggest establishing circular priorities (Figure 2 [1]), which might help gaining clarity on the teacher's goals.

Figure 2. Enduring understandings



The second stage involves the process of determining acceptable evidence, where the teacher should ask the following two questions:

1. How will I know if students have achieved the desired results?
2. What will I accept as evidence of student understanding and proficiency?

This stage considers the various forms of assessment that the teacher plans to use in order to understand the students' progress, i.e. 'to ensure that students are being assess over the goals the instructor wants students to attain' [1].

Evidence of desired results means evidence gathered through a variety of formal and informal assessments during a unit of study or a course. It does not exclusively include the final tests given usually at the end of the teaching process. It also refers to collected evidence sought and which may include

- traditional quizzes and tests,
- performance tasks and projects,
- observations and dialogues,
- students' self-assessments gathered over time,
- term papers,
- short-answer quizzes,
- free-response questions,
- homework assignments,
- lab projects,
- practice problems,

- group projects.

Wiggins and McTighe claim that 'this approach encourages teachers and curriculum planners to first "think like an assessor" before designing specific units and lessons, and thus to consider up front how they will determine if students have attained the desired understandings' [8, p. 18].

The third stage deals with planning learning experiences and instruction. This is the time where the teacher closely considers the most appropriate instructional activities. The key questions to be asked at this stage are:

1. What enabling knowledge (facts, concepts, principles) and skills (processes, procedures, strategies) will students need in order to perform effectively and achieve desired results?
2. What activities will equip students with the needed knowledge and skills?
3. What will need to be taught and coached, and how should it best be taught, in light of performance goals?
4. What materials and resources are best suited to accomplish these goals?

It can be noted that the decision-making process related to the teaching methods, the sequencing (of lessons/activities within a lesson, etc.), and the material used during instruction happens only after the desired ends and assessment forms have been thoroughly considered.

It is important to emphasize that Wiggins and McTighe's approach to instructional planning is not new. The novelty consists in offering a more detailed description of the steps to be taken in order to plan successfully the teaching process. In addition a template has been elaborated to facilitate the entire process (Appendix 1). Finally, special emphasis has been put on the importance of enduring understanding. Teachers should plan their instruction in suc a way so that at the end the students:

- Can explain—via generalizations or principles, providing justified and systematic accounts of phenomena, facts, and data; make insightful connections and provide illuminating examples or illustrations.
- Can interpret—tell meaningful stories; offer apt translations; provide a revealing historical or personal dimension to ideas and events; make the object of understanding personal or accessible through images, anecdotes, analogies, and models.

- Can apply—effectively use and adapt what we know in diverse and real contexts—we can “do” the subject.
- Have perspective—see and hear points of view through critical eyes and ears; see the big picture.
- Can empathize—find value in what others might find odd, alien, or implausible; perceive sensitively on the basis of prior direct experience.
- Have self-knowledge—show metacognitive awareness; perceive the personal style, prejudices, projections, and habits of mind that both shape and impede our own understanding; are aware of what we do not understand; reflect on the meaning of learning and experience [8, p. 84].

I applied backward design to planning my courses this year. 53 students attended more or less regularly my course in Discourse Analysis. I have designed the course taking into consideration the principles of backward design (Appendix 2). My strong belief is that theory does not contribute to the students’ enduring understanding. The purpose was to help student apply appropriately the knowledge to their contexts.

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

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

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

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Appendix 1

Stage 1 – Desired Results	
ESTABLISHED GOALS The enduring understandings and learning	*Transfer* *Students will be able to independently use their learning to…* Refers to how students will transfer the knowledge gained from the lesson, unit, or course and apply it outside of the context of the course.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="5">goals of the lesson, unit, or course.</td><td colspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>UNDERSTANDINGS
Students will understand that…

Refers to the big ideas and specific understandings students will have when the complete the lesson, unit, or course.</td><td>ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

Refers to the provocative questions that foster inquiry, understanding, and transfer of learning. These questions typically frame the lesson, unit, or course and are often revisited. If students attain the established goals, they should be able to answer the essential question(s).</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Acquisition</td></tr>
<tr><td>Students will know…

Refers to the key knowledge students will acquire from the lesson, unit, or course.</td><td>Students will be skilled at…

Refers to the key skills students will acquire from the lesson, unit, or course.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Stage 2 – Evidence and Assessment</td></tr>
<tr><td>Evaluative Criteria</td><td colspan="2">Assessment Evidence</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Refers to the various types of criteria that students will be evaluated on.</td><td colspan="2">PERFORMANCE TASK(S):

Refers to the authentic performance task(s) that students will complete to demonstrate the desired understandings or demonstrate they have attained the goals. The performance task(s) are typically larger assessments that coalesce various concepts and understandings like large projects or papers.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">OTHER EVIDENCE:

Refers to other types of evidence that will show if students have demonstrated achievement of the desired results. This includes quizzes, tests, homework, etc. This is also a good point to consider incorporating self-assessments and student reflections.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Stage 3 – Learning Plan</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Summary of Key Learning Events and Instruction

This stage encompasses the individual learning activities and instructional strategies that will be employed. This includes lectures, discussions, problem-solving sessions, etc.</td></tr>
</table>

(Bowen, 2017)

Appendix 2

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">Stage 1 – Desired Results</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">ESTABLISHED GOALS

Be aware of:
• different types of discourses as well as of their characteristic features;
• the complexity of human interaction.
Be able to:
• decode appropriately different types of discourses;
• create their own discourses appropriate for different contexts in the English language.</td><td colspan="2">Transfer</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Students will be able to independently use their learning to…

• construct cohesive and coherent discourses appropriate for different contexts in English;
• successfully realize their communicative intentions while communicating in English;
• understand the implied messages in communicative acts in English;
• decode the meaning of various types of discourses in English by applying the functional analysis.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>UNDERSTANDINGS
Students will understand that…

• discourse implies any stretch of connected language;
• discourse is contest bound;
• there are several functions of discourse;
• cohesion is important, yet the role of coherence is much more significant;
• indirectness is the preferred strategy in everyday interactions;
• the theory of speech acts helps decoding the intended message;
• communication failures can be avoided in communication.</td><td>ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

• What is this? [This question aims to make students determine if the presented example is a discourse or not.]
• How can you prove that this stretch of language is a discourse?
• Why cannot you say that this stretch of language is a discourse?
• What function prevails in the given example?
• What acts does the addresser perform in the given interaction?
• What made this interaction successful?
• Why did communication failure occur in this interaction?
• What would you do in order to avoid communication failure?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Acquisition</td></tr>
<tr><td>Students will know…</td><td>Students will be skilled at…</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>what discourse is;
the constituents of Roman Jacobson’s communicative situation;
in what way cohesion and coherence are realized in a discourse;
what a communication act consists of.</td><td>determining what is discourse and what type of discourse it is;
analyzing the functions of a given discourse;
identifying and creating cohesive and coherent discourse;
interpreting appropriately the intended message in a verbal interaction</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="3">Stage 2 – Evidence and Assessment</th></tr>
<tr><td>Evaluative Criteria</td><td colspan="2">Assessment Evidence</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2"></td><td colspan="2">PERFORMANCE TASK(S):
The students will be asked to perform a series of analyses of different types of authentic discourses where they will have to demonstrate the ability to identify the main features of discourse throughout the course.
The students will be asked to determine the functions of various discourses.
The students will be asked to create their own discourses.
At the end the students will asked to write a final test paper to demonstrate achievement of the desired results.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">OTHER EVIDENCE:

Other type of evidence to used:
quizzes;
tests;
observations;
dialogues;
peer-assessment;
self-assessment.</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="3">Stage 3 – Learning Plan</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Summary of Key Learning Events and Instruction
Lectures:
1. Defining discourse
2. Functional approach to discourse analysis
3. Structural approach to discourse analysis. Cohesion grammar conventions
4. Structural approach to discourse analysis. Coherence lexical conventions
5. Micro-level coherence of discourse
6. Macro-level coherence of discourse
7. Conversation as a particular type of discourse
8. Conversation analysis
Laboratory classes:</td></tr>
</table>

1.	Language in use
2.	Analysing the functions of discourse (on the example of slogans and hashtags)
3.	Proper English: Language, Culture and Curriculum
4.	Principal concerns and preoccupation in language teaching
5.	Analysis of the main cohesive devices in discourse
6.	Determining how coherence is realized in discourse
7.	Determining the factors affective human interaction
8.	Analysis of conversations

THE INNOVATIVE FEATURES OF THE NEW PRE-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM IN UKRAINE

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Abstract: The article gives a detailed description of the innovative features of the joint project of the British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science Ukraine which is called "New Generation School Teacher". The project appeared as a response to recent changes and developments in education and society. The author acquaints the readers with the definition of the terms "innovation" and "pedagogical innovation", provides a rationale for the importance of the changes in the system of teacher training in Ukraine. The article presents the results of the Baseline study. The author highlights that innovative Methodology Curriculum intends to provide students with important professional skills related to methodology, it also gives scope for developing essential life skills. A list of these skills is also given in the article (communication skills, time management skills, information literacy skills, etc.). Moreover, the article provides essential information on the innovations, which characterize the Methodology curriculum. The attention is also drawn to the fact that in this innovative Curriculum the topics of the traditional Methodology course are revised and substantially updated. The content of the discipline is complemented with innovative topics that must be taken into account in the process of learning English. All units of the Curriculum can be split into 2 main groups: Reconceptualized and New ones. There is also a detailed description of School Experience, which is an essential part of the Methodology course, because School Experience is aimed at linking methodology classes to teaching at school.

Key words: future teacher, innovation, pre-service teacher training, English, Methodology Curriculum, Methodology course, School experience, modules.

Nowadays the system of pre-service teacher training of Ukraine is characterized by numerous changes, taking place both in the sphere of primary, secondary and higher education. Moreover, thanks to Ukraine's move towards Europe and the wider world there appears the need for higher standards of English among the country's citizens. It is out of the question that English is considered a life skill and it is needed in all the spheres of everyday life of people: trade, travel, education and international relations. We are sure that any improvement would become possible only on condition that the standards of English teaching are raised at every level of the education system.

It should be said that a lot of Ukrainian and foreign scholars research the issues of future teachers' methodological training, but quite few of them pay attention to the innovative trends: the impact of a dialogue of cultures and civilizations on language learning and teaching (V. Safonova), the integration of information technology into the teacher education curriculum (N. Wentworth, R. Earle, M. Connell), innovative use of technologies in teaching languages (G. Dudeney, N. Hockly), reconceptualisation of language teacher education for the 21st century (Rod Bolitho). Despite all mentioned above, the issue of the reformation of the system of methodological training in Pre-Service language teacher education in Ukraine has not been fully covered yet.

Along with Ukraine's integration into the European educational space the pre-existing traditions in language teaching are no more relevant. English should not be taught and examined simply as a school subject, with an emphasis on knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. There is a need to see the language as a means of active communication or as a life skill. So, in March, 2013 British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine launched the joint project which is called "New Generation School Teacher".

The project team identified the urgent need to review the thematic modules of the Curriculum and bring them into a line with the challenges of the day, with a particular focus on the reform of language education in Ukraine. The need to modernize and diversify the forms and methods of the training of future teachers of English was also pointed out in the Baseline.

The results of the Baseline study allowed the project team to state that there are no common approaches to the assessment of the academic achievements of students in the Methodology course, namely: different aspects of assessment, such as the number of forms and methods; evaluation criteria; content of the summative and formative assessment; the number of points, allocated for the summative and formative assessment. The object of the assessment is mainly students' theoretical knowledge without taking into account the level of the development of their professional skills and abilities; assessment (in particular tests) is aimed at the secondary knowledge, while little attention is paid to the basic professionally-oriented methodological skills of future teachers. There are also no alternative technologies of assessment and self-assessment, such as EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) [4, p. 20].

It has to be mentioned that the teachers of English usually face problems because of poor methodological training of insufficient mastering of teaching techniques and methods. When the young teacher prepares for the lesson, he or she cannot prioritize tasks and objectives.

Before we start describing the innovative character of the Methodology Curriculum, it is important to refer to the definition of "innovation" as it is. Thus, innovation is a process of translating an idea or invention into a good service that creates value or for which customers will pay. To be called an innovation, an idea must be replicable at an economical cost and must satisfy a specific need. Innovation involves deliberate application of information, imagination and initiative in deriving greater or different values from resources, and includes all processes by which new ideas are generated and converted into useful products. In business, innovation often results when ideas are applied by the company in order to further satisfy the needs and expectations of the customers [1]. Steve Brophy states that "pedagogical innovation is a significant positive change to the way that we lead people to a place where they can learn for themselves" [5].

Innovative Methodology Curriculum intends to provide students with important professional skills related to methodology, it also gives scope for developing essential life skills.

- Communication skills. The ability to understand and articulate messages, and to transmit information clearly and effectively.
- Time management skills. The ability to plan and use time effectively in order to meet deadlines and successfully complete tasks and assignments.
- Information literacy skills. The ability to locate, evaluate and effectively use information from a variety of sources.
- Teamwork skills. The ability to work effectively and respectfully with diverse teams in order to accomplish a common goal.
- Problem solving skills. The ability to recognise and analyse difficult situations and to find suitable solutions.
- Intercultural awareness. The ability to respond open-mindedly to different ideas and values, respect and embrace social and cultural differences, and use this ability to develop new ideas and new solutions.
- Creativity. The capacity to think and act in innovative ways either alone or with others.
- Critical thinking skills. The ability to ask the right questions, to reason effectively, analyse different points of view and reflect on decisions and processes [3].

Thus, this project has appeared as a response to recent changes and developments in education and society. It has to be mentioned that there are two groups of outcomes – Learning outcomes and Action outcomes. Learning outcomes are as follows: English proficiency of student-teachers and newly-qualified teachers will be improved; their classroom skills and confidence will be enhanced; teachers' digital and social media skills will be developed. As for the Action outcomes the project team expects that newly-qualified teachers will teach more effectively and confidently; engage with colleagues; join networks and meet colleagues overseas; be able to integrate ICT in/outside the classroom.

Talking about future changes we should for sure refer to the past. According to the Baseline study the main components of the Curriculum are Language, Psychology, Methodology, Linguistics, Pedagogy and others; the focus is made on theory rather than practice; the language of instruction is usually Ukrainian; there is little or insufficient experience of teaching at school; lectures and seminars are the prevailing modes of delivery; number of hours, allocated to the course, varies from 104 to182 in different Universities; teaching practice takes place in semester 8 and lasts for 6 weeks; students receive the qualification of Philologist or Teacher of English. The most important thing is that the results of the Baseline study showed that methodology training in Bachelor's curriculum occupies only 3 % of the total, as for Master's curriculum it is 5 % [2].

The Methodology curriculum is characterized by a number of innovations, such as:

- Balance of theory and practice
- Updated and new content (establishing a proper relationship between the content of this discipline and pedagogical practice)
- Qualitively new approach to conducting classroom sessions and organizing self-study hours
- Delivery in English
- Variety of approaches to learning and teaching
- Continuous assessment throughout the Curriculum
- Carefully phased school experience
- New format of the course paper.

The Methodology Curriculum is a three-year course with allocated total number of hours of 600. It presupposes interactive modes of learning and teaching; provides teaching practice throughout the Methodology course; promotes the relationship of Methodology and EFL Curricula.

The Methodology course is an integrated one; it is flexible, dynamic and purposeful. The Curriculum is based on an integrated approach to Pre-Service language teacher education, which promotes the development of cognitive-emotional learning and teaching skills.

Each module of the Curriculum consists of several units. It is important to mention that in this innovative Curriculum the topics of the traditional Methodology course are revised and substantially updated. Moreover, the content of the discipline is complemented with innovative topics that must be taken into account in the process of learning English. All units of the Curriculum can be split into 2 main groups: Reconceptualized and New ones (see table 1.).

Table 1.

Modules of the Methodology Curriculum

Reconceptualised	**Innovative**
Principles of CLT	Second Language Acquisition
Teaching Listening	Developing Learner Autonomy

Teaching Reading	Working with Materials
Teaching Writing	Error Analysis and Dealing with Errors
Planning Teaching	Catering for SEN
Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary in Context	Classroom Action Research
Psychological Factors in Language Learning	Planning for CPD
Teaching Young Learners	
Assessment	
Developing Intercultural Competence	
Classroom Management	
ICT in Learning and Teaching	

It goes without saying that School Experience is an essential part of the Methodology course. In the innovative Curriculum School Experience is aimed at linking methodology classes to teaching at school. It includes three stages: Guided Observation (Year 2), Teacher Assistantship (Years 3-4) and Observed Teaching (Year 4). At each of these stages, there are strong links (through tasks) of the Methodology classes to school experience.

The piloting of the Methodology Curriculum started in September 2016. It is supported by the Decree of Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine № 871 (12.08.2015) "On the pedagogical experiment of methodological training of future teachers of English" [4]. The piloting of the Methodology curriculum will go on till the year of 2020.

One of the most important features of the first year of piloting was the continuing monitoring. It has to be mentioned that all the universities, participating in the project, exchanged monitoring visits. The agenda of the visits included Methodology class observation, meetings with the University authorities and teachers-educators, interviews with the students. Bohdan Khmelnitskiy Melitopol State Pedagogical University was visited by members of the project team – representatives of H.S. Skovoroda Kharkiv National Pedagogical University.

Both teachers and students, who take part in the piloting, are satisfied with the results. Here are some of the students' voices: "I find Methodology classes very beneficial, because I have enriched my vocabulary in a very short period of time. I have become aware of different techniques and strategies and I have begun to use them in my studying process. This subject is marvelous, because learning languages is my hobby" (Pavlovskiy Andriy); "To my mind, all the topics of our core curriculum are relevant to us as future teachers. Most of all I enjoyed learning about developing learner autonomy. I borrowed some bright ideas how to improve my skills at home" (Melnitska Alyona); "This course is very useful for us not only as for future teachers, but also future parents. We learn such essential things as psychology of pupils, different approaches, methods and techniques of learning a target language, which will help us to teach our future pupils and our own children" (Yatskova Diana); "At first I understood nothing…all that terminology drove me crazy…but step by step I realized that everything that teachers should do has to be done for the learners' benefits. Frankly speaking Methodology course is my favorite University course now" (Sekirova Anastasia).

The new Methodology Curriculum represents a significant change in the way English teachers are educated. Introducing this kind of change requires time and patience. There will be challenges, objections and setbacks during the process, and there are sure to be people within the universities who will be skeptical about the changes that are needed. The project team is ready for this. It is a necessary feature of any reform. It is best dealt with by good communication, regular consultations with all interest groups so that all voices are heard and understood. But the fact that more and more students and teachers, schools and decision-makers are involved in this process makes the project team sure that Pre-Service language teacher education will lead Ukraine into the European educational space.

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DEVELOPING PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE WITH ENGLISH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

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Abstract: The paper focuses on the importance of pragmatic competence acquisition in the EFL classroom and on the great role the textbook plays in this process. It provides the results of an analysis of five English textbooks used in the schools of Moldova in the first five years of pupils’ studying English. The results show that all the textbooks contain some implicit and explicit pragmatic information, which, however, is not equally distributed. Special attention was paid to the treatment of speech acts in the textbooks. The results show that the success of pragmatic competence development depends on several factors revealed in the paper.

Keywords: pragmatic competence, pragmatic information, speech acts, metalanguage, pronominal reference, politeness, communication failure.

Since the adoption of the communicative approach, the aim of foreign language teaching in our schools has been to prepare students for communication, i.e. more attention has been paid to developing students’ abilities to understand and produce language in conformity with the situations of speech. In spite of this, teachers continued to focus on developing students’ linguistic competence, one of the reasons in Moldova being the structure and content of the Bacalaureate exam that students pass after twelve years of school education. It is an important exam which, however, excludes the possibility to assess students’ ability to communicate and does not measure the students’ pragmatic competence. This has led to the underestimation of the necessity to teach language in use. Meanwhile linguists have focused on the importance of pragmatic knowledge in becoming proficient in a foreign language finding that often very good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary does not mean that learners become proficient speakers. They emphasize the necessity of teaching pragmatics to develop students' pragmatic competence because lack of this competence is often the reason why communication fails. The authors of numerous recent works (Blum-Kulka, Kasper, Leech, Ogiermann, Vellinga, etc) devoted to developing pragmatic competence in EFL, have opposed the traditional approach towards foreign language teaching that ignores the necessity to teach learners how to use the language and to develop their pragmatic competence by highlighting the crucial role of the latter in successful foreign language acquisition. More and more linguists have emphasized the great importance of pragmatics in language teaching and the urgent necessity to build learners' pragmatic competence.

According to G. Kasper [9], pragmatics means investigation of how speakers use a language and how their use affects their interlocutors. In D. Crystal's opinion "Pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others" [6, p.120-121]. The Common European Framework views the pragmatic competence as a constituent of the communicative competence alongside the linguistic and sociolinguistic ones. These definitions prompt that traditional approaches to teaching languages failed to allow teachers to instruct learners how to use language.

Pragmatic competence is thought to comprise different abilities in the use of language in context. Brock and Nagasaka point out that these abilities "include the speaker's ability to use language for different purposes (such as greeting, requesting, informing, demanding and so on), the speaker's ability to adapt or change language according to the needs or expectations of the listener or situation, and the speaker's ability to follow accepted rules, the maxims…for conversation and narrative" [5, p.19].

Thus the tradition of teaching foreign languages has made an important step forward. The change was made by specialists in pragmatics who revealed the drawbacks in the domain and highlighted the tasks in the modern theory of teaching foreign languages. In order to get learners communicate successfully in a foreign language, their pragmatic competence must be well developed and this is stressful for teachers as they have to accomplish very serious tasks. They realize that it is their responsibility to get students ready for successful communication. In spite of this, most of their attention is continuously directed to developing students' linguistic competence and very often they consider grammatical errors more serious than pragmatic ones. It is worth mentioning here that native speakers of English are usually very tolerant to foreigners' grammatical mistakes, while pragmatic errors that lead to communication failures are considered more upsetting [13, p.97].

To be able to succeed our teachers should themselves get some training in how to develop their students' pragmatic competence. Given the situation in Moldova, this really is very difficult as pragmatics does not yet play a central role in teacher training and the number of teachers who have ever stayed in an English speaking country is astonishingly small. Eva Ogiermann writes that "it is necessary to extend the amount of time that future teachers of English are required to spend in the target culture" [12, p. 12]. This means that teachers and students in Germany do spend some time there. Unfortunately, we have to admit that neither our students who are being trained to become teachers of English, nor working teachers have any possibility to do this. Thus, in order to succeed, teachers should get some instruction by self-learning using whatever is possible to use. Here we should also consider the fact that our National Curriculum does not pay enough attention to pragmatic issues and this leaves teachers to work on it independently.

What often happens at the English lessons in many of our schools and in universities is transmission of information, learning to get informed, literal interpretation and translation and transferring pragmatic features from learners' native language to the foreign one and often the main criterion of assessing students' knowledge is still grammar. Considering the conditions under which foreign languages are taught and learned, we understand that the textbook should play an immense role in providing pragmatic information and thus help teachers do their job. This, however, does not often happen. As Bardovi-Harlig [1, p.24] points out, most course books "fail short of providing realistic input for learners". Heidi Vellinga has analysed eight textbooks written by native speakers including such world famous textbooks as Headway Upper Intermediate, Oxford, Interchange 2, Cambridge, Passages 1, Cambridge and Voyages 2, Prentice Hall Regents. As a result, she points out that "the amount of pragmatic information is small across all texts" and even when it is included, it is frequently limited in the range of options for expression presented to students”. That is why she concludes that “learning pragmatics from textbooks is highly unlikely” [14, p.13].

This does not mean, however, that there is nothing left for us to improve the situation by creating the necessary conditions for the development of learners’ pragmatic competence. There is no doubt that the textbook remains a very important tool and together with various additional materials the teacher brings to the classroom and the techniques he or she uses, it may contribute to developing pragmatic competence. As no investigation based on textbooks from the point of view of pragmatic competence has ever been done in Moldova, I decided to analyse some of them and see how much implicit and explicit pragmatic information they contain. If we look more carefully through the English textbooks that are being used in Moldovan schools, we can easily see that they do not provide enough pragmatic input. My intention was to state how much information on pragmatics, if any, is contained in our school textbooks, how speech acts are treated and how many of them are found in the textbooks and how they teach politeness, this very important aspect of linguistic pragmatics. As this is the first attempt to analyse English textbooks from the point of view of the quantity and quality of pragmatic information contained in them, I selected those which are being used in our schools throughout the country in the II – VI forms. They are *Magic English*, by Iu.Ignatiuc, L.Aladina, L.Foca, D.Puiu, A.Muntean, for forms II, III and IV, published by Arc Publishing House and *English for You*, by the same authors, for forms V and VI, published by Prut Publishing House. The choice of these textbooks is justified by the necessity to start developing pragmatic competence at the earliest levels. I aimed at analyzing the pragmatic information that is found in the textbooks for developing pupils’ pragmatic competence. Pragmatic information means the information about culture, politeness, speech acts and metalanguage used to formulate the tasks and explain the grammatical and usage points [14, p.4]. Attention was also paid to the use of personal pronouns in the texts of tasks as this is an important but unexplored area of textbook analysis [3, p.199] though these pronouns produce a positive effect on learners of English making the tasks sound friendly.

From the first sight it is easy to notice that most tasks in all five English textbooks are formulated using imperative sentences. However, there are numerous cases when tasks include pronominal reference, for example: Draw a picture of your room (ME, II, p.71), Say what you and your friends are doing now (ME II, p.75), Read and say where you were in your dream (ME III, p.75), How many of these words do you recognize? (ME IV, p. 64), Make a list of things you share with your friends (ME IV, p.35) Say if you would like to have such a friend (E for You V, p.8), Check if you can remember what Tim tells you (E for You, VI, p. 85), Go to a local post office and learn what you can do there (E for you, VI, p. 87). Such tasks sound friendlier. The use of pronouns in titles of lessons is advantageous too as pupils feel involved from the very beginning of the lesson, for example: Do You Play Tennis? (ME II, p.62), What Do You Do on Sunday? (ME II, p.66), I Am Playing (ME II, p. 74), I Am Your Friend (ME III, p.8), What's Your Address? (ME III, p.38), We Wish You a Merry Christmas (ME III, p.50), All about Me (ME III, p. 52), My School (ME IV, p.20), What's Your Favourite Subject? (ME IV, p.24), What Do They Do? (ME IV, p.26), Are You Ready for Fun (ME IV, p.92), Books in My Life (E for You V, p.60), I Have Done It (E for You V, p.78), At My Grandparents' (E for You VI, p. 16), Shall We Go Shopping? (E for You VI, p.70). Examples of this type are numerous, especially in the text books for the primary school. Due to the presence of such task formulations, pupils implicitly learn that directives are not expressed only by imperative sentences. This is important because the use of only imperative sentences in task formulations may convey "…undesired illocutionary force through unintentional language choices" [7, p.40]. There may be a greater variety of task formulations in the analysed textbooks. For example, using modal verbs would make the tasks sound more softly and politely and the authors of the textbooks under study have used, though not very often, modals in task formulations: Granny cannot find her glasses to read Angela's letter. Can you help her read it? (ME III, p.81), Look at the picture, name the things and say where you can buy them (ME IV, p.64), In groups discuss what people should do to help nature survive. The following words and word combinations may help you. (E for You VI, p.29). A lot of other tasks could be reformulated using modal verbs. Thus the task to exercise 8, p.91 in Magic English IV Choose the right word and copy the sentences could be replaced by If you can choose the right word you will make correct sentences; instead of Say where the children are and what they are doing in Magic English III, p.90, we could say Can you guess where the children are and what they are doing there? In the same textbook at p. 97, the task Correct the mistakes could be replaced by Can you correct the mistakes? How many words can you find? would undoubtedly sound better than Find the words in Magic English II, p.97. To soften the tasks to exercises and to avoid making them sound like orders or commands, the word please could be used too, though this is not usual. Formulating lesson and text titles and tasks in textbooks is a very serious question, too and it deserves a separate investigation from the point of view of pragmatic consequences.

During the analysis of textbooks, attention was also paid to what information about socio-cultural rules they contain as this kind of information contributes to developing pragmatic competence by teaching pupils important things about correct use of language. The analysis shows that the textbooks provide some information of this kind, but this is limited and there is no focus on the importance of culture for correct use of language. This is partly because the National Curriculum ignores the role of culture in teaching and learning foreign languages. In *Magic English II* and III this information is represented by rhymes, songs and poems. In *Magic English IV* the rubric *Do you know that*…offers more information about Great Britain and its people. There are also several activities that teach pupils how to use English: *Read the invitation and answer the questions, Draw and write an invitation, Read Val's letter and*…. In *English for You V* and *VI*, the rubric *Do you know that*… appears very seldom, three times in form V and four times in form VI. Teachers are expected to decide how to teach this material so as to make it possible to improve pupils' ability to use English. This, however, does not happen. Teachers admit that usually they simply read and translate the texts, but often omit them, depriving the pupils of the possibility to learn something new about English.

What follows is an analysis of the speech acts that the analysed English textbooks contain. Though the textbooks are centered on developing linguistic competence, various speech acts are found in all of them. We cannot, however, speak about a systemic presentation of speech acts in the textbooks. Magic English II pays more attention to teaching speech acts. Thus already in Lesson I of the introductory part, the characters greet each other, introduce themselves and say Goodbye using various strategies. They do it using dialogues which constitute an important way of including pragmatic information. These speech acts cover the material of the first five lessons, but they are repeatedly practiced later. They are followed by some imperative directives

(Listen and do. Read and write) which do not make it clear whether they express orders or requests, but this seems to be right at this level when the formulas are used for the first time. Similar directives are found in other lessons too. The use of please would make it clear that the imperative sentence is a request. Other forms could be used too, for example: *Will you…? Can/Could you…?* This will teach pupils from the very beginning that they may choose one variant out of more. Later they will learn that these variants are not always interchangeable. In other three lessons (p. 58, 73, 87), pupils learn how to apologize and how to respond to an apology.

Magic English II teaches greetings, making introductions, leave taking, orders, requests and responses to them and apologies and responses. While the first three speech acts are repeatedly used throughout the textbook, the others are sporadically used and not regularly repeated. Pupils continue to practise greetings, making introductions and leave taking with *Magic English III*. Besides they learn how to make suggestions and refuse them with this textbook. Thus in exercise 5, p.21, pupils are asked to play shopping, asking for things, offering them and thanking. In exercise 1, p. 26, there is a similar dialogue between a grandmother and her grandson in which pupils learn how to make offers (Tea, grandma? Cheese, Tim?), ask for things and give them (Pass me the sugar, please. Here you are.), refuse them (No, thank you, I'll have some biscuits.) and thank each other. In exercise 6, p.45, pupils learn to make suggestions using Let's… and how to refuse them offering an explanation:

-*Let's go out and ski.*

-*Sorry, I can't. I don't have skis.*

The dialogue on p. 60 teaches pupils how to make congratulations and respond to them. Exercise 5, p.93 allows pupils to practise offers using will: *It's cold. I will close the window; Go and have a rest. I will wash the dishes.* The textbook also teaches pupils how to disagree though they have not learnt how to agree to people yet. The textbook only occasionally provides models when introducing speech acts. Pupils are shown how to express disagreement only once in *Magic English III,* in exercise 6, p. 93: A. *Dan will go to Chișinău*.

B. *I'm afraid you are wrong. He will go to the country*.

In this exercise, pupils are expected to provide negative sentences in the simple future. *You are wrong* and *It's wrong* are usually used to teach pupils form negative sentences. They are, however, considered inappropriate and rude. Eva Ogiermann thinks that this formula creates "the impression that it is an appropriate way of expressing disagreement in English" [12, p.5]. The use of *I'm afraid* in the example in the textbook helps the speaker sound more polite when disagreeing. There are no examples with *That's wrong* which is good because, though such exercises help pupils distinguish true and false statements (there are numerous exercises of this type), it is not desirable to repeat them for the reason mentioned above. In an earlier exercise on p.73, pupils are asked to disagree with Ruddy Fox, but the given example does not sound very polite even though *You are wrong* is not used. An introductory sentence (I think. I suppose, I'm afraid) would make it sound better. In *Magic English IV*, pupils continue to practice requests using 'could'. In exercise 8, p.9, pupils are told explicitly to make suggestions using 'Shall…' . There are various exercises on the speech acts of greetings and responses, invitations and accepting or refusing them, congratulations and responses and thanking.

While *Magic English II*, *III* and IV contain some important information that allows pupils to learn how to perform different speech acts, *English for You V* and *VI* make use of more narrative texts and the number of dialogues is decreasing. This is due to pupils' richer vocabulary and better grammar knowledge. Pragmatic information in textbooks often decreases at higher levels when the learners are more proficient. *English for You V* and *VI* are based on various topics. The Word Bank in each lesson and Do you know these words? in the Reading Together section are limited only to the new words. They could, however, be more effective if they contained different formulae expressing speech acts and this would greatly contribute to successful communication in the classroom and to the development of pragmatic competence. In *English for You V* and *VI*, pupils continue to practise greetings and responses to them, agreeing and disagreeing, requests and responses, suggestions, apologies, thanks and offers. They also learn to give advice. It is worth mentioning that in the last two textbooks more attention is paid to teaching more complicated grammar and vocabulary. The few speech acts that the textbooks contain are not used systematically and frequently enough although "pragmatic knowledge needs to be built up incrementally and continuously" [12, p.9].

To conclude it is necessary to point out that the analysis of the five English textbooks used in the Republic of Moldova in the primary school and in the first two years of the gymnasium clearly shows that they contain a certain amount of implicit and explicit pragmatic information. However, this information is not systematically presented and frequently practised. The textbooks teach twenty-one speech acts, but not all of them frequently enough. Such important speech acts as compliments, regrets, and complaints have not even been mentioned. This might be explained by the fact that at the age of 8-12, children seldom make compliments. As for complaints, according to latest empirical studies, they are very seldom used in conversation. Regrets, however, have to be taught at this level as pupils should know how to express them sounding very polite. On the whole, the analysis shows that it is necessary to improve the textbooks from the point of view of the pragmatic aspect and thus raise their role in the development of pragmatic competence.

It is desirable that textbooks help pupils become aware of the pragmatic differences between the native and the foreign languages. This is necessary because often pupils possess good vocabulary and knowledge of important grammatical structures but are not able to use them and they express speech acts using translations from their native language which means they transfer pragmatic features from the mother tongue to English.

It seems clear enough that the quality of the textbooks can be improved only if: a) the National Curriculum emphasizes the importance of the pragmatic aspect in teaching foreign languages; b) the authors of textbooks focus not only on developing pupils' linguistic competence but also the pragmatic one; c) the teachers are well aware of what pragmatics is and of how the pragmatic competence should be developed.

Teachers' responsibility is great as they should become competent in the domain in order to succeed in teaching their pupils how to use English in practice. This requires a lot of independent work that is not a problem nowadays when we have numerous internet resource materials at our disposal. Universities could help a lot by organizing special courses for teachers.

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МИНИ-ЛЕКЦИЯ КАК ИННОВАЦИОННЫЙ МЕТОД ИЗЛОЖЕНИЯ ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКОГО МАТЕРИАЛА В ПРЕПОДАВАНИИ ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ

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Abstract: The modernization of the educational system reveals new challenges and opportunities in the process of teaching foreign languages at the university, setting new requirements for a modern teacher prone to constant updating and professional learning. Mini-lectures are an innovative method of organizing the learning process in general and of presenting the theoretical material in private. This article examines the relevance and essence of mini-lectures; it focuses on how they are worked out and implemented as a means of creative self-realization of the future philologists providing the grounds for their personal development.

Keywords: interactive technologies, innovative methods, teaching and training, mini-lecture, presenting theoretical material

В условиях современного высшего образования Республики Молдова, ориентированного на расширение функции иностранного языка как средства межнационального общения, наряду с традиционными технологиями в подготовке кадров необходимо внедрять новые интерактивные технологии, нацеленные на более глубокое интеллектуальное мотивирование, на развитие активной самостоятельной позиции студента как субъекта учебной деятельности.

Одним из эффективных инновационных методов организации процесса обучения иностранным языкам в целом и изложения теоретического материала в частном, является в последнее время мини-лекция.

О.Б.Ковалева и О.А. Гребенькова понимают под мини-лекцией метод повествовательного изложения информации для подачи преподавателем нового логически завершенного объема материала [2, с.210].

Согласно Г.Ф. Приваловой, мини-лекция является одной из эффективных форм преподнесения теоретического материала, излагаемого на доступном для студентов языке, при этом каждому термину обязательно дается определение со ссылкой на авторитетных авторов и источники. По окончании выступления происходит обсуждение возникших вопросов, а также способов использования полученной информации на практике [5, с.6].

Исследователи И.М. Кунгурова, Е.В. Воронина, С.Г. Долженко и др. определяют мини-лекции как короткие информационные модули, в которых в сжатой форме преподавателем излагаются теоретические положения рассматриваемой проблемы. Суть мини-лекций заключается в делении традиционной лекции на мини-лекции с целью увеличения объема усваиваемой информации [3, с.62].

Введение в учебный процесс мини-лекций способствует, согласно исследованиям Д.М.Махметовой, Е.И. Луговской и др., более активному развитию межъязыкового общения, развитию речевых навыков, приспособленных к будущей профессиональной деятельности студентов, повышая кроме того заинтересованность иностранным языком, без которого невозможно гармонично войти и осуществлять профессиональную деятельность так, как это требует наше время [4, с.142].

Технология использования мини-лекций на лекционных занятиях отличается от практических занятий, на которых мини-лекция позволяет, как актуализировать отработку обучающимися иллюстрируемых положений (из теории – в практику), так и резюмировать проведенное взаимодействие в группе (из практики – в теорию) [3, с.62].

Многие модернизированные вузовские учебные программы описывают наряду с традиционными формами проведения занятий интерактивные формы, в том числе и мини-лекции:

Лекционные занятия проводятся в форме интерактивных лекций, лекций-бесед, мини-лекций/докладов и самостоятельных презентаций студентов по заданным темам и проблемам курса. Семинарские занятия проводятся с использованием таких форм обучения как:

- обсуждения, дискуссии и круглые столы;
- парные/ индивидуальные/групповые проекты;
- проведение микро уроков с последующим анализом проведенных фрагментов урока по заданным шкалам оценивания [6, с.4].

Из опыта двухгодичного курса / семинара «Методология и методика преподавания учебных дисциплин на иностранных языках»:

«Тематика мини-лекций в процессе обучения определяется тематикой материалов, изучаемых слушателями семинара на данном этапе обучения, и преподавателем иностранного языка. Завершив презентацию, слушатель-лектор должен проверить степень усвоения представленной им информации группой слушателей-коллег с помощью вопросов, специальных заданий по проверке понимания прослушанного и решения мыслительных задач. Члены группы задают вопросы автору презентации, оценивают данную презентацию и высказывают предложения по ее улучшению. Завершает учебную презентацию ее аргументированная оценка преподавателем иностранного языка. Наряду с конкретными вопросами по содержанию лекции, ее автор готовит соответствующие слайды, графики, таблицы и диаграммы на иностранном языке, позволяющие также проверить понимание предложенной в лекции информации и, кроме того, привлечь к беседе присутствующих в аудитории, выслушать их неподготовленные высказывания (развивая навыки и умения в аудировании) и получить возможность тренировки, направленной на выработку умений оценить эти иноязычные высказывания и прореагировать на них (развивая навыки и умения в говорении)» [1, с.163-164].

Современные ученые-методисты выделяют вступительную, основную и заключительную части изложения теоретического материала (О.Б. Ковалева, О.А. Гребенькова, И.М. Кунгурова, Ю.В. Рындина и др.).

Вступительная часть охватывает интеллектуальное мотивирование студентов с целью настроить и подготовить их к восприятию темы посредством цитаты, вопроса к аудитории, которые должны «зацепить» внимание аудитории. Авторы считают, что мозговой штурм или ролевая игра, связанные с предстоящей темой, помогут актуализировать фоновые знания студентов, выяснить степень их информированности и отношение к теме [3, с.63].

В главной части, включающей 4 структурных элемента, излагается основной материал, доносится именно та мысль, которая была заявлена как тема:

- Описание - описывается принцип действия, структура, алгоритм, создается полный и ясный образ без противоречий.
- Доказательство – приводятся факты, статистика, описание прецедента, ссылки на авторитетные источники в данной области, обращение к опыту участников.
- Опровержение – метод от обратного, доказательство от обратного, смена рамки, рефрейминг.
- Воззвание – шанс попробовать себя в роли мотивационного спикера.

Материал излагается на доступном для студентов языке по принципу от «общего к частному», каждому термину дается определение, подводится итог изложенному теоретическому материалу.

Заключение преподносится по принципу эффекта края, предложенного немецким психологом Г. Эббингаузом, согласно которому запоминается начало и конец выступления. Таким образом, необходимо сделать красивое заключение, вывод, а также обсудить все возникшие у студентов вопросы, возможности использования полученной информации на практике [3, с.64].

Наш опыт чтения лекций и проведения практических занятий по дисциплине «Дидактика немецкого языка» показал следующее:

- достаточно удобно и эффективно разбить темы традиционных лекций на 2-3 подтемы (модули), которые и будут представлять собой темы мини-лекций, включающие ряд объединенных по смыслу вопросов;
- после каждой проведенной мини-лекции целесообразно проводить паузы для проверки понимания изложенного материала посредством выполнения индивидуальных или групповых заданий к лекционному материалу, а также для формулировки основной мысли лекции, что способствуют более глубокому усвоению теоретического материала;
- относительно небольшой объем изложенного теоретического материала в ходе мини-лекции и его переработка во время пауз позволяют студентам качественнее сопоставлять, противопоставлять, анализировать и осознавать изучаемую тему и быть более подготовленными к семинарам и практическим занятиям;

- *введение* в мини-лекцию при помощи цитаты, тематического вопроса, интересного факта, а также *заключение*, в ходе которого обсуждаются выполненные задания во время пауз и вопросы, возникшие у студентов в процессе их выполнения, подводятся итоги работы, являются индикаторами профессионального становления студентов;
- использование иллюстративного материала (схем, таблиц и др.), аудио- и видеоматериалов, фактов, ссылок на авторитетные источники, различных и/или противоречивых точек зрения с сопровождающими мыслительными заданиями усиливают интерес студентов к изучаемой теме и вносят динамику в лекционный курс, разбитый на мини-лекции;
- мини-лекции вырабатывают у студентов готовность и потребность совершенствовать свое профессиональное мастерство и успешно применять приобретенные компетенции на практике;
- использование мини-лекции не умаляет значение и ценность традиционной лекции, но комбинированное использование традиционных лекций наряду с мини-лекциями значительно обогащают учебный процесс.

Модель использования мини-лекции на примере теоретического курса «Дидактика немецкого языка»:

Тема лекции: Wortschatzarbeit im DaF-Unterricht

Подтема 1: Die Bedeutung lexikalischer Kenntnisse für den DaF-Unterricht.

- *Sammeln Sie Ihre Ideen zur Aussage: Wortschatzarbeit gelingt, wenn* …….. . Die vorgeschlagenen Ideen besprechen und auswerten.
- Die Hauptaufgaben des DaF-Unterrichts, die Bedeutung des produktiven und des rezeptiven Wortschatzes für die sprachausübende Tätigkeit, produktive und rezeptive lexikalische Fertigkeiten einführen.
- Die im Voraus vorbereiteten Fragen zu jedem Teilaspekt beantworten.
- Eine Zusammenfassung unter der Leitung des Lehrers machen.

Подтема 2: Hauptprinzipien der Wortschatzvermittlung.

- Etappen der Wortschatzarbeit in die richtige Reihenfolge bringen und die Anordnung begründen. Alternative Varianten vorschlagen und sie an Beispielen belegen.

- Das Prinzip des kontextualisierten und vernetzten Lernens (semantische, grammatische und thematisch-situative Gesichtspunkte) einführen. Die Studenten auffordern, Beispiele zu jedem der Gesichtspunkte bilden (Gruppenarbeit oder Partnerarbeit).
- Richtig-Falsch-Aufgaben zu Hauptprinzipien der Wortschatzvermittlung als Zusammenfassung erfüllen.

Подтема 3: Verfahren der Wortschatzvermittlung bzw. – erarbeitung und Übungstypologie.

- Die Studenten sollen Kernideen zum Vorlesungsstoff bestimmen und unterstreichen.
- Verfahren der Bedeutungsvermittlung einführen und am Anschauungsmaterial erläutern.
- Vermutungen zur Frage anstellen: *Welche Bedeutungsvermittlungsverfahren sind Ihrer Meinung nach effektiver? Verbale oder nonverbale? Einsprachige oder zweisprachige? Begründen Sie Ihre Vermutung*.
- Die Studenten werden gebeten, je 2 Übungen zur Wortschatzeinführung, -erarbeitung und – festigung zu erstellen.
- Die Studenten sollen im Internet recherchieren und Übungsbeispiele zur folgenden Übungstypologie zur systematischen Wortschatzarbeit finden:

✓ Erkennungsübungen – Bei diesen Übungstypen müssen die neuen lexikalischen Einheiten in einem Text identifiziert werden (Suchaufgaben nach Synonymen, Antonymen, Internationalismen);
✓ Erschlieβungsübungen – Die Bedeutung der Vokabeln wird mit Hilfe von verschiedenen Verfahren erschlossen (z.B.: Obstmesser);
✓ Differenzierungsübungen – Die Bedeutung des neuen Wortes wird von einem anderen unterschieden;
✓ Ordnungs- und Zuordnungsübungen;
✓ Bezeichnungs- (Benennungs)übungen;
✓ Erklärungs- (Definitions)übungen;
✓ Substitutionsübungen – Ein sprachliches Mittel wird durch ein anderes ersetzt (Wo ist das Brot? In der Küche Natürlich! Wo ist die Zahnpasta? …. usw.
✓ Komplementationsübungen – z.B. Lückentexte;
✓ Expansionsübungen – Sprachliche Einheiten werden erweitert;

- ✓ Komprimierungsübungen – Sprachliche Einheiten werden verdichtet (Umkehrung von Expansionsübungen) z.B.: Notieren Sie das Wesentliche zum Text!
- ✓ Transformationsübungen – Sprachliche Einheiten werden von einer Form in eine andere überführt (z.B.: *Durch den Einsatz der Technik* ist unser Lebensstandard gestiegen/ *weil/indem*).
- Methodische Aufbereitung zum Märchen „Schlaraffenland“ von Ludwig Bechstein besprechen.
- Eigenes Unterrichtsfragment zur Wortschatzeinführung, -erarbeitung und –festigung vorbereiten und präsentieren.

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MODES OF LEARNING AND TEACHING IN METHODOLOGY SESSION

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Abstract: The author of the article presents the results of Baseline study within the joint project of British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine "New Generation School Teacher" as well as the results of this project implementation. The project is described as the one to introduce change to the initial teacher education system in Ukraine. The shared information is on the modes of learning and teaching used in the course of Methodology of English Language Teaching which has been piloted since September, 2016 in 10 Ukrainian universities. The sessions within the experimental course contain a great variety of modes of learning and teaching. This course comprises the best examples of teaching as Methodology is the main course in future teacher's education. The new Curriculum is shown as the one which focuses on developing the professional skills of teaching through student active participation in the methodology course. The author describes the following range of modes for students' being engaged in active learning: group work, guided reading, jigsaw learning, microteaching, project work, task-based learning and workshop. The sessions of the Methodology course are based on the principles of Bloom's Taxonomy and according to Kolb's experiential cycle. They are held in English. There are always good opportunities for the development of students' life skills. Within working in groups of changeable composition, future teachers learn to act collaboratively, to be responsible for the group's decisions, to be tolerant, to be convincing. Their critical thinking is promoted as well. Student-centred Methodology sessions help students to become able of holding student-centred English classes in their future professional life. In the article there is a detailed description of one Methodology session comprising various modes of students' learning. Besides, the author explains that the course of Methodology is closely connected with the practical aspects of learning and teaching at schools where students have their school practice.

Keywords: project "New Generation School Teacher", Methodology of English Language Teaching, teacher education, modes of learning and teaching, student active participation, active learning.

Modern educational system is an extremely various structure in both diachronic and synchronic relations. It comprises centuries-long traditions and up-to-date requirements and challenges. It is influenced by lots of factors as well as it plays a great role in the development of any nation. Thus, the system of education has a crucial significance in the society and proves that the teacher is a key person in its creation and its bringing into action.

All this emphasizes the importance of a pedagogical university in the well-being of a nation. Teachers are those who usually spend more time with children than those children's parents. Teachers show the way to the knowledge and skills applied by their students in life. Teachers' words, attitudes, behaviors remain in their students' minds and very often lead them as a lighthouse.

Education of future teachers of English contains a lot of challenges as they are to teach English by means of English which is in our countries a non-native language. But it is well-known that learning a foreign language is a secondary socialization and its final destination is learning to think in this language.

Analysis of the system of professional education of a future teacher of English shows that it has been rather theoretical and required some special adaptation of a newly-qualified teacher to the professional sphere [3, p. 1267]. But modern secondary school needs an active, flexible, decisive teacher who ether knows foreign language well and can teach it effectively. We should not forget about new tendency to student-centered educational process, so the teacher must be ready to organize students' learning rather than his or her teaching.

One of the most professionally oriented subjects in higher educational system for future teacher of English is surely Methodology of English Language Teaching. In Ukrainian universities this subject was studied by students during a semester or two. All stakeholders were not satisfied with the newly-qualified teacher of English. So, in 2013 the British Council Ukraine triggered the idea of developing the new practically-oriented and effective curriculum in "Methodology of English Language Teaching". Thanks to the British Council and its joint with the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine project "New Generation School Teacher" there are deep changes in future English language teachers' education in 10 Ukrainian universities since September, 2016. It was introduced in response to recent changes and developments in education and society:

- new secondary standards and curricula
- foreign language learning at secondary schools from year one and second foreign language learning from year two
- new law on higher education
- public interest in raising the quality of foreign language teacher education
- the need of pedagogical institutions for quality curricula, assessment, content and procedures [1, p. 7].

The overall aim of the project is to introduce change to the initial teacher education system in Ukraine.

The course has very few similarities with outdated Methodology taught in universities for many years. The rationale and all normative documents as for this course can be found in the site of the project on the link: http://ngschoolteacher.wixsite.com/ngscht. In rationale it is stated that Methodology should provide a bridge between principles and practice. In this programme it is concerned with the application of knowledge in real situations rather than about knowledge itself.

One of the peculiarities of the experimental course is a great variety of modes of learning and teaching. As Methodology is the main course in future teacher's education, it should comprise the best examples of teaching. So, in communicative English classroom the teacher must use all possible ways of interaction justified by the aim and objectives of the course. Jo McDonough, Christopher Shaw, and Hitomi Masuhara pointed that "the choice of group or pairwork and how we conduct the grouping should be based on sound principles, and the use of grouping should lead to developing real communicative competence" [4, p. 229].

It is now widely recognised that lecturing is not an efficient way of delivering content on a practical course. Accordingly, we recommend a range of teaching approaches in the new curriculum, including task-based learning, the use of case studies, simulations, group projects and problem solving. All of these approaches are intended to promote high levels of interaction and student involvement in their own learning process.

The new Curriculum focuses on developing the professional skills of teaching through student active participation in the methodology course. Students can be engaged in active learning by using a range of modes:

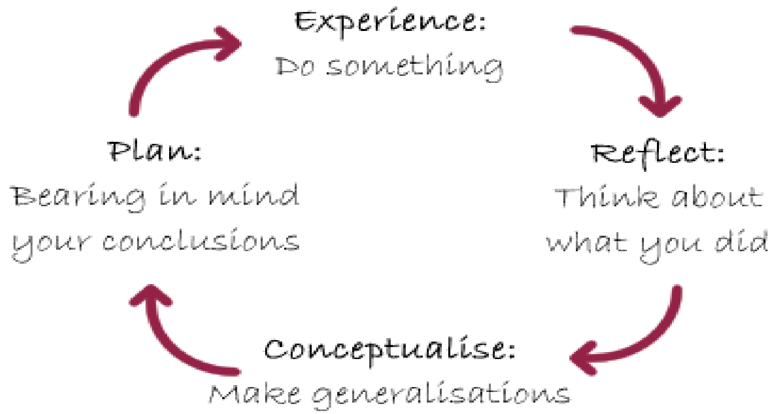
- group work – any learning activity which is done by small groups of learners working together to complete a task;
- guided reading – an activity in which students are encouraged to read specific articles or sections of books with a particular purpose in mind;
- jigsaw learning – a method of organising activity in which different students cover different areas of a topic; they later exchange their learning;
- microteaching – a practice used in the training of teachers which consists of trying out short lesson sequences for an audience of their peers, some of whom adopt the roles of learners;
- project work – a purposeful, task-based activity through which students address authentic problems / questions and create some kind of product which they present at the end of the allocated time; it usually involves an extended amount of independent work, either by an individual student or by a group of students in and beyond the classroom;
- task-based learning – an approach in which the learners use language to fulfill a specified task. Their focus is on the task rather than on the language they are using, e.g. case study;
- workshop – a way of organising student-centred learning in which the teacher plays the role of facilitator. It usually involves hands-on activity by students.

Sample session materials within the Curriculum demonstrate how to vary modes of learning and teaching.

It is essential that all classes are held in English.

The sessions are designed so that future teachers should be able to develop their higher order thinking skills (as well as low order ones) according to Bloom's Taxonomy and to learn how to organize their future professional activity according to this principle. So, asking questions is a rather important professional skill which will help future teachers to create conditions for interaction in English classroom and make their students' learning product-oriented.

One more essential aspect is designing the session is connected with giving students the opportunity to go through Kolb's experiential cycle. This cycle comprises experiencing, reflecting, conceptualizing and planning processes [2] (see Picture 1):



Picture 1. Kolb's experiential cycle

As it can be seen from the picture the cyclic character of Methodology sessions causes students' various actions which are to be done individually, in pairs, groups or the whole group. Each mode of interaction should be justified.

In Mohammed Rhalmi's article "Classroom interaction" the author states that "the more the initiative comes from students in classroom interaction, the more learning is taking place. In other words, the more students are free:

- to ask and answer questions,
- to take decisions about the learning process,
- to participate in discussions,
- to initiate conversations,
- the more they contribute to the learning process" [5].

Such contribution is an obligatory condition for the student-centred classes. It is especially topical for future teachers' education. The personality of a teacher has a great impact on students. Newly-qualified teachers often follow teaching style of one of their school teachers. So, their being a good example of the learning process facilitator for their own students can become an important factor in those students’ personality development and professional success.

Within working in groups of changeable composition future teachers learn to act collaboratively, to be responsible for the group’s decisions, to be tolerant, to be convincing. Their critical thinking is promoted as well.

Each session gives a unique opportunity as for combining all possible modes of interaction. Let us follow the possible variety of interaction modes within one Methodology session. The first unit Psychological factors contains the session on the topic “Learners’ Types” which can be organized as follows (according to the session plan presented by Olena Zmievska, a member of the project team): to study the learners’ experience one of the possible ways of interaction can be teacher’s dialogue on students’ similarities and differences with the whole group; then it would be good to give them the chance to work individually to better understanding the kind of learners they are, it can be done by means of completing the questionnaire; it is time for students to share the answers with their partners working in pairs, afterwards presenting the information on their partners; in class discussion all students summarise following the next issues: differences in approaches and learning styles, reasons for the differences, their relation to personal differences in temperament and character, the need to accommodate all the differences in the language learning environment. After that a case study will help to acquaint students with all main types of learners. So, the students work in pairs and study only one case, then, after creating two big groups, each of students describe their cases and all together they identify the learner types. Thus, collaboratively the students get acquainted with learners’ types. In the same groups students are to brainstorm and then discuss learning preferences of each learner type in terms of skills, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, memorising, drilling, etc. Then they fill in the table in handout and regroup again to work in 4 groups. This time the students work with a set of classroom teaching activities to decide which activity is most suitable for which learner type. There is a space for students’ creativity – they can suggest more activities for different learner types. Groups are welcome to present their findings and suggestions. At the stage of round-up the students reflect on their own learner types, the peculiarities of all learner types which are to be taken into consideration in their professional life.

As far as we can see, it is possible to encourage students to take part in all possible ways of interaction. It helps to involve all students into active work, sharing their experience, hands-on activities and constructing their awareness and developing their professional skills. It makes the students' group more friendly and collaborative that is important for developing their life skills.

The Curriculum recommends avoiding traditional lectures as a mode of teaching since they are not appropriate in a professional education course that focusses on the development of teaching skills rather than transmission of knowledge.

That is why the course of Methodology is delivered simultaneously with students' visits to school. In methodology sessions they get ideas of school reality which they can observe almost at once. Besides, they get the assignments connected with the practical aspects of learning and teaching at schools.

Student teachers experience the reality of school classrooms in three phases: initially (semesters 3 and 4) as observers, then (semesters 5, 6 and 7) as teaching assistants and finally (semester 8) as practising teachers with responsibility for full-length lessons. At each of these stages, there are strong links (through tasks) from the methodology courses to school experience.

As far as we can see there are various modes of learning and teaching while students are having their school practice as well.

As a result, the Curriculum influences the future teacher of English education so that all stakeholders feel satisfied, as the school gets the newly-qualified teacher ready to any challenges, the practitioner active enough to burn the students' desire to learn and discover the world every day throughout their lives.

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ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ АКТИВНЫХ МЕТОДОВ В ПРОЦЕССЕ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ КУРСА «ТЕОРИЯ И МЕТОДИКА РАЗВИТИЯ РЕЧИ ДЕТЕЙ»

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Abstract: The article explains the possibilities of the use of active methods in the process of studying "Theory and Methods of Children's Speech Development" course by students. The work presents the classification of active teaching methods, demonstrates the ways of using the brainstorming method, role-playing (dramatizing/staging) and the method of solving pedagogical situations at practical classes. The author has proved that namely active methods are the most pedagogically valuable ones in professional education.
Keywords: active methods, speech development, brainstorming method, dramatizing, pedagogical situations.

В условиях современной системы образования в Республике Молдова предъявляются повышенные требования к формированию готовности студентов – будущих воспитателей – к профессиональной деятельности, развитию ключевых компетенций при широком использовании интенсивных педагогических технологий.

Психолого-педагогические основы формирования профессиональных умений у будущих педагогов дошкольных учреждений, их классификация, структура, содержание и педагогические условия раскрываются в исследованиях И. Ю. Ерофеевой [2], Л. В. Поздняк [6], и др. Однако остаются недостаточно изученными вопросы формирования готовности студентов к научно-методической деятельности в области речевого развития детей дошкольного возраста, способных видеть, понимать и реализовывать на практике проблему речевого развития детей, моделировать процесс педагогического воздействия на речь, определять содержание речевой работы с группой детей или отдельным ребенком.

В профессионально-педагогической деятельности будущего воспитателя такая работа является сложной, что связано с многогранностью явлений «языка», «речи», «речевого развития», руководство которыми должно строиться на основе современных представлений об онтогенезе речи. Следует отметить, что этот процесс затрудняют неблагополучие языковой среды, перенасыщенность средствами массовой телекоммуникации, агрессивно воздействующих на психику ребенка, рост количества детей с нарушениями речи или врожденной речевой патологией и т. д.

На этапе профессиональной подготовки, по утверждению Г. И. Богина, мы должны обеспечить развитие у студентов следующих речевых способностей:

- правильность речи, т. е. соблюдение некоторого минимума правил речевой деятельности;
- скорость речи, т. е. обоснованное распределение речевого поступка во времени на основе достигнутой способности к интериоризации речи;
- насыщенность речи, т. е. готовность использовать значительный массив потенциальных речевых актов;
- соответствующий выбор средств речи, т. е. умение в пределах предложения производить выбор потенциальных субституентов на основании критерия лучше/хуже;
- адекватная комплектация целого текста, т. е. способность выбирать способ соединения тех предложений, в которых осуществлен выбор средств выражения [1; С. 3-4].

В нашем исследовании мы опирались на теоретические и практические выводы профессора В. Н. Макаровой [2] о необходимости формирования у педагогов специальных педагогических умений в области речевого развития детей. Автор выделил состав и содержание умений, необходимых воспитателю для успешной работы по развитию речи детей: умение изучать речь ребенка и ориентироваться в условиях общения; умение моделировать процесс дидактического общения; умение организовывать период общения; умение управлять процессом общения; умение анализировать осуществленную систему дидактического общения и полученный результат.

Студент должен научиться быстро включаться в различные формы речевой коммуникации, участвовать в учебных дискуссиях, овладевать культурой речевого общения и поведения.

При подготовке будущих воспитателей формирование речевых умений мы рассматриваем в контексте деятельностного подхода. Это требует широкого использования методов интенсивного обучения, которые переносят активность обучаемого с усвоения знаний на их «добывание». Следует подчеркнуть, что данные методы являются интерактивными, т. е. подразумевается тесное взаимодействие обучаемых в ходе учебного процесса, учет их жизненного опыта, речевых способностей, ценностных ориентаций.

Слово «интерактив» пришло к нам из английского от слова «interact» – «inter» – «взаимный», «act» – действовать. *Интерактивный* – означает способность взаимодействовать или находится в режиме беседы, диалога с кем-либо (человеком) или чем-либо (например, компьютером). Следовательно, интерактивное обучение – это, прежде всего, диалоговое обучение, в ходе которого осуществляется взаимодействие преподавателя и обучающегося. Интерактивные методы – это усиленное взаимовлияние участников педагогического процесса через призму собственной индивидуальности, это процесс интенсивной межсубъектной коммуникации педагога и студента. Интерактивное педагогическое взаимодействие характеризуется высокой степенью интенсивности общения его участников, их коммуникации, обмена деятельностями, сменой и разнообразием их видов, форм и приемов, целенаправленной рефлексией участниками своей деятельности и состоявшегося взаимодействия.

Изучение педагогической литературы и наш многолетний опыт преподавания курса «Теория и методика развития речи детей» позволяют констатировать, что особо актуальной проблемой является разработка активных методов обучения, помогающих студентам углубить теоретико-методическую подготовку, освоить базовые знания и сформировать профессиональные умения, направленные на развитие речевой культуры, активизацию речи детей и совершенствование речевой модели поведения. Вопросы внедрения интенсивных технологий обучения, рассматриваемые в работах А. П. Панфилова [4], И. Ф. Плетеневой [5], А. М. Смолкина [7], В. И. Яшиной [8] и др., не теряют своей значимости. Будущим педагогам важно овладевать активными методами обучения (игровыми имитационными методами, тренингами, методами анализа конкретных ситуаций, мозговыми штурмами, методами проигрывания ролей и т. д.), которые создают учебную обстановку сотрудничества и сотворчества, развивают базовые компетенции.

Целью нашей работы явилась разработка и применение на практике активных методов обучения, направленных на формирование профессиональных компетенций в области речевого развития детей. Особый интерес для нас представляет классификация активных методов А. М. Смолкина [7], которую мы использовали в процессе учебно-познавательной деятельности обучаемых.

Классификация методов активного обучения

В процессе изучения данной дисциплины активные методы, реализуемые на занятиях, выполняли следующие функции: а) сообщения учебной информации; б) формирования и совершенствования речевых умений и навыков, культуры речевого общения и поведения; в) овладения методическими приемами и средствами развития речи детей в разных возрастных группах; г) изучения передового педагогического опыта в области методики развития речи и его творческое использование в моделируемой профессиональной деятельности; д) развитие рефлексивных способностей и навыков студентов; е) умение осуществлять самоконтроль и самооценку учебно-профессиональных действий.

Студент должен уяснить для самого себя ценность и необходимость формирования у детей культуры речевого поведения, а затем усвоить требования, которым надо следовать при обучении детей данному качеству. Для того, чтобы выработать у них знания по теме «Культура речевого поведения» мы использовали неимитационный метод – мозговой штурм в стиле «соло». Студенты на карточках записывали сформулированные правила говорящего и правила слушающего. Главное в этой разновидности мозгового штурма – не потерять то, что приходит в голову, и фиксировать каждую пришедшую на ум мысль, даже если она не связана с решаемой задачей.

В результате группового обсуждения студенты разработали правила, которые должен соблюдать педагог в роли говорящего:

- уважительно и доброжелательно относиться к собеседнику (ребенку);
- чаще обращаться к ребенку по имени для установления контакта;
- тщательно продумывать слова и выражения, произносить их четко и выразительно, учитывая речевую ситуацию;
- не допускать большой длительности и монотонности речи;
- следить за манерами, мимикой, жестами;
- отказаться от иронии в адрес ребенка, смотреть в глаза, демонстрировать интерес к ребенку.

Одновременно педагог выступал в роли слушающего. Студенты выдвигали идеи, обсуждали проблемы, а затем формулировали правила слушающего:

- умение слушать ребенка с интересом, выражая это взглядом, жестами, улыбкой;
- проявлять уважение к высказыванию ребенка;

- уметь по внешним признакам определять психическое и физическое состояние ребенка, учитывать его при общении;
- не терять самообладания и сдерживать отрицательные эмоции;
- не прерывать, не перебивать ребенка и не вставлять обидных замечаний;
- не допускать, чтобы слушание ребенка перешло в собственное говорение.

В процессе опытно-педагогической работы мы учитывали, что необходимой составляющей научно-образовательного самоопределения будущих педагогов выступает приобретение ими профессиональных умений и навыков обучения детей культуре речевого поведения.

Для развития культуры общения был использован метод проигрывания ролей (инсценирование). При «разыгрывании ситуации» участники исполняли роль так, как сами считали нужным, самостоятельно определяя свою стратегию поведения, свой вербальный репертуар и сценарий. Студентам предлагалась жизненная ситуация: в условиях семьи надо было исполнить определенную роль (сестры, матери, отца и т. д.). Для этого они должны были выделить компоненты речевой ситуации:

- кто говорит (адресант);
- кому (адресат);
- почему (причина);
- для чего – зачем (цель высказывания);
- что – о чем (содержание высказывания);
- как (способ и средство передачи содержания высказывания);
- где (место общения);
- когда (временной фактор).

Студентам описывалась конкретная ситуация: «Родители ушли вечером в гости. Тебя оставили дома с младшим братом. Он привык, чтобы перед сном ему рассказывали сказку. Он ждет твоей сказки. Конечно, она должна быть интересной, чтобы братишка внимательно ее слушал. Ты можешь рассказать сказку, которую хорошо знаешь, можешь придумать к ней продолжение, другой конец, а можешь сочинить другую сказку».

В этой риторической задаче адресант – студент в роли «старшей сестры», адресат – «младший братишка»; цель – заинтересовать его, успокоить перед сном; содержание – сказка известная или придуманная; место – дом; время – вечер, перед сном.

Разыгрывание таких ситуаций помогало студентам проявить творческие способности, импровизировать, исходя из своего видения заданной роли. Они продемонстрировали свою профессиональную компетентность, культуру речевого поведения и общения, артистизм, способность перевоплощаться.

В процессе активного обучения студентов по теме «Воспитание звуковой культуры речи» мы использовали проблемные педагогические задачи, решение которых предполагало поиск нескольких вариантов решения, их обсуждение и выделение эффективных путей ее решения.

Например, <u>педагогическая ситуация</u>: «Саша хорошо произносит многие звуки родного языка, но испытывает затруднения в произношении шипящих [ж], [ш] и сонорного звука [р]; умеет регулировать темп речи и силу голоса; умеет выделять необходимый звук в слове, но не всегда плавно расходует воздух на выдохе. Поэтому при чтении поэтического текста возникают неоправданные паузы, нарушается логическое ударение».

В результате группового обсуждения педагогической ситуации студенты пришли к выводу о том, какова должна быть последовательность поэтапных индивидуальных занятий с данным ребенком.

На <u>первом этапе</u> надо проводить работу с шипящими звуками [ж] и [ш], которые являются ротовыми, переднеязычными и твердыми ([ж] – звонкий, [ш] – глухой). Они подобрали примерные задания:

а) повтори слова: *жаль – шаль, жар – шар – пожар;*

б) повтори предложения*: У Жанны шапочка. У Жоры шарфик. У Жени шаль. У Даши жасмин, а у Жанны – воздушный шар. У Миши ёжик.*

в) найди и произнеси в словах первый слог: *<u>жа</u>ба – <u>ша</u>лунья*;

г) найди и произнеси в словах второй слог: *у<u>ша</u>нка – ле<u>жа</u>нка*;

е) повтори скороговорку и пословицу: *У ужа – ужата, у ежа – ежата; Кошка в печурку – стужа во двор.*

На <u>втором этапе</u> студенты предложили исправить дефекты произношения звука [р] с помощью упражнений для языка и для кончика языка. Такими действиями считаются: прищелкивание языком, «болтушки» – звук и произнесение звуков с более или менее сходной артикуляцией.

Затем они предложили следующие виды заданий:

а) повтори слоги: *ра-ла, ра-ла;*

б) прочитай слова: *рак-лак, Рая – работа;*

в) повтори чистоговорки: *ра-ра – на дворе жара; ру-ру – не люблю жару; ро-ро-ро – новое перо; ры-ры-ры – эти комары; ур-ур-ур – напоите кур; ерь-ерь-ерь – это дикий зверь; ырь-ырь-ырь – Рома богатырь; арь-арь-арь – у меня горит фонарь;*

г) повтори предложения:

Ира рвала ромашки.

Юра играл в прятки.

Ребята на реке поймали рака.

д) повтори скороговорки:

1. На реке поймали рака.

Из-за рака вышла драка.

2. Покатился колобок, а на дороге коробок.

Удивился колобок и закатился в коробок.

На третьем этапе работы студенты предложили проводить дыхательную гимнастику, чтобы разрабатывать речевой аппарат: задувать в ворота легкие предметы, например, ватку; соревноваться, у кого дальше улетит «бабочка»; кто дольше сможет подуть на «листочки дерева»; передвигать легкие предметы (карандаши, шарики и т. д.) при помощи воздушной струи по гладкой поверхности стола.

На четвертом этапе они рекомендовали вырабатывать умение правильно пользоваться логическим ударением.

Поэтому студенты предложили выполнить следующее задание: произнести по-разному фразу «Красная Шапочка понесла бабушке свежеиспеченные пирожки» в определенной последовательности: сначала сказать фразу так, чтобы было ясно, что к бабушке пошла *Красная Шапочка* (выделить голосом словосочетание *Красная Шапочка*), а затем выделить голосом слово-действие *понесла* и т. д. Такая система работы позволяет отработать умение пользоваться логическим ударением в высказываниях разного типа.

Групповое обсуждение педагогической ситуации позволило убедиться в том, что студенты глубоко осознали проблему, связанную с отработкой сложных звуков [ш], [ж], [р] и логических ударений в тексте, нашли пути ее решения, оценили позитивные последствия поэтапной работы и сделали правильные методические выводы о путях преодоления затруднений в произношении звуков [ш], [ж] и [р].

В работе мы описали преимущества использования активных методов в процессе изучения курса «Теория и методика развития речи детей» и показали пути совершенствования преподавания курса на основе постепенного перехода от обучения к процессу учения в атмосфере доверия и взаимопомощи в учебной группе.

Таким образом, анализ литературы и педагогический опыт применения активных методов обучения студентов при изучении данной дисциплины позволили сформулировать основные выводы о том, что:

- недостаточно изучены вопросы, содержащие теоретическую информацию о возможностях использования активного обучения при изучении данного курса;
- в педагогической практике накоплен положительный опыт использования интенсивных методов обучения (проблемные педагогические ситуации, имитационные игровые методы, тестирование и т. д.) при изучении некоторых тем по «Методике развития речи»;
- отсутствует научно-обоснованная система применения активных методов в процессе изучения данного курса, направленная: а) на развитие педагогических умений, необходимых для успешной работы в области речевого развития детей; б) на совершенствование профессиональной культуры речевого поведения и речевого общения; в) на формирование научно-методической готовности студентов работать с детьми по развитию речи с учетом личностно-ориентированной модели обучения;
- активные методы обучения являются важной составляющей технологического компонента процесса развития субъектности будущего воспитателя и обеспечивают педагогическое взаимодействие между всеми участниками образовательного процесса.

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MOVE THE WORLD THROUGH DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION

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Abstract: The article focuses on training public speaking skills through differentiated instructions. It touches upon the importance of public speaking skills and principles to follow when differentiating instructions. The authenticity of the topic is determined by a lot of researches in the field, thus, the studies made by A. C. Tomlinson and S. E. Lucas have been used in creating the theoretical framework. The practical framework is based on one public speaking lesson that provides some findings on a way to differentiate instructions for four types of learners.

Keywords: differentiated instructions, aural learners, physical learners, visual learners, logical learners, impromptu speech

As we live in a society, very few want to take risks to spoil the image they have created for ages. Although all are afraid to speak in front of others, it is clear that public speaking skills are the most important. These skills resemble communication skills that are used daily to communicate with people, including person-to-person interactions, conferences, public forums and organizational situations.

Public speaking fits the very model of communication. Communication is considered to encompass the simultaneous sending and receiving messages through one or more channels. A public speaker sends orally or nonverbally messages to an audience which provides the speaker with a certain feedback. Thus, the elements of the speech communication process are:

- Speaker – the person that communicates a message to the listener. The success of the speaker depends on the credibility and preparation of the speech. The speaker has to be highly interested in everything he speaks out.
- Message – the information that is transmitted and that has to be relevant, coherent and captivating
- to keep the audience engaged.
- Channel –the message that is communicated.
- Listener – the person that receives the information.
- Feedback – the nonverbal messages that is sent from a listener to a speaker.
- Situation – the time and place when the speech is delivered.

There are a lot of debates on the resemblance of public speaking to a simple conversation procedure. Every day, as Stephen E. Lucas states, any adult or kid spends about 30 percent of waking hours in conversation. S/he has to organize the thoughts logically to be understood, to tailor the message to the audience, to tell the message passionate for a maximum impact and to modify it in accordance with the listener's feedback. All these seem to be a part of an effective public speaking performance. Still, despite the similarities public speaking is different from conversation. The author underlines a set of features that make public speaking different. It is:

- a more highly structured speech as it requires much more preparation;
- a more formal language usage, as listeners very often react very negatively when the speakers do not polish their language;
- a special method of delivery that makes the speaker to follow some rules: clear voice, more erect posture, Z eye contact, and non-verbal habits [2].

Public speaking is a process that develops critical thinking, a skill that is very important in everyday life. It involves "elated" skills such as distinguishing fact from opinion, judging the credibility of statements. It focuses on the ability to see the things clearly. Critical thinking is a matter of logic, of being able to spot weaknesses of other people's arguments and, thus, to avoid using them in one's own speech. In broader sense, this is the ability to see clearly the relationships among ideas. This is a life-lasting skill that each person striving for a successful life should develop.

Teachers have been always looking for different approaches in education that might help develop public speaking skills. Many scholars believe that public speaking skills can be trained through differentiated instruction. Differentiated instruction offers the possibility to every student to train the skill of speaking in public on the basis of the learning mode that prevails in her / his character.

Carol Ann Tomlinson asserts that differentiating instruction implies the observation method to differentiate the similarities and differences among learners, and to plan the instructions in the way learners could understand them better. The instructions are ruled by the teacher that "recognizes diversity in their students, in terms of how and what they identify with and how they learn, and when this recognition is reflected in how teachers teach, students are free to discover new and creative ways to solve problems, achieve success, and become lifelong learners" [5, p. 14].

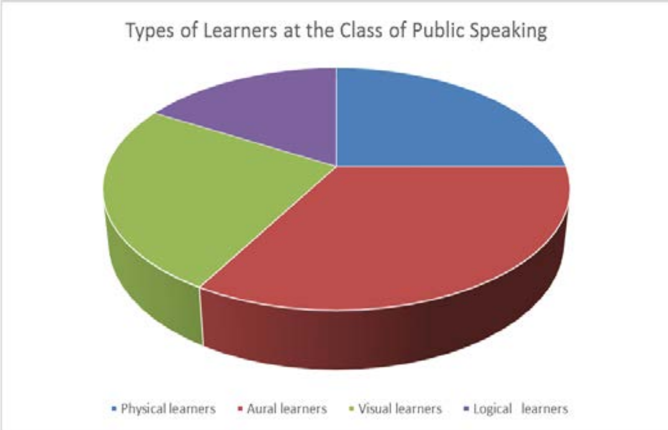
During the process of differentiation, the teachers should pay attention to content, process, and product based on student readiness, interests, and learning profiles. In the process of learning, some students can work with complicated fractions but others will need more practice and time before starting to show progress. Readiness is much different from ability. When the teacher knows the learner's readiness for a certain concept, he can work with him according to his needs. Moreover, if the teacher individualizes instructions according to learner's readiness, he makes instructions that are more appropriate to learner's skills and basic understanding of the topic. The learning profile refers to students' preferences toward specific way of processing the information. Student's learning preferences differ in context.

Carol Ann Tomlinson underlines the five-way hierarchy to differentiate instructions [5, p. 15]. The first element is the *content*; it represents the information that is given to students. The *process* shows how students understand the topic. The *product*, the third element, represents what the students know, understand, and are able to do as a result of study. The *affect* is the way the students connect their thoughts and feeling in the classroom. The last element is the *learning environment* that is the atmosphere of the classroom where the lesson takes place. All these elements are extremely important in differentiating instructions.

Another linguist that contributed to the differentiated approach to teaching content is Lev Vygotsky. The scholar introduced the term "zone of proximal development" referring to "the exact level of the child's capabilities, so that we can provide the child with input which is set just above the level of his understanding" [6, p. 79-91]. The scholar believed that the child cannot learn a lot by himself, he has to be assisted by another person. This fact is extremely important in training public speaking skills. The child has to be provided structures that represent content, the design of the speech should be made in pairs or groups, and, then, the final product (the speech itself) will be very good.

I have applied this theory in teaching public speaking to my third year students (12 students). First, there were detected four types of learners. The diagram below emphasizes the number of learners and the learning mode that prevails in their character:

Table 1. Types of Learners at the class of public speaking



Second, the content was taught in accordance with the students' best way to process the information.

The input covered teaching a structure for impromptu speeches. The chosen structure is Problem/Solution/Benefit that helps in designing a short unprepared speech. The students' output was the delivering of the speech "You cannot feel unique if you are not encouraged". Each group or pair of learners got a worksheet with directions to be followed. Thus, the following structures helped in making the impromptu speeches:

Structure: Problem/Solution/ Benefit Structure.

Technique: Storytelling to start and to end with.

Physical Learners

Introduction (Symbolic personal story to emphasize the problem):

1. Decide upon a problem.
2. *You cannot feel unique if you are not encouraged*
3. Emphasize the problem through a picture. Bring the picture, try to use your body to represent the essence of the picture.
4. Connect the picture and your body performance to your personal story.
5. Generalize the problem referring to the community you are coming from.

Body:

1. Provide some solutions to solve the detected problem.

2. Choose the most efficient of those cited.
3. Use the picture and your body performance from the introduction to show how the problem has been solved.

Conclusion:
1. Name the beneficiaries of the provided solution.
2. Use the same personal symbolic story to wind up.
3. Give a piece of advice.

Visual Learners

Structure: Problem/Solution/ Benefit Structure
Technique: storytelling to start and to end

Introduction (Symbolic Story to emphasize the problem):
1. Decide upon a problem.
2. *You cannot feel unique if you are not encouraged*
3. Emphasize the problem through a (three dimensional) hands-on product.
4. Use the materials (wooden sticks, a balloon, a piece of rope) to make the problem real (to be seen).
5. Connect the (three dimensional) hands-on product to your personal story.
6. Generalize the problem referring to the community you are coming from.

Body:
1. Provide some solutions to solve the detected problem.
2. Choose the most efficient of those named.
3. Use the picture the (three dimensional) hands-on product from the introduction to show how the problem has been solved.

Conclusion:
1. Name the beneficiaries of the provided solution.
2. Use the same symbolic story to wind up.
3. Give a piece of advice.

Logical Learners

Structure: Problem/Solution/ Benefit Structure
Technique: Storytelling to start and to end with.
Introduction (Symbolic Personal Story to emphasize the problem):
1. Decide upon a problem.

You cannot feel unique if you are not encouraged

1. Emphasize the problem through a table or a chart.
2. Draw the chart and try to expand on it.
3. Connect the chart to your personal story.
4. Generalize the problem referring to the community you are coming from.

Body:

1. Provide some solutions to solve the detected problem.
2. Choose the most efficient of those named.
3. Use the picture the table or chart from the introduction to show how the problem can be solved.

Conclusion:

1. Name the beneficiaries of the provided solution.
2. Use the same symbolic story to wind up.
3. Give a piece of advice.

Aural Learners

Structure: Problem/Solution/ Benefit Structure
Technique: Storytelling to start and to end
Introduction (Symbolic personal story to emphasize the problem):

1. Decide upon a problem
2. *You cannot feel unique if you are not encouraged*
3. Emphasize the problem through a piece of music. Expand on the essence of the piece of music provided.
4. Connect this piece to your personal story.
5. Generalize the problem referring to the community you are coming from.

Body:

1. Provide some solutions to solve the detected problem.
2. Choose the most efficient of those cited.
3. Use the piece of music from the introduction to show how the problem can be solved.

Conclusion:

1. Name the beneficiaries of the provided solution.
2. Use the same personal symbolic story to wind up.
3. Give a piece of advice.

Finally, the created “zone of proximal development” facilitated the process of designing the speech. This worked beneficially on stress and fear management and, consequently, public speaking skills training.

The two-stage process of output presentation was peer or group speech delivery and individual speech delivery. It took from 5 through 7 minutes for peer presentation and 5 minutes for individual presentation. The feedback that the students provided at the end of the class was unexpected. The diagram below shows that 75% of students felt quite comfortable with the procedure due to the mode of learning that made them feel at ease, even if the whole process was not easy. There were three students that did not like the whole idea about differentiated instructions in training public speaking skills.

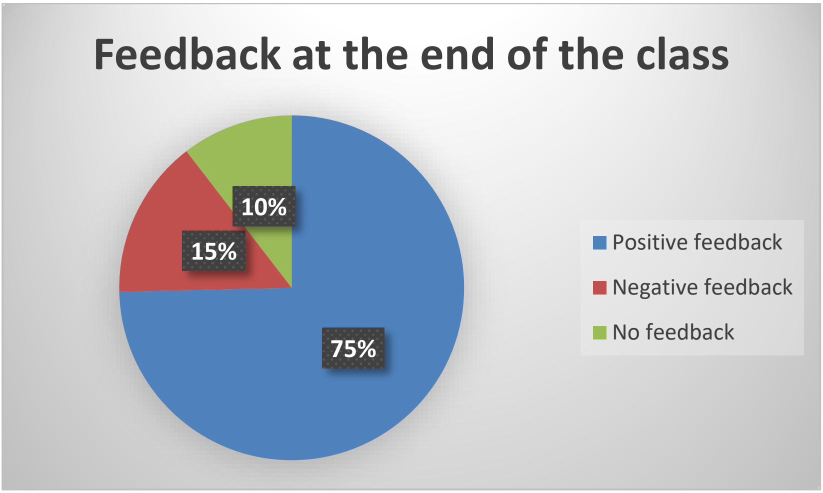


Table 2. Feedback at the end of the class

Summing up, it is worth mentioning that there are many advantages of this approach to teaching impromptu speeches to students. First, the instruction is designed in accordance with the mode the students are accustomed to in processing the information. This helps in creating a friendly learning environment. Second, the" proximal zone of development" is directed towards anxiety reduction through pair or group work. Still, these results and conclusions and are not convincing as the practical framework is based just on one lesson where differentiation has been implemented. It is necessary to continue implementing public speaking training skills through different instructions to draw consistent conlusions.

Differentiation cannot just be a strategy in teachers' toolbox. It needs to be a way of life in the classroom, a daily occurrence that happens without hesitation. Although differentiated teaching requires many resources, time and motivation to be implemented, the students' outcomes make any teacher, who uses ways to satisfy every disciple's needs, feel rewarded.

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A MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE APPROACH TO READING *GULLIVER'S TRAVELS* BY J. SWIFT

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Abstract: Reading literary works in the original has always been a challenge for EFL students, even those who are in teacher training programs and have a richer philological background. As reading is the best way to discover and understand literature, it is important to identify effective means of involving students in active, meaningful reading procedures. The article provides an example of how to make the reading of J. Swift's "Gulliver's Travels' more engaging for students, applying Gardner's MI theory.

Keywords: MI theory, reading proficiency, language proficiency, learning for understanding

Reading is both an advantage and a challenge for EFL students. The ability to understand and respond to written texts is an important precondition for further development of language skills and participation in class discussions. The ability to read and understand fiction contributes to developing a deeper understanding of the language, its structure and vocabulary. In addition, literary works engage students in reflecting on their own beliefs and values, think about their own selves in terms of identity. Motivating students to read literary works is not an easy task nowadays. An intrinsic students' willingness and readiness to read relates to the necessary internal impulse which makes the reading of fiction enjoyable. It is a great advantage if students demonstrate this positive attitude to reading. If they don't, teachers are supposed to deal efficiently with such a challenge and be able to create a stimulating reading environment. The present article seeks to provide arguments that Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences may help teachers create this type of stimulating reading environment. A model of engaging students in activities that connect to different types of intelligence has been created based on J. Swift's novel "The Gulliver's Travels".

The present research relies on several personal teaching beliefs: (1) literature is an important source of learning about human experiences and it helps expand our knowledge and understanding of the world; (2) reading fiction leads to building critical thinking skills, as we deal with symbols, make connections, infer meanings or decipher ambiguity; (3) reading is beneficial and interesting when one is engaged in the process actively and visual arts can be a supportive tool in the teachers' hands; (4) accepting diversity of thought and opinion and appreciating and encouraging all the students' talents, teachers can help them read fiction with understanding and joy.

Reading proficiency in a foreign language is both significant and difficult to attain and it depends on several factors. Research shows that the level of reading proficiency that a student has in the L1 appears to be a factor in the development of L2 reading skills. Royer J. and Carlo M. assume that there is a transfer of reading skills from L1 to L2, which means that the more a student has learned to be a questioning and meaning creating reader in his mother tongue, the greater the chances are that he/she will be a critical effective reader in

L2. Explaining competence as "conscious understanding of language rules that govern language production", Ellis claims that L1 competence is not the only factor to influence reading in a foreign language and that "L2 proficiency is another strong factor in L2 reading" [5, p.5]. Similarly, Alderson maintains that L2 readers "will not be able to read as well in the foreign language until they have reached a threshold level of competence in that foreign language" [1, p. 19]. This opinion is supported by Devine's point of view, whose research on general language ability and second language reading supports the hypothesis that "L2 reading problems are due to inadequate knowledge of the target language" [4, p. 262-3]. Teachers should consider these factors as they design the content of literature courses where reading is both a skill to be consolidated and a tool of learning.

The great body of research findings on reading in a foreign language comes to reinforce the idea that reading is a complex cognitive process. University students at foreign language departments read to extract, build, infer, classify, compare, organize, summarize, interpret, etc. information, which requires not only solid language proficiency but also a certain level of literary competence. According to Culler, a literary work has meaning only when it is read, or listened to, in a particular way; when it is read "as literature" [2, p. 149]. To read a text as literature "is not to make one's mind a tabula rasa and approach it without preconceptions; one must bring to it an implicit understanding of the operations of literary discourse which tells one what to look for" [ibid, p.132]. Culler introduces the concept of 'literary competence' and claims that it is activated if 'in an interpretative community' the practices of reading literature allow readers to interpret works in a variety of ways.

When assigning the list of literary works to be read by students in the original, I often felt doubtful and apprehensive of the outcome. I could feel students' resistance to reading the work in the foreign language or to reading the whole work. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences has proven to be an approach which helps teachers and students build a motivated, interested reading community as it offers teachers tools to cater to the needs and interests of each student and, gradually, gets students into the nets of reading.

Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences has become popular with teachers as it emphasizes the value of individual differences in learning and expression. According to Gardner, the traditional question ‘How smart are you?’ is not relevant in the contemporary society. It is more important to develop in every individual student the understanding of his/her own strengths, hence the question ‘How are you smart?’ Embracing this approach, educators have greater liberty to respond to the challenges of education in the 21st century, and namely, prepare young people for life, work and citizenship. Acknowledging the existence of at least seven intelligences that combine in numerous ways and form unique students’ profiles, educators learn to value students’ interpersonal skills and sense of responsibility, alongside with their critical thinking and creativity. H. Gardner criticizes the current system of education, considering it ‘the most unfair education’. He believes that schools highly value only the students who have ‘a law professor mind’, those who have strong linguistic and logical abilities, excluding the children whose minds work differently. Gardner questioned the accepted opinion that intelligence is one single entity and in *Frames of Mind* (1983), demonstrated the existence of seven intelligences. In *Intelligence Reframed*, published in 1999, H. Gardner first describes the eighth (naturalistic) intelligence.

The MI theory gives teachers opportunities to supplement modern teaching strategies that can be applied in the EFL classroom. Campbell B. (1994), Lazear D. (1991, 1999), and others have developed instructional procedures and classroom strategies based on H. Gardner’s identified intelligences. A list of literature based activities catering to each type of intelligence, is provided below:

Verbal/Linguistic – the intelligence related to words and language:

- Debate an issue within the story with another student;
- Write a poem that is related to the story;
- Keep a double-entry journal (quotes from the text vs. student’s response\thoughts);
- Write an acrostic poem based on a character’s name (personage characterisation).

Visual/Spatial – the intelligence relying on the sense of sight and being able to visualize an object, includes the ability to create internal mental images:

- Use magazine images to create a collage about the setting or main character.
- Design a logo or icon to represent a theme within the story.
- Color code or highlight important information in the text.

- Complete a plot diagram for the story.

Bodily/Kinesthetic – the intelligence related to physical movement and body functions:
- Play a game of "character charades" or pantomime a character.
- Use papier-mâché or clay to make a model of something from the story.
- Perform a dramatic reading of a scene from the story.
- Choreograph and perform a dance that represents a conflict within the story.

Interpersonal – the intelligence operating through person-to-person relationships and communication:
- Interview classmates about books they are reading.
- Participate in a Reciprocal Teaching group activity with three other students (Summarizer, Questioner, Clarifier, Predictor).
- Research the setting, era, or author of the story with a classmate.
- Create a game that is related to the story for your classmates.

Intrapersonal – the intelligence related to inner states of being and self-reflection:
- Select a character that you most identify with and explain why you relate to this person.
- Identify and evaluate how events, characters, or settings from the story make you feel.
- Explain how something from the story can be applied or connected to your life.

Logical/Mathematical – the intelligence dealing with inductive and deductive thinking and recognition of abstract patterns:
- Compare and contrast two different stories, characters, settings, plot… etc.
- Distinguish facts and opinions within the text.
- Identify and explain cause-and-effect relationships from the story.

Musical – the intelligence based on recognition of tonal and sound patterns and sensitivity to rhythm:
- Listen to music from the era of story.
- Write a rhythmic poem, chant, or rap about the story.

- Find music that represents the mood, setting, or character of the story.

Naturalist – the intelligence dealing with the recognition, appreciation and understanding of the natural world:

- Identify and explain how natural forces (weather, animals, plants, science… etc.) affect the story.
- Collect items on a nature walk that can be used to create a collage or model related to the story.
- Take a mini-field trip outside to read (park, playground, grass field… etc.).
- Keep a log of nature's impact on the daily life of the characters.

Having this MI inventory, any teacher can design activities that would suit his/her students' intelligence profiles. Further on, several examples on how this inventory was applied while reading J. Swift's novel "Gulliver's Travels" will be provided. The novel is included in the curriculum of History of English Literature course at the Department of English and German Philology at *A. Russo* Balti State University. On the one hand, reading the novel in English does not seem to be a difficulty as students are already familiar with it, many of them having read it earlier in their mother tongue. On the other hand, it is mainly this factor that does hinder students' understanding of the rich nuances of ambiguity and irony that the novel abounds in. The students are influenced by the preconceptions that had been previously created and continue reading it as a piece of work belonging to children's literature. Consequently, class discussions need to be organized in such a way as to help students see the novel in a new light and, thus, stir their interest to read it from a different perspective.

As a lead-in activity, the following piece of information was presented to all students, with the purpose of having the students reflect on England's historical and political background, which J. Swift alluded to in his novel.

Example 1:

Read the information. What conclusion does it help you draw about the novel?

J. Swift (1667-1745) wrote "Gulliver's Travels" (1721-1725) at a time when Europe was the world's dominant power, and when England, despite its small size, was rising in power on the basis of its powerful fleet. England's growing military and economic strength brought it into contact with a wide variety of new animals, plants, places, and things, but the most significant change wrought by European expansion was the encounter with previously unknown people with radically different modes of existence. The miniature stature of the Lilliputians can be interpreted as ____________________________________.

The next activity aims at offering students more information about the writer. Most relevant events had been selected, names of parties, geographical locations and some proper names, so as to offer students an overall understanding of the period. However, it is not presented to the students in the format of a ready-made text. Students are supposed to fit the given vocabulary into the appropriate space and construct meaningful sentences. Four pieces of texts were prepared, so students split in four groups, each working on a different text.

Example 2.

Write in the missing words and read facts from J.Swift's biography.

(a) *suspect, tax, become, send, political, reject, go*

In 1707 Swift ___________ (send) to London as emissary of Irish clergy seeking remission of ______ on Irish clerical incomes. His requests were _________, however, by the Whig government and by Queen Anne, who ____________ him of being irreligious. While in London he met Esther Vanhomrigh, who would ___________ his "Vanessa." During the next few years he _______ back and forth between Ireland and England, where he was involved, largely as an observer rather than a participant, in the highest English __________ circles.

(b) *disappointment, became, promotion, disgusted*

In 1710, A Description of a City Shower was published. Swift, ________with their alliance with the Dissenters, fell out with Whigs, allied himself with the Tories, and _________the editor of the Tory newspaper The Examiner. In 1713 Swift was installed as Dean of St. Patrick's Cathedral in Dublin - a __________which was, again, a____________.

So far, mainly three of the types of intelligences have been tackled while the students worked in groups getting engaged in searching for word meanings and establishing cause-effect relationships: interpersonal, linguistic and logical-mathematical.

Students, whose visual-spatial type of intelligence is dominant and who like to form mental images, can be encouraged to read the novel assisted by visual arts or mapmaking. They may offer to illustrate scenes from the novel or draw characters as they see them. They may also comment on the existing illustrations to the novel, focusing on the artist's choice of colours or details.

Picture 1

Example 3.

Read the fragment on pp. 32-34, which is an inventory of things found in Gulliver's pockets. Make a list of the described objects and find them in the picture.

The students get the picture (Picture 1) in its natural format, so that they can see the objects better. The task may seem too easy for university students, but it is definitely not. While some of the objects described are easy to recognize, others remain confusing, for they describe objects that were valued back in the 17^{th} century:

"… and on the right, a bag or pouch divided into two cells, each cell capable of holding three of your majesty's subjects. In one of these cells were several globes, or balls, of a most ponderous metal, about the bigness of our heads, and requiring a strong hand to lift them: the other cell contained a heap of certain black grains, but of no great bulk or weight, for we could hold above fifty of them in the palms of our hands" [10, p.34].

Since our students are in a teacher training programme, it is justified to involve them to participate in a Reciprocal Teaching Group activity. Working in such a group, students activate their interpersonal intelligence, as well as linguistic, musical, and kinesthetic. As students advance with the reading of the novel, groups of students are assigned to design mini-lessons on a chapter of the novel. This activity is similar to the Literature Circle, as it also requires distribution of roles: Summarizer, Questioner, Clarifier, Predictor. Only, the Reciprocal Teaching group comes to class with purposefully designed activities on the novel. Examples of such activities are as follows:

Example 4.

Reciprocal Teaching Group: members and responsibilities.

a. Summarizer: The summarizer wrote the gist of Chapter One in 12 sentences. Each sentence was written on a separate sheet of paper. As students approached the teacher's desk, they had to pick up a sentence, read it to the class and remain in the front. As more students come to the front, they align in a row, in accordance with the logical sequence of the events related in the summary. As the twelfth student reads the last sentence and finds his/her place in the row, the students read their sentences again to verify the logical sequence of the related events.

b. Questioner: The questioner's task is to formulate questions, which may be varied, depending on the aims of the questioning. To meet the purposes of developing literary competence, the student asked questions like *Why does J. Swift use exaggeration/hyperbole as a device? What does the author emphasize as he contrasts Gulliver's sizes in the country of Lilliput and in the country of Brobdingnag? How does J. Swift raise the issue of misuse of science?*

c. Clarifier: Since the role of the clarifier is to eliminate any sort of difficulty in understanding or interpreting certain episodes, events or characters' actions, he/she has the task to identify the troublesome fragments and engage other students in reflective activities. A good way to do it is to invite students create posters that contain drawings, charts, diagrams that help clarify a complicated fragment. The poster should have a title (for example *Foreign Threat* as to clarify the author's description of the danger of an invasion from abroad, p.51); images of representatives of the Tramecksan and Slamecksan party people (low and high heels), additional examples of allusions to the English political establishment.

d. Predictor: The predictor's role is to suppose what may happen next in the novel. Additionally, they should be able to explain what details in the novel drive them to the prediction they made. Supporting their predictions with short musical pieces that were selected to render the tone of the narration or the imminent danger in which the character may be found is an effective way to nurture students' musical intelligence. An appropriate selection to accompany the episode describing the storm which caused the shipwreck in Part 1 might be Antonio Lucio Vivaldi's *Storm,* from the book "The Four Seasons". Yet, students should come with their own selections and comments.

We should not neglect some students' preference and need to work individually, nurturing their intrapersonal intelligence. Such students may like to keep track of particular details by recording them in a special diary. For example, students may engage in demonstrating how J. Swift criticized or praised certain human qualities as he created his personages. Evidence of such characteristics as loyalty, honour, respect, courage may be collected in the diary, indicating the number of the page where these can be found. Such a student may take the role of an expert, as he/she may have always recorded examples, quotes, names of personages and setting details.

The provided examples are just several selective options of how to design activities for a more engaging reading of fiction aided by Gardner's MI theory, which makes us aware of how different our students are. Thinking of our students as individuals with varied strengths and talents and offering them opportunities to share their talents we help raise their confidence. As H. Gardner posits: "Taking human differences seriously lies at the heart of the MI perspective" [6, p. 91]. As the author explains it, all individuals "cannot be profitably arrayed on a single intellectual dimension", and also "any uniform educational approach is likely to serve only a small percentage of children optimally" [ibid, p. 91]. It is the teachers' responsibility to take the differences of our students seriously, and teach in such a way that every student has the maximum opportunity to understand and master the content, and then show the others what they have learned and understood. It is true that teaching with MI requires additional time, effort and money investment. It makes teachers depart from traditional ways of planning and evaluation and look for alternative means of organizing the teaching process. In this process, students should be co-participants, active and creative, confident that they will not be criticized for something they cannot do very well yet. The MI approach proves to be effective as it helps provide consistent opportunities for students to respond to reading through discussion, writing, art, drama, storytelling, music, and other creative expressions. This type of approach creates a stress-free environment for students, sustaining their motivation and interest in reading.

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RETORICA SCRISORILOR ADRESATE LUI NICOLAE CEAUȘESCU DE DORIN TUDORAN

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Abstract: Rhetorics of *Letters written to Ceausescu* by Dorin Tudoran
Letters written to Ceausescu by Dorin Tudoran represent a way to express the negative attitude towards the totalitarian communist system in Romania. The structure of the letters reveals the author's unique style. The detected style is an argumentative one, where the logical open argument is always

announced. The author uses the sentence to communicate with the reader. Thus, the sentence, in the greatest number of cases, is simple, although the inversion can often be observed too. The composite sentence is distinguished by its complexity. Still, the subordinate clauses are more often used than the coordinate ones. The letters are written in a combined style (administrative official style and the belletristic one) which generates an easy, expressive, and coherent exposure.

Keywords: communist system, argumentative style, logical connectors, belletristic style, sentence.

Dorin Tudoran este un scriitor român care atacă cu vehemență sistemul politic din România, sistem ce-i condamnă decizia de a emigra în Statele Unite ale Americii. Conștientizând dificultatea soluționării problemei în cauză, D. Tudoran devine un luptător înflăcărat, care vrea să convingă autoritățile de fărădelegile comise și pentru aceasta e dispus să plătească cu prețul libertății sale: „... *refuzul eliberării pașapoartelor, nu ar avea alt efect decât să transforme un om hotărât să se despartă de niște realități pe care nu le înțelege și nu le mai poate accepta, într-un luptător împotriva a tot ceea ce este contrar convingerilor sale*” (p. 28).

Puterea de convingere se alimentează din înaltele idealuri, credințe ale autorului, formate de-a lungul vieții. Convingătoare în această ordine de idei e scrisoarea a doua în care autorul relatează următoarele: „*Ca scriitor, cetățean și părinte, m-am convins definitiv că între credințele mele cele mai profunde despre Om și Drepturile sale inalienabile, Libertate și Democrație, Dialog și Opinie, Cinste și Echitate, Cultură și Educație, Patriotism și Sacrificiu* etc. și realitățile românești de azi există o prapastie de netrecut” (p.25).

Cele menționate mai sus, relevă nivelul de percepere a realității obiective: autorul, axându-se pe adevăratele valori ale unei societăți, are implantat în rațiune sentimentul dreptății, libertății și al patriotismului, care îl definesc ca personalitate. Este semnificativ faptul că autorul *Scrisorii*, apreciează valoarea fundamentală a unei societăți, *Omul,* menționând următoarele: „ *...deturnarea cursului unei vieți ... o practică abominabilă, demnă doar de cel mai profund dispreț al celor ce respectă încă ideea de* ***Om****, cu tot ceea ce a făcut din acesta valoarea fundamentală a lumii*” (p.30). În acest sens, însă autorul e convins că „... *în România de azi nu există nicio șansă ca statul să respecte obligația fundamentală a oricărei structuri social-politice –* ***aceea de a nu sili omul să trăiască în contradicție cu credințele sale cele mai profunde****...*” (p. 26).

Deși se consideră a fi intimidat, respectul și politețea, pentru Dorin Tudoran, sunt trăsături care-l definesc ca Om cu virtuți profund fundamentate. Astfel, în *Scrisoare* sunt de remarcat formulele de adresare utilizate: fiecare dintre cele nouă scrisori are formula de incipit *Excelență*, care este comună, identică, oferind omogenitate stilului autorului. În acest sens, forma *Excelență* este o formă specifică în ce privește adresarea față de corpul diplomatic, scriitorul demonstrând respectul față de o persoană autoritară. În textul *Scrisorilor*, identificăm și alte forme de adresare, care fac parte din același registru, cum ar fi *Domnia voastră*, *Excelența voastră* sau forme scurte ca *Vă, Vi, Veți și V-*, toate ortografiate cu majusculă, reliefând atitudinea respectuoasă a scriitorului față de persoana care guvernează o țără și care, de fapt, impune respect. Elocvente în această ordine de idei sunt exemplele din textul scrisorilor: *Cu tot respectul cuvenit, îndrăznesc s-o rog pe* ***Excelența voastră*** *să nu se îndoiască nicio clipă de acest lucru*!; *Ajuns aici sunt obligat*, ***Excelență****, să* ***Vă*** *aduc la cunoștință câteva lucruri* (p. 26) etc.

Stilul lui Dorin Tudoran (ne referim la scrisoarea adresată președintelui Republicii Române, Nicolae Ceaușescu) este un stil argumentativ, dovadă fiind conectorii logici care anunță o argumentare deschisă: *mai întâi, în al doilea rând, apoi, în al treilea rând* etc., aceștea comportând și o funcție graduală. De exemplu, Dorin Tudoran își argumentează motivul deciziei sale de a emigra, enumerând procedurile formale pe care le-a efectuat pentru a obține pașapoartele: „ ***Mai întâi****, Vă mărturisesc că nu mă interesează în niciun chip, părerea acestor comisii în legătură cu exercitarea de către mine a unui drept inalienabil...* ***În al doilea rând*** *- Vă mărturisesc a vedea în existența lor chiar o anume imoralitate. Și iată de ce.* ***Mai întâi****, pentru că atâta vreme cât ele-ori altele - nu depun și o susținută activitate de reală prevenire a cauzelor ce duc la hotărârea de a emigra..., nu au niciun drept moral să dea un aviz ori altul...* ***Apoi****-așa cum bine știu toți ce ce au trecut prin acest calvar-dacă avizul nefavorabil al unei asemenea comisii cântărește extrem de mult, ...avizul favorabil nu are, practic, nici o valoare, neputând determina obținerea pașaportului.* ***În al treilea rând*** *- există Comisia Guvernamentală căreia i se aduc la cunoștință opțiunile de emigrare și această comisie decide eliberarea ori refuzarea pașapoartelor*”(p. 26).

Autorul argumentează, de asemenea, și decizia de a emigra împreună cu soția sa: *Vă mărturisesc că nu mă interesează în niciun* *chip, părerea acestor comisii în legătură cu exercitarea de către mine a unui drept inalienabil și pentru simplul motiv că* ***suntem, eu și soția mea, majori, deplin răspunzători de hotărârile noastre*** *și* ***nu aparținem cu titlu de proprietate nimănui****, deci nici acestor comisii...* (p. 26). Enunțul *suntem, eu și soția mea, majori, deplin răspunzători de hotărârile noastre și nu aparținem cu titlu de proprietate nimănui* sunt argumente obiective fundamentate legitim.

Nu mai puțin convingătoare este și decizia pe care o ia autorul în legătură cu emigrarea fiicei sale, o fetiță de doar 8 ani: „*În ce o privește pe fiica noastră, având* ***doar opt ani****,* ***după toate legile acestui pământ****,* ***doar noi****, părinții ei, hotărâm pentru ea,* ***până la vârsta majoratului****, ce trebuie să facă și ce nu.* ***Așa cum ați făcut și Dumnevoastră cu copii Domniei voastre***” (p. 28). Modalizatorul *doar* (*doar opt ani, doar noi*), sintagmele *după toate legile acestui pământ, până la vârsta majoratului,* precum și enunțul *Așa cum ați făcut și Dumnevoastră cu copii Domniei voastre* sunt argumente elocvente care îl plasează pe cititor de partea autorului și-l fac să trăiască aceeași emoție, cerându-i să acționeze, să ia atitudine cu referire la fărădelegile ce au loc.

Dorin Tudoran este cel care comunică și se comunică prin enunț, încălcând topica stricturii clasice a enunțului, o încălcare necondamnabilă, or scopul autorului e de a transmite o informație amplă printr-o structură cât mai laconică. În același timp, enunțul este pentru autor mijlocul său de manipulare și de pronunțare împotriva puterii politice și a deciziilor acesteia. Astfel, discursul lui Dorin Tudoran e structurat din enunțuri bimembre dezvoltate: *Așadar, consider existența acestor comisii drept un simplu abuz* (p. 26); *Acestea sunt motivele esențiale ale hotărârii mele* (p.26) etc., accesibile cititorului, identificăm însă și propoziții monomembre, de tipul: „*Inutil*”, ceea ce echivalează cu *este inutil*: o structură predicativă, care trădeaza emoțiile negative ale autorului, decepția sa. În *Scrisori* e atestată și fraza lungă, compusă (alcătuită, de obicei, din 3-4 propoziții) care îmbină deseori, înaintarea unei teze cu explicarea acesteia. În acest sens, sintaxa frazei se distinge prin complexitate, efect al predominanței raportului de subordonare (mai rar, de coordonare) între propozițiile principale sau între subordonatele omogene. Fraza, de fapt, denotă stilul lui Dorin Tudoran, particularitățile lui de reflecție; felul cum sunt structurate frazele trădează intenția autorului de a transmite o informație mai amplă. Constatăm o încălcare a topicii obișnuite: propozițiile subordonate sunt antepuse propoziției regente. De exemplu în structura sintactică: *„Ceea ce nu înțeleg și nu pot accepta în aceste realități mi-a devenit din ce în ce mai străin*” (p. 25), propoziția regentă este anticipată de două subordonate completive directe, intenția autorului încălcând linearitatea enunțului. Aceeași situație o atestăm și într-un alt enunț: *„Dacă însă tristul obicei de a nu Vi se înmâna, întotdeauna, astfel de scrisori ori nici măcar de a fi corect informat cu privire la conținutul și importanța lor, va acționa și de astă dată și după amnistia de la 23 August nu-mi vor fi înmânate pașapoartele, mă Veți înțelege și mă veți scuza pentru impolitețea de a face publică această scrisoare personală*” (p. 29) în care autorul plasează subordonatele la începutul enunțului. Atunci când starea de tensiune crește, fraza *Scrisorii* devine mai amplă: *Deși nu mă mai miră aproape nimic din ceea ce se întâmplă azi în România, îmi este încă imposibil să-mi explic, cum de nu realizează administrația ce o conduceți că o politică internă, burdușită de un puhoi de ilegalități, rămâne cauza esențială a neputinței de a face, cu adevărat, plauzibilă o politică externă românească, legitimă în aspirațiile ei esențiale* (p. 30).

Altădată, fraza conține propoziții eliptice de predicat, pe care autorul intenționat le utilizează pentru a evita repetițiile: *Și, dacă în cazul lor, care știu* ***pentru ce*** *și la cât timp au fost condamnați, amnistia înseamnă dreptul de a reveni acasă, în cel al meu, care nu știu pentru ce am fost condamnat și* ***la câtă vreme****, înseamnă eliberarea pașapoartelor* (p. 28). Segmentul sintactic eliptic (în funcție de predicat verbal simplu, la diateza pasivă) solicită ca cititorul să poată analiza structurile date în profunzimea lor, pentru a restabili segmentele: *pentru ce au fost condamnați și la cât timp au fost condamnați*; *pentru ce am fost condamnat și la câtă vreme am fost condamnat*. Uneori, evitarea repetițiilor dă naștere unor stucturi sintactice, decodarea cărora poate fi făcută numai de un cititor avizat: *Restul-deși deseori dramatic, alteori doar confuz și dureros, dar totdeauna având darul să-mi umple sufletul de amărăciune și lehamite- restul, Excelență, nu e decât aspectul anecdotic al situației noastre, și, în mod firesc, de acum, el nu are cum și de ce să Vă intereseze...* (p.26). Astfel, structura eliptică *nu are cum* și segmentul lipsă *să Vă intereseze*, pot fi interpretate ca un predicat verbal compus, în componența căruia *nu are cum* echivalează cu semiauxiliarul *nu poate* (*nu trebuie*) și verbul de bază *să vă intereseze*.

În calitate de element relațional, la introducerea propozițiilor subordonate în frază, un regim bogat, din punct de vedere funcțional, îl are deicticul discursiv *ceea ce* care pune accentul nemijlocit pe acțiunea din propoziții: „***Ceea ce nu înțeleg** și nu pot accepta în aceste realități mi-a devenit din ce în ce mai străin*” (p. 25); *Dacă Vă scriu, totuși azi, nu este spre a Vă solicita vreun sprijin privind **ceea ce**, de acum, **consider** a nu mai avea o importanță pentru mine: trecutul și prezentul meu* (p. 25); ... *îmi e greu să cred că **ceea ce obținea** un scriitor și cetățean sovietic de la Iosif Vissarionovici Stalin, în timpul celei mai cumplite terori, îi poate refuza Domnia voastră, azi, în 1984, unui scriitor și cetățean român* (p. 26) etc. În același timp, la structurarea discursului, își mai dau concursul și alți conectori pragmatici ca: *acel ce* (*cel ce*), *acei ce* (*cei ce*): *Ea nu are, deloc, darul de a oferi **celui ce** a luat-o prea multă liniște, din foarte multe motive, lesne de înțeles* (p. 28); *Așadar, Excelență, eu am ales drumul **celor ce** se dau la o parte din calea a ceea ce nu înțeleg și nu pot fi obligați să accepte* (p. 28).

E de remarcat și faptul că scrisorile abundă în structuri negative: *este imposibil să-mi explic, nu mă mai miră nimic, neputința de a face, a nu putea servi, anularea definitivă, lucru irealizabil* etc. Emoțiile negative îmbracă și haina unor structuri de tipul: *din ce în ce mai ostile*, *din ce în ce mai străin* sau *cel mai profund dispreț, cel mai trist drept,* acestea fiind forme ale superlativului. Structurile menționate reliefează intensitatea emoțiilor pe care le trăiește autorul în momentul respectiv. Tot aici se înscriu și structuri de tipul: *extrem de dificil, dramatic, confuz, dureros, abuz, realități ostile, **i**realizabil, **im**posibil, **im**penetrabil, **ne**convenabil, **ne**alterat, **ne**potrivit, **ne**favorabil, cu **ne**putință, la **ne**sfârșit, de **ne**înțeles.* Cuvintele compuse cu ajutorul prefixelor negative „*ne-*”, „*im-*”, „*i-*” sunt un mijloc de accentuare a gravității situației politice din România, dar și un indiciu al stării de neliniște și de nemulțămire a autorului.

O deosebită expresivitate comportă și alte structuri sintactice prezente în *Scrisoare*, precum: *calvar birocratic și epuizant, a ispăși pedeapsa, maladie înfiorătoare, puhoi de ilegalități, ostatici de conștiință, practică teroristă, realitate ostilă, înjosire camuflată, filtru inutil și abuziv, pedeapsă supremă, înalte instanțe, perete mut și impenetrabil, profund dispreț, mizerii dezonorante, climat străin, profunda incompatibilitate, plecare definitivă* care conturează, de fapt, situația politică din România în perioada guvernării ceaușiste.

Expresive sunt și frazeologismele utilizate, care plasează *Scrisoarea*, ca structură discursivă, în contextul cultural românesc:

În ruptul capului (= nicidecum, niciodată): *Nu doresc, în ruptul capului, să-mi descopăr –simultan- mie însumi, altora și alte virtuți!* (p. 28);
A fi sarea și piperul (= a constitui elementele principale): *Lăsați-mi, Excelență, nealterat acest drept de a greși pe cont propriu, care este sarea și piperul oricărei aventuri existențiale!* (p. 30);
A ține un fluviu în loc și a bate cuie în apă (= lucruri zădarnice, fără rost, inutile): *„ ...iluzia administrației Dvs. de a fi considerată, cu adevărat, una pe măsura intereselor poporului român riscă să aibă exact aceleași șanse cu cele ale unui om care, dorind să țină un fluviu în loc bate, la nesfârșit, cuie în apa acestuia* (p. 30).

Sugestive sunt și *interogațiile retorice* care exprimă starea de spirit a autorului. Prin intermediul lor, autorul atrage atenția asupra a ceea ce el însuși vrea să explice: „*Dar nu e, implicit, Comisia Guvernamentală și una de partid? Nu reprezintă ea atât autoritatea de Stat, cât și cea de partid? Atunci, de unde obligația să mai aștept-luni de zile-spre a trece prin fața unei comisii tot ...de partid și să iau cunoștință, apoi, de avizul dat*? (p. 26-27)”. E cert faptul că răspunsul la aceste întrebări are rolul de a potența ideea de bază și de a face simțită prezența autorului.

Comparațiile din *Scrisoare* sunt inedite, irepetabile, evaluînd două epoci diferite, cea a scriitorului sovietic de pe timpurile lui Stalin cu cea a scriitorului român de azi: *îmi e greu să cred că ceea ce obținea un scriitor și cetățean sovietic de la Iosif Vissarionovici Stalin, în timpul celei mai cumplite terori, îi poate refuza Domnia voastră, azi, în 1984, unui scriitor și cetățean român* (p. 29) sau, analizând practica teroristă a deținerii de ostatici, autorul compară ostaticii de conștiință cu cei din timpul deturnării unui avion: *Între* ***deturnarea temporară a cursului unei călătorii*** *și* ***deturnarea cursului unei vieți*** *există o imensă diferență, ce califică terorismul căruia eu și mulți alți români îi suntem victime...* (p. 30). Politica promovată de Stat autorul o compară cu „***un om*** *cu un picior lipsă, înscriindu-se întotdeauna, fără șanse reale, la o cursă de sprint sau la una de maraton. Cu un singur picior cât de cât ...competitiv-politica externă, și cu unul pe care singură și-l tot amputează, până la chiar anularea definitivă-politica internă, iluzia administrației Dvs. de a fi considerată, cu adevărat, una pe măsura intereselor poporului român riscă să aibă exact aceleași șanse cu cele ale unui om care, dorind să țină un fluviu în loc bate, la nesfârșit cuie în apa acestuia*” (p.30). Compararea politicii promovate de statul autoritar cu un om care are un picior lipsă și care, totuși, participă la o cursă vorbește despre instabilitate, nesiguranță, incertitudine, despre o politică care se clatină și care ar putea suferi curând un eșec.

E evident faptul că Dorin Tudoran are un scop bine definit, la care nu va renunța cu ușurință. Astfel, pentru a reda dorința atingerii scopului său, autorul utilizează în scrisoare repetițiile: „*să ni se elibereze de urgență pașapoartele*”, „*să fie îndeplinită dorința mea: eliberarea pașapoartelor*”, „*amnistiția înseamnă eliberarea pașapoartelor*” (p. 26-27). Repetiția aceleiași idei exprimă, de fapt, o forță uluitoare de convingere a autorului în ceea ce privește atingerea scopului propus: *eliberarea pașapoartelor*.

În *Scrisori,* autorul utilizează *ironia* ca armă de luptă împotriva regimului existent: *Sper să am cât mai curând semne că ați primit aceste rânduri și că le-ați acordat **înalta Dumneavoastră atenție*** (p. 29); ***Deși nu pot apela la bunele oficii ale lui Maxim Gorcki** - nici nu-l avem și, oricum, nu știu dacă l-aș fi rugat să intervină - îmi e greu să cred că ceea ce obținea un scriitor și cetățean sovietic de la Iosif Vissarionovici Stalin, în timpul celei mai cumplite terori, îi poate refuza Domnia voastră, azi, în 1984, unui scriitor și cetățean român. Căci bine e, totuși, să sperăm și să acționăm cu toții ca al nostru 1984 să nu semene, întru totul, cu cel al lui George Orwel* (p. 29); *Nădăjduiesc totuși, Excelență, să nu fie nevoie de așa ceva și **să nu mai fiu obligat a o mai deranja pe Excelența-voastră** ori înalte instanțe de stat și partid* (p.29); ***Lăsați-mi**, Excelență, nealterat **acest drept de a greși pe cont propriu**, care este sarea și piperul oricărei aventuri existențiale!* (p. 30); *De aceea nu văd cum **eliberarea unui pașaport** ar necesita mai multă vreme decât împlinirea acestui **miracol** suprem care este **venirea pe lume a unui om***” (p. 26). Așadar, structurile *înalta Dumneavoastră atenție*; *nu pot apela la bunele oficii ale lui Maxim Gorcki*; *să nu mai fiu obligat a o mai deranja pe Excelența-voastră*; *lăsați-mi, Excelență, nealterat acest drept de a greși pe cont propriu* denotă o fină ironie la adresa dictatorului.

În concluzie, putem menționa că Dorin Tudoran, acest sentimentalist, adept al dreptății și libertății, a luptat până la sacrificiu împotriva puterii guvernamentale, fiindcă a știut să mizeze pe adevăratele valori spirituale și pe cele de caracter. Invocăm în acest sens, afirmațiile lui Nicolae Manolescu în *Prefața* la *Kakistocrația*: „*Se implică în tot ce se petrece cu el și cu alții. E sarcastic, dar nu ironic*: *nu ia distanțe*; *participă*; *nu se bucură când i se împlinesc* *presimțitele previziuni*; *suferă*; *nu-și urăște adversarii (deși îi face praf câteodată), se urăște pe sine când își vede confirmate aprehensiunile. E mai presus de toate, un om cinstit, care ar prefera, în sinea lui, să fie contrazis de o realitate pe care o judecă fără menajament*e" [1, p. 9].

Dorin Tudoran nu a exagerat niciodată cu mărcile stilistice, ci, pentru a fi cât mai expresiv și mai convingător, a știut să le dozeze cu multă grijă. Scrisoarea adresată lui Nicolae Ceaușescu rămâne a fi un model neîntrecut de discurs argumentativ, un model al practicii discursive românești.

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DIFICULTĂȚI ȘI PROVOCĂRI ÎN TRADUCEREA TEXTULUI TEHNICO-ȘTIINȚIFIC

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Abstract: The development of science and technology has obviously led to the development of translation in these areas. The translation of technical documentation, user manuals, product catalogues, and even of tutorials has become an essential element in maintaining business contacts between foreign companies, concluding collaborative agreements and in their international activity. Therefore, the aim of this paper focuses on studying this type of specialized translation and on identifying the difficulties and challenges that the translator encounters, as a rule, in the process of translation. Translation as a process is, in fact, a linguistic activity that involves the creation of a new text in the target language and which according to Bell, must preserve the style and content of the original text, i.e. of the text from the source language [1, p.30]. As far as the technical-scientific translation is concerned, it is important to render correctly the linguistic material because errors can cause difficulties in working with documents or equipment. Thus, the translator's main task is to reproduce exactly the way

the information is transmitted in the original, drawing attention to the technical nuances, so that, the translated text could have eventually the same function as the original text and could instrumentally contribute to the technical-scientific field as a whole. The quality of translation, in this sense, is determined by the accuracy of the translated text and it proves that the translator has efficiently used the proper linguistic and specialist knowledge, terminology and the characteristics of scientific and technical documentation in accordance with all the requirements of scientific and technical translation.

Keywords: specialized translation, terminology, scientific-technical style, scientific text, technical text

Este universal recunoscut că astăzi traim într-o lume care, material și intelectual, a fost creată de știință; știința și tehnica fiind cu adevărat forța motrice a civilizației moderne. Automobilul, televizorul, calculatorul, telefonul inteligent, Internetul sau oricare alt dispozitiv sau sistem din multitudinea de dispozitive sau sisteme cunoscute azi au fost inventate și create prin aplicarea științei. Acest fapt, indiscutabil, a condus la apariția unor noi cuvinte care să exprime noile concepte, tehnologii și invenții, iar aceste cuvinte sunt, în mare măsură, de origine engleză, datorită rolulului pe care limba engleză il are la nivel mondial. Progresul tehnologic, desigur, are un impact considerabil și asupra altor sau mai bine zis, tuturor limbilor care beneficiază de acest transfer de cunoștințe, din motiv că informațiile cer a fi decodate iar noile dispozitive inteligente a fi utilizate. Prin urmare, acest val în continuă expansiune de concepte și tehnologii noi prezintă o provocare intelectuală majoră pentru cei implicați în acest schimb de informații, iar traducătorii și terminologii sunt pe linia întâi.

Se poate cu certitudine spune că acest tip de traducere profesională și industrială a fost în mare parte neglijat în literatura de specialitate. În 2004, Franco Aixelá raporta că din 20,495 de publicații enumerate în BITRA, doar 1,905 sau 9,3% erau traduceri tehnice, pe când traducerea literară constituia aproximativ 4,314 de înregistrări, ceea ce reprezenta 21% din numărul total de intrări. Raportul de 2,3 în favoarea traducerii literare atestă în mod evident interesul sporit al specialiștilor anume în acest tip de traducere [8, p.32].

Traducerea literară întotdeauna a beneficiat de o reflectare mai serioasă în toate formele sale deoarece potrivit specialistilor, printre care se poate menționa și filosoful spaniol Ortega y Gasset, aceasta e mai solicitantă, implică o elaborare mai creativă a textului și cere ca traducătorul să păstreze această creativitate într-un mod asemănător originalului, pe când traducerea textelor științifice și tehnice presupune abordarea doar a unui tip de text/discurs în care vocabularul sau dacă e să fim mai exacți, terminologia este sau cel puțin tinde a fi univoc/ă, cu echivalențe gata pentru utilizare, și un stil simplu și direct. Prin alte cuvinte, se invocă că oricine cu o stăpânire bună a limbii și cu cunoștințe tehnice avansate poate produce un text tehnic sau științific bun, pe când cei care ar putea scrie un roman sau un poem bun, chiar și în limba maternă, sunt foarte puțini. Așa dar, traducerea tehnică era antrenată în primul rând, în căutarea specialiștilor buni care să cunoască terminologia.

După cum menționează Franco Aixelá, Schleiermacher, încă în 1813, refuza să-i numească traducători pe cei care se ocupau de traducerea neliterară sau științifică, susținând că aceasta este o activitate mecanică și nu o creație literară [8, p.29]. Lamentabil, astfel de considerații se regăsesc și în prezent. Se merită a atenționa că necătând la faptul că UNESCO cere ca numele traducătorului să fie inclus în documentul tradus, numele traducătorilor tehnici este aproape imposibil de găsit în vreun colț al lucrării publicate și aceasta se observă cel mai mult în revistele științifice. Acest fapt consolidează idea de activitate mecanică și subminează statutul traducătorilor tehnici la cel al unui simplu suport tehnic, fără vreo influență specială din partea traducătorului asupra conținutului sau efectului textului publicat, atât timp cât, desigur, traducătorul cunoaște terminologia. Observăm deci, că până în a doua jumătate al secolului XX, acest tip de traducere nu prezenta interes pentru cercetători, pentru că după părerile multora din ei acest limbaj auxiliar și univoc nu avea cum să prezinte probleme, cu excepția, desigur, a cunoștințelor tehnice pe care traducătorul trebuia să le posede.

Un rol exraordinar în dezvoltarea traducerilor științifico-tehnice îl are lansarea revistelor Babel (1955) și Meta (1956), două reviste esențiale în istoria traductologiei care au schimbat viziunile specialiștilor privitor la traducerea științifico-tehnică. Noile reviste au oferit o platformă nouă, academică pentru un domeniu de cercetare în creștere, care până atunci nu avusese propriul său spațiu academic specific și se pierduse printre toate revistele lingvistice, literare și științifice. Acum însă, s-a instituit o nișă pentru acest tip de traducere, un spațiu academic prestigios pentru munca cercetătorilor încurajați de faptul că erau citiți cu interes pozitiv în acest domeniu nou de cercetare.

Anii 60 și 80 ai secolului XX i-au orientat pe lingviști spre studierea limbajelor de specialitate, iar odată cu ele se dezvoltă și traducerea specializată care de fapt vine ca o continuare a traducerii științifico-tehnice numai că mai ramificată, în dependență de specificul și domeniul textului de tradus. Dorința autorului de a obține un auditoriu mai mare plus poziția limbii engleze ca limbă internațională a contribuit la aceea că majoritatea specialiștilor preferă să-și publice lucrările nu în limba maternă dar în engleză, iar aceasta tot e o formă de traducere specializată.

Globalizarea și piața forței de muncă cere ca viitorul specialist să fie competent în limba străină în domeniul său de activitate și, prin urmare, recent s-a înregistrat o creșterea bruscă a studiului academic al limbilor străine pentru scopuri specifice. Acest curent, precum și constituirea terminologiei ca ramură a lingvisticii a condus la o nouă conștientizare a complexității și structurii textelor de specialtate și a traducerii lor, astfel conferindu-i traducerii științifico-tehnice un nou statut.

Astăzi, traducerea științifico-tehnică încearcă să-și găsească locul în cadrul teoriei traducerii dar nu există încă o claritate unde ea ar putea să se stabilească, iar literatura de specialitate face cititorul și mai confuz. In primul rând, unii specialiști, precum Byrne, ne sugerează să fim atenți atunci când utilizăm sintagma *traducerea stiințifico-tehnică* că să nu confundăm lucrurile. Potrivit lui, traducerea științifică face referire la știință în toată gloria ei teoretică, esoterică și cerebrală, în timp ce traducerea tehnică face referire la modul în care cunoștințele științifice sunt efectiv puse în practică [2, p.8]. Prin urmare, traducerea științifico-tehnică este un termen generic utilizat cu referire la științe, cercetarea științifică aplicată și tehnologie. Scopul unei lucrări științifice este de a informa, a explica, a justifica, a reda, și câteodată chiar de a impresiona sau de a distra. Un autor va folosi întreaga gamă a limbii, în cadrul convențiilor și normelor specifice, pentru a prezenta informațiile într-un mod interesant, serios și impresionant. Un bun exemplu ar servi cărțile și revistele popular-științifice care formează un subgrup al textelor științifice și tind să aibă un mod de exprimare mai puțin oficial și mai ziaristic. Un ghid de instalare sau un manual de utilizare, pe de altă parte are menirea să ajute pe cineva să facă ceva. Scopul aici se concentrează pe redarea informațiilor de care are nevoie utilizatorul final. In mod respectiv, se va folosi un limbaj simplu, clar și concis pentru a reda exact aceasta. Textele științifice vor fi mai dificile din punct de vedere conceptual și vor fi mai abstracte decât alte tipuri de text. Textele bazate pe tehnologii, pe de altă parte vor fi mai concrete, undeva mai colocviale și vor caracteriza concepte care sunt mai usor de înțeles. Pe lângă aceasta, vor face referire la produse și procese existente în lumea reală.

Nida, spre exemplu, susține că din punct de vedere pragmatico-cultural, textele tehnice și științifice sunt mai simple și mai usor de tradus, comparativ cu alte texte, cu condiția că cele două limbi participante în acest transfer au careva caracteristici științifice comune, dar dacă traducerea se face dintr-o limbă indo-europeană într-o limbă care se află departe de știința și cultura vestică, atunci acest proces este unul destul de anevoios [5, p.223].

Vom prezenta în continuare o serie de afirmații false, preluate de la Byrne, care reprezintă dificultățile și provocările cel mai serioase cu care un traducator se confruntă atunci când abordează acest tip de traducere.

1. În traducerea tehnică se pot include economia, dreptul, afacerile, etc.

Potrivit DEX **tehnic** înseamnă „**I.** Adj. Care aparține tehnicii (**II**), privitor la tehnică” https://dexonline.ro/definitie/tehnic. Această definiție ne dă de înțeles că traducerile tehnice, trebuie asociate cu tehnologiile și textele din domeniul tehnologic, texte pe subiecte bazate pe cunoștințe aplicate din științele naturii. Existența unei terminologii specializate, nu face textul tehnic. În discutarea traducerii tehnice este util să facem distincție între traducerea specializată și cea tehnică. De exemplu, religia are o terminologie foarte specifică și convenții foarte clare, dar ea nu este considerată „tehnică”. Tendința printre anumiți teoreticieni de a include textele specializate, cum ar fi textele juridice, financiare și economice în domeniul traducerilor tehnice, nu este una reușită, deoarece fiecare domeniu își are propriile caracteristici, cerințe și constrângeri unice.

2. Traducerea tehnică însăși este terminologie.

Această concepție greșită nu este unică printre cei implicați în traducerea tehnică. Un număr de persoane, surprinzător de mare, care se ocupă de traducerea tehnică împărtășesc această convingere și susțin că vocabularul este cea mai semnificativă caracteristică lingvistică a textelor tehnice. Acest lucru este adevărat în măsura în care terminologia este, probabil, cel mai vizibil aspect al unui text tehnic și, într-adevăr, îi conferă textului „combustibilul” de care are nevoie pentru a transmite informațiile. Cu toate acestea, potrivit lui Newmark *„Traducerea tehnică se distinge în primul rând de alte forme de traducere prin terminologie, deși terminologia reprezintă,* *de regulă, doar aproximativ 5-10% din text. Caracteristicile sale, trăsăturile sale gramaticale (pentru engleză, pasivizarea, nominalizarea, a treia persoană singular, formele temporale, etc.) fuzionează cu alte alte varietăți ale limbii"* [6, p.151].

În acest tip de activitate, traducătorii trebuie să producă texte identice cu cele produse de scriitorii tehnici în limba țintă, iar nerespectarea convențiilor textelor în limba țintă poate submina credibilitatea textului, a autorului și a informațiilor din text. Prin urmare, mai importantă decât terminologia este competența de a scrie aceste texte.

3. Stilul nu contează în traducerea tehnică.

Textele care reprezintă materiale științifice și academice tind să utilizeze un registru mai oficial bazat, de cele mai dese ori, pe o terminologie de origine greco-latină specifică temei. Aceasta este trăsătura principală care ne ajută să distingem cu ușurință acest registru de limba standard. Totuți, în dependență de scop și destinatar, această tendință poate varia foarte mult. Dacă comparăm limbajul manualelor școlare, cu articolele din revistele de specialitate și cu lucrările unor experți din domeniu atunci această diversitate se va observa cu ochiul liber. Unele din textele tehnice, cum ar fi de exemplu, manualele și revistele de specialitate destinate publicului larg, sunt adesea mult mai puțin oficiale și prezintă trăsături mai prietenoase și mai apropiate de limba standard.

Newmark, de exemplu, sugerează să se facă distincție între:

1. Limbajul sau stilul academic, care include, de regulă, lucrări academice cu termeni neoclasici, și elaborat cu minuțiozitate.
2. Limbajul sau stilul profesional, sau cum i se mai spune adesea, limbajul experților, caracteristic oralității, când specialiștii folosesc termeni contemporani în locul celor de origine greacă sau latina, ca de exemplu „epidemie", „rujeolă", etc.
3. Limbajul sau stilul popular, cunoscut ca vocabularul nespecialiștilor, care include cuvinte alternative, familiare, pe înțelesul tuturor și cu o circulație frecventă în popor, de exemplu, „molimă" „vărsat", „cori de vânt", „pojar" [6, p.153].

Și atunci, dacă noi privim stilul ca modul în care scriem, sau modul în care alegem cuvintele și construim propoziții, atunci stilul este în egală măsură important, în traducerea tehnică.

Să luăm în considerație un prospect care conține instrucțiuni pentru utilizarea unui produs. Spațiul disponibil limitat impune atât autorul prospectului cât și traducătorul să exprime informația clar, simplu și concis, și în același timp să transmită toate faptele necesare astfel încât cititorul să înțeleagă complet și rapid informația. Această situație necesită utilizarea unui limbaj expresiv pentru a obține efectul scontat.

Fiind un limbaj funcțional, se crede că limbajul tehnic trebuie să fie „simplu" și fără vreo formă de stil sau identitate lingvistică. În realitate, însă, crearea unui text tehnic este un efort extrem de complex, iar stilul este încă o fațetă a sa. Prin urmare, conștientizarea existenței stilului în acest tip de text, poate avea un efect mult mai profund asupra calitatății textului tehnic tradus.

4. Traducerea tehnică nu este creativă; ea este pur și simplu un proces de reproducere.

Această interpretare este oarecum falsă. Este prea ușor să supraestimăm sau să exagerăm simplitatea aparentă a traducerii tehnice. Pentru a reda informația într-un mod adecvat și eficient, traducătorii tehnici trebuie să găsească soluții lingvistice noi și creative pentru a asigura o comunicare reușită. Această sarcină este adesea destul de anevoioasă din cauza vocabularului restrâns și a constrângerilor stilistice care fac traducerea tehnică o realizare foarte impresionantă.

5. Trebuie să fii expert într-un domeniu specializat.

Există o convingere răspândită precum că, pentru a fi un bun traducător tehnic, trebuie să fii expert într-un domeniu specializat, dar bineînțeles că nu te poți specializa în mai mult de una sau două domenii. Traducătorii însă, înarmați cu o înțelegere bună și solidă a principiilor și tehnicilor de bază, încearcă să distrugă acest mit. Potrivit lui Byrne care-l citează pe Robinson „traducătorii ... își câștigă existența pretinzând că sunt specialiști licențiați în profesii pe care ei de fapt nu le-au practicat niciodată. Ei sunt ca actorii care intră în rol" [2, p.5].

Presupusa *„pretindere de a fi expert"* invocă cunoștințe suficiente de specialitate, iar în cazul când acestea îi lipsesc să le complementeze prin cercetare. Cercetarea unui nou domeniu pentru realizarea traducerii derulează mult mai ușor atunci când știi măcar cât de puțin despre acest domeniu. Prin urmare, este esențial ca traducătorii să aibă competențe excelente de cercetare, să utilizeze pe deplin textele paralele și să înțeleagă foarte bine principiile științifice și tehnologice generale. Traducătorii tehnici, de asemenea, trebuie să scrie cu aceeași autoritate ca și experții din limba textului original. În acest caz, provocările reale ale traducătorului tehnic se reliefează prin capacitatea de a studia materia și de a obține cunoștințe de specialitate, pecum și studiul modului în care experții dintr-un anumit domeniu își scriu textele. Reieșind din acestea, putem rezuma ariile de expertiză esențiale pentru traducătorii tehnici:

- cunoștințe de bază în materie;
- competență de scriere;
- competență de cercetare;
- cunoașterea genurilor și a tipurilor de text.

6. Traducerea tehnică ține doar de transmiterea informațiilor de specialitate.

Potrivit lui Byrne, această afirmație nu este totalmente adevarată. Traducătorii tehnici trebuie să asigure că informațiile sunt transmise cu exactitate și tot ei sunt responsabili și de prezentarea informațiilor în forma corectă și completă ca ulterior să fie utilizate corect și eficient. Astfel, responsabilitățile traducătorului înglobează multe dintre cele ale autorului tehnic și ar putea implica schimbări radicale [2, p.6].

Traducerea tehnică este un proces destul de complex care cere cunoașterea detaliată a culturilor limbilor sursă și țintă, a convențiilor limbii țintă, a tipurilor de texte, a genurilor, a registrului, a stilului și chiar și a înțelegerii auditoriului. Prezentarea simpla a informațiilor cititorilor nu este suficientă. Cititorii trebuie să poată asimila informațiile fără a depune mult efort. Informațiile prezentate în documentele tehnice sunt mai degrabă un mijloc decât un scop și nu ar trebui să îngreuneze activitatea cititorilor.

Pentru a asigura calitatea, Institutul de Lingvistică din Londra a stabilit o listă a cerințelor pentru traducătorii științifico-tehnici:

1. cunoștințe profunde a materiei/domeniului textului care urmează a fi tradus;
2. imaginație bine dezvoltată care să-i permită traducătorului să vizualizeze echipamentul sau procesul descris în textul care urmează a fi tradus;
3. inteligență, pentru a putea completa lacunele din textul original;
4. capacitatea de a distinge, în scopul alegerii celui mai potrivit termen echivalent din literatura de specialitate sau din dicționare;
5. abilitatea de a folosi limba maternă cu claritate, concizie și precizie;
6. experiență practică în traducerea din domenii conexe.

Atât observația sistematică, cât și experiența empirică ne-au arătat că nu există o relație de echivalență unu-la-unu între ceea ce poate fi considerat „academic” (și / sau oficial) în limba engleză și în română. Pentru a susține aceasta, putem compara termenii și expresiile românești ca ***a executa, a realiza, a constitui, a întreprinde, relativ / privitor la, comparativ cu, etc.***, care tind să fie mai neologici și puțin mai oficiali, cu echivalențele lor englezești: *to do, to make, to be, to carry out, about, on, unlike, etc.*, care sunt mai neutri în limba engleză. Aceasta divulgă, în principiu, posedarea sau dobândirea „bunului simț” necesar la soluționaraea problemelor ce țin de traducere și adaptare. Este un adevăr că limbajul tehnic și științific românesc este mai oficial decât cel englezesc. Acest lucru se datorează în parte faptului că limba română este prin natura sa mai aproape de latină și deci mai aleasă în exprimare. În abordarea traductologică a textelor tehnico-științifice, trebuie mai întâi de toate să conștientizăm exactitatea textului tradus, în ceea ce privește modul în care acesta transmite scopul scriitorului textului sursă cititorului textului tradus. În felul acesta, textul tradus va contribui instrumental la domeniul tehnico-științific în ansamblu.

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SEMANTIC STRUCTURE AND EVALUATING CHARACTERISTICS OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS WITH COMPONENTS DENOTING AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS
(with reference to Ukrainian, English and German)

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Abstract: The article is dedicated to the complex study of Ukrainian, English and German phraseological units with components naming people by their occupation in the agriculture-related industries. The person designations reflecting the place people occupy in social relationships network make up an important part of any language lexis, as they represent the nature of various social roles, values and views of different ethnical and social communities. The article highlights structural, semantic and stylistic features of set phrases with components denoting agricultural occupations. The role of denotation for the profession of this type in the formation of the phrase meaning is traced. Special attention is paid to evaluation of agricultural occupations, their approval or condemnation in the language society. As a result of the research, it is stated that phraseological units with components denoting agricultural occupations in Ukrainian, English and German express a wide range of meanings. In the inner structure of set phrases these professions may have direct original meanings as well as the following derivative phraseological ones: the denotation of any worker, social status, a certain type of personality. It is concluded that a positively evaluated verbal stereotype of a farmer represents the basic concepts of human activity: labour, though difficult, is considered to be the basis of a happy and prosperous life. Agricultural occupations meet all the requirements existing in public consciousness, such as benefit, creative work, physical labour, importance of a product, responsibility, quality of work and its complexity, qualifications; that is why they are highly appreciated.
Keywords: phraseology, phraseological unit, proverb, agricultural occupation, structural and semantic features, evaluating characteristics.

The studies of phraseological units containing lexemes of a certain semantic class are an important scientific field in modern phraseology. They allow deeper study of certain features of set phrases, such as structural and semantic or national and cultural ones focusing on some definite fragments, aspects and components of the phraseological picture of the world.

J. I. Golovanova analysed estimated categorization of a professional in Russian phraseology, taking into consideration agricultural occupations as well. The researcher points out that Russian culture, as a part of Slavic cultures, is agricultural by its nature, and therefore the images typical of agricultural and peasant labour and life are the basis for the Russian language picture of the world. Many Russian proverbs and sayings confirm this statement, e.g.: *Сеять разумное, доброе, вечное; Что посеешь – то пожнешь; Один с сошкой — семеро с ложкой.* The estimation of a plowman (*a peasant*, or a hyponymous *reaper or mower)* turned out to be positive within phraseological material. A plowman is presented as hard-working *(Хвастать не косить — спина не болит; В августе серпы греют, вода холодит; Где пахарь плачет, там жнея скачет: Не печь кормит, а нивка: Не будет пахатника, не будет и бархатника; Крестьянскими мозолями и бары сыты живут),* but poor person *(Меж сохи да бороны не укроешься; От трудов праведных не нажить палат каменных).* In addition to names of people by their occupation this image also includes denotations of typical actions (mowing, plowing, sowing, etc.), the farmer`s tools (a plow, a chain, a scythe), the results of his work (a crop field, bread), as well as clothing elements (shoes) [5, p. 287].

The aim of our research is to study Ukrainian, English and German phraseological units with components denoting agricultural occupations in terms of their structural, semantic, stylistic features and evaluating characteristics. We stick to wide understanding of the term “phraseological unit”, including idioms, similes, proverbs and sayings into it. To achieve this aim we set the following tasks: 1) to identify and study the structural and semantic features of phraseological units that contain the component denoting an agricultural occupation in the Ukrainian, English and German languages; 2) to trace the role of an agricultural or related professional name in forming idiomatic meanings; 3) to disclose comprehension and evaluation of the agrarian sector representatives from the point of view of the language society.

Ukrainians are the nation with an ancient, highly developed agricultural culture. Mainly this occupation caused the traditional way of life, material culture, the system of major holidays, ceremonies and traditions (agricultural calendar in particular), world outlook, spiritual values of the Ukrainian people.

Agricultural occupations revealed in the phraseology of the languages under study can be divided into two groups: 1) those connected with land and plants: in Ukrainian – *хлібороб*, *жнець*, *плугар*, *орач*, *молотник*, *косар*, *копач*, *городник*; in English – *farmer*, *plowman*, *gardener*; in German – *Bauer*, *Scheunendrescher*, *Gärtner*; 2) those connected with animals: in Ukrainian – *пастух*, *лиман*, *вівчар*, *різник*, *кушнір;* in English – *shepherd*, *shearer*, *flayer*, *cowboy*, *milkman;* in German – *Schäfer*, *Hirt.*

Among the names of people according to agricultural activity, we can distinguish a separate subgroup with the meaning "landowner, master, owner", which is notable not only for purely professional, but also for social and property characteristics: these people owned and managed the land in one or another way.

In Ukrainian phraseology, the most common of this group is the word *пан* (a landowner). Since it has several meaning, we are only interested in the following lexical and semantic variants: "1) landowner in ancient Poland, Lithuania, pre-revolutionary Ukraine and Belarus; 2) the one who held a privileged position in pre-revolutionary society, belonged to wealthy classes of the urban population, intellectuals; 3) the one who has power over others; owner" [10: 6, p. 41]. This lexeme can be found in 180 phraseological units.

The lexeme *господар* (landlord) used in 26 set phrases also has several meanings in the Ukrainian language, but only the following are acceptable for denoting people by occupation: "the one who deals with farm and domestic economy", "an owner", "a private employer of the labour force" [10: 2, p. 140]. The word *хазяїн* (an owner) is almost synonymous to the previous one with the semantics: "the owner of the farm and domestic economy", "enterpriser, capitalist", "the peasant, who owns the land and has the necessary tools of labour; a farmer" [10: 11, p. 8]. Having these meanings it is used in 34 set phrases. The English equivalents of previously mentioned Ukrainian lexemes are the word *master* (used in 23 idioms), but only in the meaning "a man who has control or authority over servants or workers", "the owner" [6, p. 1012], the word *holder* (used in 1 set phrase) “someone who owns or controls something” [6, p.776] and *host* (used in 2 idioms) “owner, manager” [7]. In the phraseology of the German language we can state the occurrence of the word *Herr* (18 phrases) with the meaning “1) a ruler of small possession; 2) a minor landowner in the XIV-XV centuries” [9] and similar in meaning *Wirt* (4 idioms) belonging to this subgroup.

In the original meanings, the names of people by agricultural occupations can be found in proverbs, sayings and similes, denoting properly people by profession, craft, temporal or amateur occupations. In other words, one can state the identity of the direct and derivative meanings in the phrases of such types, at least in case when these set phrases can be interpreted using word for word translation. It can be demonstrated in Ukrainian proverbs *Два когути, два дими, дві **господині** ніколи не погодяться* [8, p. 209]; *Земля потребує доброї погоди, доброго насіння, доброго **робітника*** [2, p. 5]; English – *The **labourer** is worthy of his hire*; German – *Ein **Bauer** zwischen zwei **Advokaten** ist ein Fisch zwischen zwei Katzen*; *Der **Herr** sieht mehr mit einem Auge, als der **Knecht** mit vieren* (also *Wenn der **Herr** kurzsichtig ist, so ist der **Diener***).

It becomes obvious from the above-mentioned examples that among the phrases, where the names of people by agricultural occupations are used in their original meaning, there are also such expressions in which these denotations express mixed characteristics – social economic combined, for example, with cultural and appraisal. Another proof of this statement may be Ukrainian proverbs ***Пан** завжди паном, а **хам** хамом* [8, p. 260]; *Не дай, Боже, з **хама пана*** [8, p. 97], in which the landowner is presented as a person with a high social status and he is characterized by elegant manners as opposed to a man of low social origin. The meaning of these proverbs can be disclosed as follows: people who have a certain social economic status, have their own norm of culture and cannot change their own nature. The level of behaviour, upbringing, and even intelligence is reflected in the associative field of the person`s name by his / her occupation. Many names of people by their occupation have derivative meanings that are not generated by the inner phraseological context, but are realized in it. Derivative meaning “the one who has power over others” is realized with the help of Ukrainian lexemes *пан*, *хазяїн* and *господар*: *бути **паном** чого* “to become the owner of something, to manage and use something freely” [10: 6, p. 41]; ***пан** або пропав*; *На готовий крам найдеться **пан*** [8, p. 228]; *В своїй* *хаті кожний* ***пан*** [2, p. 71]; *сам собі* ***пан***; *В своїм добрі всяк* ***хазяїн*** [8, p. 429]; ***господар*** *становища*; *Не той* ***господар*** *землі, що по ній бродить, а той, хто по ній за плугом ходить*. English nouns *master* and *mistress* can have the same meaning (compare "a man who has control or authority over somebody or something" [6, p. 1012] and "a female owner; the woman who is in control of something" [6, p. 1012]): *the* ***master*** *of misrule* "the head of Christmas entertainment" [3, p. 13]; *to be* ***master*** *of one`s* (or *of one`s own*) *time* "to manage one`s time freely" [3, p. 102]; *lord and* ***master*** "1) a man, a lord; 2) the master, the head" [3, p. 626]; ***master*** *of ceremonies* "1) ceremonial master 2) entertainer" [АУФС, p. 666]; *to be* ***master*** *of one`s self* "to control oneself; to keep calm" [3, p. 102]; ***master*** *of the revels*; ***Master*** *of the Rolls*; ***master*** *of the situation*; *meat for one`s* ***master*** "something too beautiful for somebody" [3, p. 669]; *Money is a good servant but a bad* ***master*** "a person must dispose of money, but not vice versa" [3, p. 677]; *Love is the* ***master*** *of all arts*; ***mistress*** *of the Adriatic* "the city of Venice" [3, p. 676]. German lexemes *Herr* and *Meister* can also have similar derivative meaning "einer, welcher Macht und Gewalt über eine Person oder eine Sache hat" [9]: ***Herr*** *der Lage sein* [4, p. 276]; *Jeder ist* ***Herr*** *in seinem Hause* "Everybody is a master in his own house" [4, p. 277]; *der* ***Herr*** *und* ***Meister*** [1]; ***Meister*** *über etwas werden* and others.

Being used as components of idiomatic phrases, predicative in particular and proverbs with figurative meanings, the names of people by the agricultural occupations express the following common derivative phraseological meanings:

1. "A worker", or an employee, that is, a person who performs some kind of work, which is not necessarily the one indicated by the occupation name. The generalizing metaphor can be traced in the following English set expression: *A bad* ***shearer*** *never had a good sickle*.

2. "Social status". First of all, it should be noted that any name of a person by occupation also denotes a certain social status, which is related to the work performed. However, in this case a somewhat generalizing meaning is emphasized – "position by significance", lower or higher, depending on the name itself. At the same time, the emphasis is put on the reputation gained by its performer rather than the type of activity. Accordingly, some occupations are more or less important for the society, for example: Ukrainian proverb *Побраталася свиня з* ***пастухом*** (sarcastic depicting of the desire to

have friendly relations with more significant people); German saying *Der **Herren** Sünde, der **Bauern** Buße* «Пани грішать, селяни спокутують» (it can be interpreted in such a way that someone is guilty, and another person who has lower status in society is punished).

3. “Some certain type of personality”. The vocabulary, used in phrases, reflects the features associated with the denotations, which are reflected in the inner form of these formations. Thus, in the inner phraseological context the Ukrainian lexemes *хазяїн – хазяйка* and *господар – господиня* show the correlation with such a feature as diligence: *В доброго **хазяїна** й соломинка не пропаде* [2, p. 37]; *Як маєш буть злим **господарем**, то волюй буть добрим челядником*; *Краще бути гарною наймичкою, ніж ледачою **хазяйкою*** [8, p. 458]. Besides laziness and idleness are condemned in the proverbs containing these denotations: ***Господар** – що свині попродав* [8, p. 450]; ***Господиня**: три городи, одна диня* (it is about the lazy housewife who has not planted the garden); ***Господиня** Маґда по припечку гайда* [8, p. 478]; *Се Химка **хазяйка***; *Химка й **хазяйка**, та лопати нема* [8, p. 477]. It is pointed out that a wife should be a skilled housewife (and not necessarily beautiful). First of all she should cook tasty dishes: *Красоти на тарілці не краяти: аби з нею **господиня** була* [8, p. 379].

In the Ukrainian proverbs *Макогін **хазяїн** у хаті* and *Кочерга до печі **хазяйка** – вона своє діло зна, жар загріба* both professional lexemes denotes a significant role of these tools in the housekeeping, probably in family relationships as well.

The inner form reflecting some certain real, albeit figuratively, situation mostly related to the professional activity is characteristic of many phraseological units under study. The process of agricultural activity is represented by the German idiom *den **Herrn** herauskehren* (or *zeigen*) “to behave oneself like a master” [4, p. 277], Ukrainian proverb *Січень січе та й морозить, **ґазда** з лісу дрова возить* [2, p. 32], *Де **копачі** копали, там і гроші пропали* [8, p. 515]. The inner form of some of these phrases, which reflect the working process realities, is also connected with the labour effectiveness. The correlation existing between the work quality and its result is presented by the inner form of such Ukrainian proverbs: *Ледаякого **бортника** і мед ледачим пахне* [8, p. 328]; *Де **орач** від напруженої роботи плаче, там жниця від гарної пшениці скаче* [2, p. 53].

Many phraseological units contain the names of labour means and tools that also play their role in creating a phrasal meaning, being connected with the working process. Ukrainian proverb *Вийшли женці в поле жати та й забули **серпи** взяти* proves that fact. The importance of the instrument both for the worker and for an average person is also underlined in the Ukrainian proverb: *Без **плуга** не орач, без **молота** – не коваль*.

Consequently, the inner form of the phraseological units is characterized by using names of objects, things and concepts, which people of a certain kind of occupations deal with. Thus, there is some connection between the meanings of some occupations and certain objects associated with them, for example, "shepherd" – "herd (cattle)" in the Ukrainian proverb *Який пастух, така і його череда*; нім. *Wie der **Hirt**, so die **Herde*** (or ***Vieh***).

In the sphere of every kind of professional activity, there are some beliefs, values, and views common to representatives of a particular profession. Any activity affects people who are engaged in it. On one hand, occupation proposes them a set of requirements related to the presence of these or those physical, mental and intellectual abilities. On the other hand, it forms a person`s perception of the surrounding world.

The Ukrainian language picture of the world is based on images and stereotypes typical of peasant labour and everyday life. The main occupation is agriculture, it is a traditional source of material goods, and this can be proved by the presence of the corresponding vocabulary in the structure of Ukrainian idioms and proverbs: *У серпні **хліборобу** три роботи: і косити, і орати, і сіяти* [2, p. 32]), *В **орача** руки чорні, та хліб білий, **Плугач** оре і в праці рветься, а панське черево отак аж дметься* [8, p. 91], *Добрий **женець** не питає, чи широкий загінець.* The inner phraseological context of these set phrases shows that agricultural labour is hard and exhausting; it requires diligence and persistence from its performers. In English idiomatic phrase *afternoon **farmer*** "a lazybones" [3, c. 21] inner form indirectly indicates the hard work in agriculture, which begins at dawn; consequently, the *afternoon farmer* is one that is unwilling to get up early.

This positively evaluated verbal stereotype of a farmer, associated with the given lexemes, represents the basic concepts of human activity: labour, though difficult, is considered to be the basis of a happy and prosperous life.

As a result of the research, we can state that phraseological units with components denoting agricultural occupations in the languages under study express a wide range of meanings. Except their direct meanings, these professions have the following derivative phraseological ones: the denotation of any worker, social status, a certain type of personality. There is a scale of values in public consciousness of a certain people according to which representatives of certain professions are evaluated. The categories of this scale include: public benefit, creative work, physical labour, importance of a product, responsibility, quality of work and its complexity, qualifications. Agricultural occupations meet all these requirements and that is why they are highly appreciated.

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MEDIA EDUCATION AND INTERNET TECHNOLOGIES IN THE PROCESS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract: Today millions worldwide are Internet subscribers. It is easy to have the Internet connection everywhere: in different educational and social settings, coffee shops, public transport, shops, classrooms etc. This article attempts to investigate the usage of the Internet and Internet technologies in the process of teaching English as a foreign language, as at present to go with the times it is impossible for a teacher to neglect the interests and requirements of his students. We admit several problems with the traditional system of education: you need to pay thousands of dollars per term to attend a prestigious school or University. But today you not always need to leave you home for studying - online learning has to be the greatest revolution in contemporary education. It is obvious that lifelong learning via the tools we describe in the article must now be a part of everyone's career plans. In modern job market, taking online courses help workers remain competitive and they don't need to take time off from their jobs to do this. Here we describe media education and its different aspects: network society, IT platforms and Virtual Learning Environment as alternative, easy, interesting and convenient methods of teaching.

Keywords: media education, Internet technologies, social networks, educational apps, Virtual Learning Environment, English as a foreign language teaching.

Media process in the lives of modern people is greatly connected with new information and communication technologies. Today this global infrastructure is being developed while shifting information without limits in space and time. That brings to sudden increasing of knowledge importance.

It is impossible to imagine present education without using media communication tools and modern information technologies. Thus, we can define education as a method of personal formation in informational society and pay detailed attention to media education investigation. We may analyze media education as a separate branch of science while its subject is the person's interaction with mass media [7, p. 117].

In general, it is the question of e-learning in ESL teaching which is understood as the use of electronic media information and IT in education. It can be used in or out of classroom, self-paced or with the teacher or instructor guidance. It is often used as a mean of distance learning. It is urging to underline that it was in 1960s when in Illinois University, the USA, they decided to use computers in teaching students [1, p. 2]. Many years have passed since, but we still turn to the method to be widely and successfully implemented in all spheres of our lives, including education. That shows the problem is still vital and important to be investigated.

To prove the above mentioned information, we have included a number of web sites to transform teaching and learning experiences through technology with modern 21st-centiry skills at ESL classes. We would like to start with nearpod.com site which has recently been listed as #1 in a list of ‘The 90 Hottest EdTech tools of 2018 According to Education Experts’.

Why is it so popular? What does it lead for educators? – To register as a ‘Teacher’ account one may use the appropriate grade and subject he teaches (he may also choose the students of higher education or even PhD). The site is full of ready free lessons to be downloaded and uploaded. If to register as a ‘Student’ account it gives the opportunity for students of the whole class to cooperate and interact. It is usually the site which helps to regroup the students according to the pictures that appear on their screen. We consider it to be very useful at the English grammar lessons, as the students are provided quizzes. To find the correct variant they need to cooperate. This increases the team work skills.

One more international web site to be successfully used at ESL classes is quizlet.com which aims at helping students understand and comprehend the material taken of the text book. Monthly it is used by 30 million students and teachers all over the world as an iOS and Android app. It was designed 10 years ago by Andrew Suttarland as a tool for studying French. It became so popular in a couple of months because of its easy access and comprehension.

The two above mentioned apps are only the top of the educational value iceberg given by the Internet and its technologies in the process of teaching English as a foreign language. There are numbers of different tools, apps and programs to help a teacher to make his lessons more creative and adoptive to the students’ interests and requirements. The obvious advantage of using them is easy access, as a student can work with an app even using his mobile or tab Internet connection.

Another aspect that the article touches upon is one more phenomenon within media education – network society. Some scientists consider its rise in communication society, thus, today networks, especially social ones, are playing a substantial role in our lives: networks easily connect people or groups of people according to their interest; they can acquire and create new communicational structures independently, which are difficult for traditional institutions; they can participate in the organization of social communities.

The problem of media education and IT learning has been substantially learnt by many scholars: American researchers A. Diozed, A. Mol, K. Northenstreg investigated the creation and development of social networks in the world. The Ukrainians also pay attention to this problem. T. L. Arkhipova, N.V. Osipova, and M.S. Lvov assert that the social networks as the main tool of educational process organization. V. Bykov underlines the psychological and pedagogical peculiarities of social servers in education, the connection of media education with the studying process.

We appreciate Manuel Castells' works who considers network concept as a space for inter-personal connections which keeps interaction socially; provides help, information, identity, and the feelings of being a part of a definite social group. Another researcher, A. Leschenko, finds social network to be a space for accumulating, storing and spreading information of different source and content that defines its lack of control [8, p. 45].

The Canadian scientists strongly believe that media education builds the positive, creative and pleasurable dimensions of popular culture. It incorporates production of media texts and provides critical thinking among students. In the digital age, the principles of media education are the same as they have always been, but the existence of cyberspace is adding new and challenging questions. The role of a teacher has been greatly changed, as there has appeared an accepted new critical pedagogy. We may emphasize the important challenges on evaluating the right information for one's needs and synthesize what one believes as being useful knowledge [4].

Despite the great variety of approaches to this term, it is possible to cite the following characteristics:

- social networks and network technologies cover all spheres of our lives;
- social networks represent a personally communication-based system;
- social network is a particular medium for participants' interaction;
- every system produced by a network is virtual and can exist independently;
- it has a branchy structure;
- social network aims at sociability – a feeling of ease and confidence within social interactions of a personality [6, p. 55].

Another aspect of media education is Virtual Learning Environment (abbreviated as VLE) which is easily used in the student environment, as a number of schools and higher educational institutions have this learning platform. We may consider VLE as '… an online system that allows teachers to share educational materials with their students via the web' (Moodle, WebCT and Blackboard) [5].

There are a lot of advantages of VLE usage:

- it offers the possibility to use different forums, discussions, polls, feedbacks in the platform;
- students can easily hand in their works without finding a teacher physically;
- teachers can fill the virtual space with different necessary materials (ppt presentations, documents, worksheets etc.) to be used at the course;
- it makes the connection with the pathways to all other online learning spaces;
- YouTube, BBC, newspapers can all be embedded in VLE;
- students and a teacher can share videos and podcasts;
- it offers the possibility to evaluate students skills on a definite studying unit or course, in general;
- it can be accessed very easily by 'Digital Natives';
- the virtual learning can usually take place at a time that is convenient for the student.

Virtual Learning Environment platform has disadvantages when used in teaching English as a foreign language. As Sarah Johnson says, unfortunately, while studying distantly many people are programmed to multi-task when they're on the computer. This could lead to skimming articles or starting videos that turns into background noise as they try to complete another project at the same time which reduces the productivity of their work [2]. It is also embarrassing for some when they cannot ask a teacher for clarification in real time. Others might require lessons that are more hands-on, visual, or auditory than what a teacher may offer on his platform. Finally, VLE does not provide human-to-human contact, which may limit teacher's opportunities for team-building and role-playing activities, brainstorming, or discussion.

We consider it is impossible to rely only on VLE platform learning while teaching English. We have to supplement it with in-person classroom-style training on as-needed basis.

To conclude, we have identified a few demerits of integrating IT platforms and apps into a teaching school environment. Still, we cannot deny the many advantages of the virtual learning. The virtual classes aim at stimulating informative interest to the language; making a class creative; contributing to students' team work. The bottom line here is that any institution that wants to offer online classes should be ready to invest in a good virtual classroom and learning management system.

The question of using IT platforms and computer environment is rather disputed. As Tom Snyder foresees a time when there will be totally virtual colleges and universities, and students will not only take classes at their own institution, but enroll in courses at the great institutions around the world [3]. It will easily give the opportunity to communicate with outstanding scholars; it will offer the possibility not only to study political science with Bill Clinton or science with a Nobel Prize winner, but will give the opportunity to communicate with native speakers worldwide. Finally, any educator who wants to be in pace with the world educational changes has to use the new Internet tools (IT platforms, media tools, social networks etc.) to involve students in studying English, as these platforms and apps are the future of all the educational establishments.

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PHRASEOLOGICAL MEANING THROUGH THE TRADITIONAL AND CULTURE-ORIENTED APPROACH

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Abstract: This article discusses the issue of phraseological meaning from the cognitive culture-oriented perspective, which is based on two key assumptions. The first is that language and culture are two separate and interacting semiotic systems, while phraseological units are the products of

this interaction. Thus, phraseological meaning is formed as a result of inter-semiotic transposition, i.e. transfer of some conceptual information from nonverbal signs of culture system into the verbal ones of the language system.
The second assumption results from the first and stipulates that phraseological meaning is a two-strata structure, the surface stratum and the deep stratum. The deep structure encloses the conceptual foundation based on cultural elements and the surface stratum is its embodiment into language signs.
We have chosen the semantic field of emotions to put in practice the cognitive culture-oriented analysis. Anthropologists have proven that emotions are not simply physiological reactions of human bodies, they are also the result of people's cultural interpretation of extra-linguistic reality. Thus, we shall try to identify the conceptual information that underlies phraseological units depicting human emotions.

Keywords: phraseological meaning, linguocultural approach, cognitive culture-oriented analysis, conceptual metaphor.

1. Introduction: an overview of the traditional approach

The study of phraseology has been an area of linguistic interest since the beginning of the 20th century, when the French linguist Ch. Bally and later the Russian V.V. Vinogradov laid the foundations of phraseology, which contributed to its establishment as an academic discipline in its own right. Linguists worked out to define the notion of phraseological unit, its characteristic features and what distinguishes it from a word combination. Particular attention has been paid to the phraseological meaning and the way it differs from the meaning of a word or a word combination, thus developing the field of phraseological semantics. Despite the evident differences of various phraseological schools[1] with respect to the issue of phraseological meaning, there is a wide agreement on its inherent features.

Summarizing the interpretations of phraseological meaning of such linguistic sources as encyclopedias, linguistic dictionaries and manuals of linguistics (e.g. Phraseology and culture in English, The Encyclopedia of Linguistics, The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics, (Kunin [10]; Teliya [18]) phraseological (or idiomatic)

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[1] Russian School of Phraseology and East European Phraseological School. The growing interest in this field in Europe has been marked by several symposia on phraseology, which resulted in the foundation of the European Society of Phraseology (EUROPHRAS).

meaning is defined by such features as: 'non-compositionality', 'opacity' (or 'transparency'), and 'motivation’.

By non-compositionality linguists mean that the phraseological meaning, as a meaning of a multiword construction, is not determined by the individual meanings of the constituent parts of the expression[2], e.g. bring home the bacon - ‘supply material support’, spill the beans – ‘reveal information unintentionally or indiscreetly’, kick the bucket - ‘ ‘die’ (informal), etc.. In the early stages of phraseological research, it was considered that the phraseological meaning is fully opaque and unmotivated therefore, it was characterized by arbitrariness. Thus, according to Kunin, there is no direct connection between the form of the multiword construction and the phraseological meaning [11, p.98-107]. However, recent research has established that opaqueness of phraseological meaning is a gradable feature. Thus, Cowie points out that phraseological meaning ranges from transparent ‘free combinations’ at one end to opaque idioms at the other, e.g., to go wrong – ‘malfunction, make a mistake’ and to eat crow – ‘to be humiliated by having to admit one's defeats or mistakes’ [2, p. 579-585]. Opaqueness is closely related to motivation, the more transparent is the expression, the greater the degree of its motivation. Motivations of phraseological units has become a point of discussion for many specialists in the field. Gibbs emphasizes that the common opinion of the traditional approach to phraseology is that the idiomatic meaning of phraseological units arises from dead metaphors, “mostly from historical circumstances that are opaque to contemporary speakers and have little to do with ordinary human cognition" [6, p. 104]. Mainly such an opinion made it possible to speak of ‘figurative’ and ‘non-figurative’ phraseological units.

The inner architecture of the phraseological meaning was studied along with the issues within the interest of traditional framework. It was established that the organization of phraseological meaning is rather intricate and consists of interconnected semantic components. Traditionally, Kunin speaks of three components of the phraseological meaning: signification, denotation and connotation

[2] However, several linguists (Gibbs and Nayak,1989; Gibbs, Nayak and Cutting, 1989; Gibbs, Nayak, Bolton and Keppel, 1989) argue that it would be a mistake to overgeneralize non-compositionality and apply
it to the whole group of idioms and assume that per se all idioms are non-compositional in nature.

[10]. Veronika Teliya goes further and develops a functional-parametric model of phraseological meaning. The scholar speaks of six inter-related macro-components: descriptive, evaluative, motivational, emotive, stylistic, and grammatical [18, p.18-35]. Kopylenco, Popova [9] Melerovich [15], identify different methods of component-based analysis. Considering the scientific value of the above mentioned works, as well as those of many other linguists, we can say that the study of phraseological meaning in terms of its constituents offered valuable data on its semantic complexity and heterogeneity.

The traditional approach, which was developed in the classical period of phraseology, made a great contribution to the science of phraseology by determining its boundaries, identifying the main features of the phraseological unit, carrying out a systematization of the phraseological fund, taken into account the above mentioned properties[3] and determining the semantic components of the phraseological meaning. As a whole, it contributed to the understanding of the essence of phraseology and to the description of its specifics. However, as Baranov and Dobrovol'skij claim, in traditional works on phraseology, the study of phraseological semantics was confined, to a great extent, to rather general observations [1]. In particular, the traditional approach failed to determine how phraseological meaning is formed, how cultural or sociocultural information is encoded and stored during its creation and then is retrieved by speakers while using phraseologisms in actual communication, as well as how the mechanisms of phraseological processing work [22, p. 256].

2. Linguoculturological approach to phraseological meaning

It should be mentioned that the origins and much of current practice in analyzing phraseology in a culture-oriented perspective belong to the linguoculturological approach, developed in the works of Veronika Teliya and her followers (Kovshova, Krasnych, Beliaevskaya, Zykova, Oparina, etc). This School of Phraseology

[3] Wolfgang Fleischer (1982) and Harald Burger et.al. (1973, 1982) developed the ‘center – periphery’ classification of phraseological units, based on the feature of idiomaticity. Although the schemes proposed by these scholars vary to some extent, both of them claim that the most idiomatic phraseological units are placed in the center of the scheme and those with a lesser degree of idiomaticity gradually go to the periphery.

contributed to phraseology such fundamental notions as cultural connotation, cultural codes, cultural-linguistic competence, cultural layers of phraseology and worked out an innovative lexicographic principle of culturological description of phraseologisms.

The linguoculturological approach to phraseology means studying different ways and forms of interaction between culture and language resulting in the formation of phraseologisms as embodiments and transmitters of cultural information from generation to generation. Making the knowledge about the process of this interaction explicit and in this way finding and understanding how cultural information is translated into phraseological meaning is one of the main concerns of the linguoculturological approach to phraseology at present.

In this study, special attention will be paid to what enables phraseologisms to act as a store of cultural knowledge. Proceeding from the notion of "cultural memory" we set out to show that the phraseological meaning is a complex semantic-conceptual formation, which is capable of reflecting different historical modes of world-cognition and, therefore, of retaining the corresponding types of cultural information (such as intertextuality, pre-scientific knowledge about the world, cultural symbols, including objects of material culture and socio-cultural behavioral patterns (D. Dobrovol'skij, E. Piirainen [3, p. 7-35]. Given this, we can speak of cultural memory reflected in phraseological meaning.

According to Lotman, culture is a collective intellect and collective memory, i.e. a supra-individual "mechanism" of keeping and transmitting some messages or some information as well as a "mechanism" of generating new messages or new information. Lotman especially emphasizes the regenerative character of cultural memory, which makes it possible not just to keep cultural information but multiply it by continuous adding new cultural information to the store obtained earlier [14]. Such an approach actually depicts the process of cultural memory in action as a process of storing cultural information layer by layer. We shall apply the same approach to the phraseological meaning and assume that it is composed of the surface and the deep strata. The surface stratum is constituted by the semes forming what is known as "the meaning" of language units, and might be called the actual (phraseological) meaning registered in dictionaries. The peculiarities of the actual meaning stem from the deep stratum which structures the actual semantic set-up. The deep stratum is a conceptual stratum; it is formed by various conceptual constituents. It is supposed that it is to the deep (conceptual) stratum that the phraseological image belongs. We assume that the process of storing cultural information in phraseologisms is possible due to the conceptual structures, underlying phraseological meaning. Thus, as provided by this approach, the phraseological image is in essence a conceptual formation. Therefore, in research on the problem of phraseological meaning with respect to cultural memory the study of the deep – conceptual – stratum as the stratum of phraseological images comes to the fore.

3. The cognitive approach to phraseological meaning

According to the cognitive approach, phraseological meaning resides in the human cognitive ability to structure the reality conceptually based on human perception of extra linguistic reality. Numerous studies in the field of phraseology provided sufficient evidence that phraseological meaning is conceptually grounded (Langlotz 2006, Moon 1998, Gibbs 1995, etc.). For instance, Gibbs claims that "people's knowledge of the metaphorical links between different source and target domains provides the basis for the appropriate use and interpretation of idioms" [6, p 107]. From the cognitive perspective, we can conclude that conceptual structures, such as metaphors and metonymies that underlie the phraseological meaning, govern the processes of their understanding, application and their behavior in discourse.

Generally speaking, cognitive approach focuses on the cognitive rather than on semantic motivation of phraseological meaning. It attempts to explain the cognitive mechanisms involved in the formation of phraseological units and those involved in their understanding; to reveal the ways in which phraseological units store, accumulate and transmit information that is essential for communication, as well as the mechanisms of their perception**.**

4. Phraseological meaning in a cognitive culture-oriented perspective

The cognitive culture-oriented theory of phraseological meaning, developed by I. Zykova (2016) is based on a number of cognitive, linguoculturological and semiotic ideas. The key assumption of this theory is that language and culture are two separate and interacting semiotic systems (Eco 1984, Hjelmslev 1973, Jakobson 1971, Степанов 1997, Лотман 2001). Consequently, as claimed by Telija, cultural and language signs, in particular phraseological units, are the products of such an interaction [18]. To explore the phraseological meaning that appears as a result of this interaction, Zykova takes Jakobson's term of 'inter-semiotic transposition' (1959), which, in his view, is a process of transferring some information from the system of verbal signs into other systems of signs, for example, into music, dance, cinema, painting, etc. Further, she applies it to the analysis of the relations between language and culture. Thus, Zykova states that "the phraseological meaning is formed as a result of inter-semiotic transposition, which is understood as a transfer of some conceptual information from nonverbal signs of culture into verbal, i.e. phraseological signs" [22, p.261]. For inctance, the meaning of the phraseological unit ace in the hole 'a major advantage that one keeps hidden until an ideal time' seems to be formed due to the transfer of particular conceptual contents from the semiotics of card playing (in particular, poker) to the language semiotics; whereas strike (hit) the false note 'do something wrong or inappropriate' from the semiotics of music into the language semantics.

Another key idea of the cognitive culture-oriented analysis of phraseological meaning is the assumption that the meaning is a two-strata structure that includes the surface stratum, mainly the semantic one, and the deep, which is a conceptual stratum[4]. Thus, we can assume that there is a transfer of signs from the semiotic system of culture into that of the language, resulting in the formation of the deep (conceptual) stratum of the phraseological meaning, which underlines the surface (semantic) stratum of the meaning. The deep structure encloses the conceptual foundation based on cultural elements and underlies the phraseological image.

To carry out a cognitive culture-oriented analysis of phraseological meaning we will take the semantic field of emotions. Human beings cannot help having emotions as they are part of the psychosomatic make-up. The sociocultural features of emotions have been studied in cultural anthropology and from this perspective, emotions are not simply physiological phenomena within people, they

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[4] The terms were first introduced by N. Chomsky, referring to syntactic structures. In *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (2014), Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner point out that, in a looser sense, "deep and surface structure are often used as terms in a simple binary opposition, with the deep structure representing meaning, and the surface structure being the actual sentence we see."

are also the result of people's cultural interpretation of the world they inhabit. Therefore, everyday language of emotion is seen as embodying culture-specific theories, sometimes with a long history.

Following the Theory of Conceptual Metaphor, developed by Lakoff and Johnson, metaphor is central to emotion [12]. The physical manifestations of emotion are blushing, trembling, changes in expression, eye contact or avoidance of it, etc., which are visible to others. This is reflected in the vocabulary, including idioms. The semantic field of English phraseological units expressing JOY includes such idioms as: to be in the seventh heaven, to walk on air, over the moon, be lighthearted, etc. These idioms designate happy states through analogies present in their images. One of the imagist depiction of joy and happiness is the conceptual metaphor HAPPINESS IS UP, a state which also goes with lightness, while GRIEF IS DOWN as a state which goes with weight, e.g. to have a heavy heart, to be down/ to be down in the dumps, feel let down, feel low, sinking feeling. A likely source of such a conceptual metaphor may serve the medieval theory of humors, which although not current, remains in the Anglo-Celtic cultural memory, and possibly European as a form of folklore. The theory offers explicit explanation for the conceptual metaphors underlying these phraseological idioms.

According to the theory of humors, the choler, phlegm, blood and melancholy are linked, on the one hand, to planetary influence (Mars, Moon, Jupiter, Venus, and Saturn), and on the other, to the natural elements, fire, water, air, and earth. The belief in humors as the causes of health and disease went with the belief in the influence of planets as a factor affecting the proportion and combination of choler, phlegm blood and melancholy in the body [5, p. 123].

It is this proportion of any humor that is relevant to the metaphors of emotions. In their imagery, idioms typically imply the superabundance of a certain emotion and by implication the excess of a particular humor. Although the average language users today are unlikely to know anything about the humors per se, they draw on the resources of language, which still retains in its meaning system concepts traceable back to the Middle Ages. Choler, melancholy, passion and sluggishness were thought to originate in the liver (bile), the stomach, the heart and the brain [ibid, 124]. The belief in such origins could be a possible reason for the preponderance of body-part idioms in English.

The heart and the brain dominate the imagery of emotions in English. The heart symbolizes the passions, the affections of the soul, while the head symbolizes the spirit, the rational intellect. While the heart was generally accepted as the seat of the soul, there were many differences of opinion among medieval philosophers regarding the site of the rational spirit. English idioms favor the head and the brain as the seat of the reason and the heart as the seat of emotion.

Emotion – heart, e.g., for one's heart to leap, steal someone's heart, lose one's heart to somebody, have one's heart in the right place, have a soft heart, be kind/good-hearted, break somebody's heart, sob one's heart out, have one's heart in one's mouth, for one's heart to miss a beat, etc.

Rational spirit – head, e.g., have one's head screwed on the right place, keep one's head, have a good head for something, a level head/ level-headed, lose one's head, have one's head turned, have one's head in the clouds, etc.

The figurativeness of the above idioms is, on the one hand, traced back to the medieval theory of humors and on the other, we can also identify a series of concptual metaphors in them, e.g., THE HEAD IS AN OBJECT: have one's head screwed on the right place, lose one's head, keep one's head, etc.

THE HEAD IS MOBILE: have one's head turned, have one's head in the clouds, etc.

5. Concluding remarks. Summarizing, it is worth mention¬ing that each metaphorical model, being a shared conceptual foun¬dation for some number of phraseological images (the amount may vary) becomes an aggregate resource storing cultural information that each phraseological image retains and transmits. The conceptual nature of phraseological images turns out to be a reliable criterion for relating them to cognitive mechanisms of cultural memory. A close consideration of the principles of the forma¬tion of phraseological images has testified to their similarly / identically patterned conceptual organizations.

We can conclude that the combination of the cognitive and linguo-culturological approaches to phraseology gives a new impetus to the development of the general theory of phraseology. The cognitive culture-oriented theory sheds more light on the specifics of the phraseological meaning. In particular, it helps clarify some aspects of how the phraseological (or idiomatic) meaning is formed, how cultural or sociocultural information is encoded into phraseological signs, as well as to bring out cultural specifics of the process of formation of the phraseological unit.

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PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHER TRAINING REFORM PROJECT IN UKRAINE: ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING AND OF LEARNING

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Abstract. The article highlights the essentials of the PRESETT reform project in Ukraine, key findings of the Baseline Study with a focus on assessment, the formative and summative assessments in the new PRESETT curriculum and the ways assessment is and can be used for improving student teachers' learning. The author mostly draws on the material worked out by the project team. Based on the findings and recommendations of the Baseline Study the project team has developed new ways of assessing progress and achievement within the Methodology Curriculum of the PRESETT Bachelor's programme. The assessment follows the principles of transparency, variety and balance, link to outcomes, manageability for methodology teachers and progression over the programme. In the new curriculum, continuous assessment is both formative and summative assessment, and the final assessment is summative. A special focus is given on the latest results of the piloting of the new curriculum carried out at Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University. The piloting of Modules 1, 2 and 3 of the curriculum has demonstrated that student teachers are efficient users of such types of continuous assessment as presentation and quiz, while they still need to improve reflective writing and personal account. The research offers classroom strategies that are effective in promoting formative assessment practice – the use of questioning, student thoughtful reflection, effective teacher feedback, peer feedback, student self-assessment, redrafting of the work, and the formative use of summative assessment. It also supports the idea that the following techniques/tools associated with formative assessment – checklist, classroom journal, conferencing, discussion, examples of good work, learning diary/log, open-ended questions, rubrics and sharing assessment criteria – can help students to learn more effectively.

Keywords: baseline study, PRESETT, methodology curriculum, continuous/progress assessment, final/achievement assessment, formative/summative assessment, assessment for/of learning.

The PRESETT reform project in Ukraine initiated jointly by the British Council Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine in March 2013 aims at satisfying the country's need in new generation teachers of English able to create opportunities for learners to master English as a foreign language using the principles of humanistic and communicative language teaching, task-based, learner-centred and autonomous learning.

Research background and methodology. The Baseline Study conducted between March 2013 and March 2014 at eight pedagogical universities with the use of ELT methodology curricula analysis, stakeholder surveys, stakeholder interviews, etc. established how language teaching methodology was taught at university level in

Ukraine. The key findings of the Baseline Study in terms of assessment were as follows: methodology widely taught and assessed as a theoretical discipline; insufficient attention to modern ways of assessing progress and achievement in a foreign language; no unified approach to the final assessment of student teachers [11]. Guided by the results of the Study, the project team (including the author of this article) consulted by Rod Bolitho, UK and Olexandr Shalenko, Ukraine and supervised by Viktoriia Ivanishcheva, project manager, British Council Ukraine have developed the new assessment within the Methodology Curriculum of the PRESETT Bachelor's programme that is based on the principles of transparency, variety and balance, link to outcomes, manageability for methodology teachers and progression over the programme. Let us consider each principle in turn.

Thus, transparency is ensured through assessing what is learned and taught, clear specifications expressed in a short and simple way, time in the course provided for discussing specifications and dealing with any queries from students, clear criterion-referencing for allocation of marks so that students are able to use the criteria without difficulty for self-assessment purposes, and clear feedback to students. During the course, student teachers are to complete a variety of assignments (e.g. poster presentation, review, lesson plan) with a maximum of three types of assessment per semester. Understanding that it will not be possible to deal with every learning outcome through an assessment task, we selected them. Besides, the outcomes are expressed in an assessment-friendly way, and both tutors and students are able to see a very clear link from the assessment specifications back to the learning outcomes in each module, which can be seen from Table 1.

Table 1. Sample correlation between outcomes and assessment specifications

outcomes expressed in an assessment-friendly way	a very clear correlation between assessment specifications and learning outcomes
…students should demonstrate the ability to evaluate course books for a specific learning/teaching context (Module 4)	*Module 4, Item 2* *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. *Criteria:* *Task fulfilment (relevance, number of words) – 5%* *Evidence of understanding and using the materials evaluation criteria – 15%*

The project team made sure that course teachers have time and resources for the tasks they propose, e.g. a ten-minute presentation is to be done by a group, accompanied by a short piece of individual reflective writing; also, criteria are manageable and there is a maximum of three criteria per task. In case of essay, reflective writing, or report a clear word limit is set. A sample of an assignment with assessment criteria is given below.

Write a personal account (between 250 and 300 words) of your own language learning experience addressing motivation, self-esteem, learning styles, learner strategies, interlanguage development stages; how much of your English knowledge has been learnt and how much acquired (20% of total for the module). Make sure your assignment meets the following assessment criteria: task fulfilment (number of words, deadline met) – 5%; evidence of the ability to reflect on the learning experience – 10%; coherence of writing – 5%.

The principle of progression over the course of study is ensured through simpler tasks given early in the programme with increase in complexity and more direct reference to classroom teaching towards the middle and end, as seen from the examples below:

- simpler tasks given early in the programme, *e.g.: an open-book quiz* (Module 1), *an analysis of a lesson observed during school practice* (Module 2), *group poster presentation based on observation* (Module 3)
- more complex tasks towards the middle and end, *e.g.: a test design task* (Module 4), *a lesson plan with rationale for teaching a specified group of young learners* (Module 5), *an individual professional development plan* (Module 6)

- more direct reference to classroom teaching towards the middle and end, e.g.: *an individual multi-layered portfolio task on skills based on school practice and materials design* (Module 3), *classroom materials evaluation* (Module 4), *an individual report on classroom action research* (Module 5), *feedback on a peer's observed teaching* (Module 6).

Assessment in the new Methodology Curriculum consists of two main components: continuous assessment and final assessment [12]. To plan assessment successfully, the team members, all being methodology teachers, have developed shared understanding of the concept of assessment as what Huba and Freed [2000, p.8 cited in 13, p.257] think is "the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences and to use the assessment results to improve subsequent learning." By those sources of information we understand classroom learning and teaching, as well as module assignments – the sources teacher collects data from for progress and achievement assessments. Together with Driscoll and Wood we understand progress assessment as formative, the one meant for learning as it is "ongoing assessment that provides information, about progress, misunderstandings, need for clarification, and so forth" [4, p.86]. On the contrary, achievement assessment is summative, that meant for identifying the quality of learning, as Palomba and Banta [9, p.7-8) put it: "[summative assessment is] conducted after a program has been in operation for a while, or at its conclusion, to make judgments about its quality or worth compared to previously defined standards for performance." Thus, in the new methodology curriculum, continuous assessment performs the function of both formative and summative assessment and the final assessment, the function of summative one.

Continuous assessment is carried out by the methodology teacher throughout the course of instruction. Assessment tasks are designed to reinforce learning throughout the programme. As the programme consists of 6 modules (See Appendix 1), each has specified outcomes assessed by a combination of stand-alone assignments and portfolios including two or more assignments of such types: quiz, personal account, presentation, report, essay, reflective writing, materials and test design, lesson plan, case study and professional development plan. Assessment criteria vary according to assignment type. At the end of the course, all the scores for 10 module assignments are averaged to yield a final grade. Beside teacher assessment, students are provided with self-assessment checklists to use at the end of each unit of a module, for self-assessment is an integral tool in the process of developing students' autonomous learning skills. A sample of a self-assessment checklist is given in Appendix 2.

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%), and qualification paper (30%). Each component is assessed separately according to different criteria. To have a better understanding of the long-term goal in the PRESETT curriculum as expressed in the Profile of a Newly Qualified English Teacher, let us consider the 6 areas of teaching competencies, such as:

- Understanding learners *(e.g. Reflect on their learners' language learning processes)*
- Planning lessons and courses *(e.g. Plan lessons taking into account insights from previous classes)*
- Managing the lesson *(e.g. Provide appropriate feedback to learners)*
- Knowing the subject of English *(e.g. Use a range of techniques to guide learners in working out answers to their own language queries and correcting their errors)*
- Knowing the subject of methodology *(e.g. Select and create appropriate tasks and materials for the classroom)*
- Managing own professional development *(e.g. Understand the principles of reflective practice)*
- Evaluating and assessing learning *(e.g. Equip learners with tools for assessing their progress and achievement)*. Undoubtedly, gaining these competencies will help student teachers in planning and carrying out progress and achievement assessments in their future classrooms.

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 that correlate with Newly-Qualified Teacher Profile. Grades are distributed between the Portfolio (40%) and observed lessons (60%). At the end of observed teaching, student-teachers should submit portfolio, which includes the following documents: a profile of a class (number of learners, age, levels, learning styles, learning needs, SEN) – 10%; lesson plans and supplementary materials for two different levels- 20%; reflective writing (300-450 words) on a lesson (student's choice) incorporating feedback from a peer, a mentor or a supervisor – 10%. It is recommended that students should be assessed on the basis of ten observed lessons. Two of these lessons are observed and assessed by the course teacher and eight by the school mentor. The course teacher should assess classes at two different levels (primary and secondary). Here student-teachers are expected to demonstrate skills in the four areas of professional behaviour according to the criteria shown in Appendix 3.

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. To pass the Methodology course, students must be successful in all of the three components described above. For the criteria for the qualification paper see Appendix 4.

Results and discussion. The piloting of the new methodology curriculum began in the fall term of 2016/17 academic year in the 8 universities engaged in the Baseline Study and two other universities. One more institution of higher learning joined the pilot group in the 2017/18 academic year. At present 11 universities, 51 university teachers, 968 students, 46 secondary schools and 188 school mentors participate in the piloting of the new PRESETT curriculum. It should be mentioned that 6 new teacher training universities are going to join the piloting in the 2018/19 academic year. This will bring to the project many new stakeholders.

At Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University, the new PRESETT curriculum is being implemented by 8 methodology teachers, 2 pilot groups with a total of 43 students (11 – the 2nd year of methodology; 32 – the 1st year of methodology), 19 mentors from 4 secondary schools. As the piloting of the new methodology curriculum started in September 2016, the students of experimental groups have already covered the content of Modules 1, 2 and 3 and completed the obligatory written assignments at the end of each module. Evaluation of the module assessments results got at Precarpathian University has demonstrated that student teachers are efficient users of such types of continuous assessment as presentation and quiz, while they still need to improve reflective writing and personal account. The reasons for different degrees of success, we believe, are the following: presentation and quiz belong to the so-called traditional types of assessment widely practised in general English classes and the majority of theoretical disciplines, whereas reflective writing and personal account are new to students, hence they fail to fulfil some task requirements. Among the assessment criteria our student teachers have shown insufficient ability to provide evidence of are as follows: 'reflection on the learning experience', 'making practical recommendations for developing autonomy in learners with reference to relevant theories', 'reflection on the key learning points across units' (Module 1); 'reflection on microteaching and learning experience' (Module 2); 'reflection on and a personal account of learning from the experience of the entire assignment' (Module 3). Here, it should be noted that by 'insufficient ability' we understand a student achieving the score for a certain criterion less than 60% of the total. For more detail, see Table 2 below.

Table 2. Results of Module 1, 2 and 3 assessments

Module/number of students completing assessment	Criteria/number of students
Module 1 (45 students)	reflection on the learning experience – 17 students • making practical recommendations for developing autonomy in learners with reference to relevant theories – 21 students • reflection on the key learning points across units – 14 students
Module 2 (11 students)	• reflection on microteaching and learning experience (analysing the content of the module from different perspectives; argument support) – 5 students
Module 3 (11 students)	reflection on and a personal account of learning from the experience of the entire assignment – 4 students

As in Modules 4, 5 and 6 of the Methodology Curriculum students have to master such new types of assessment as case study, materials and test design and professional development plan, the course teacher should clarify the new standards through explaining, modelling or providing examples of good work using understandable success criteria to help them judge quality, and refer to the criteria throughout the teaching sequence. Thus, through reinforcing learning throughout the course he/she will create an opportunity for the learners to become successful users of these types of assessment before they start doing their module assignments. Besides, the teacher should use more of the classroom strategies that according to research are particularly effective in promoting formative assessment practice, such as:

- *the use of questioning* as it is used not only as a pedagogical tool but also as a deliberate way for the teacher to find out what students know, understand and are able to do
- *student thoughtful reflection* is the key component in Kolb's experiential learning cycle.
- *effective teacher feedback*, as it focusses on established success criteria and tells the students what they have achieved and where they need to improve. Importantly, the feedback provides specific suggestions about how that improvement might be achieved
- *peer feedback* that occurs when a student uses established success criteria to tell another student what they have achieved and where improvement is necessary. It provides specific suggestions to help achieve improvement.
- *student self-assessment*, as it encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning. It incorporates self-monitoring, self-assessment and self-evaluation.
- *redrafting of the work* involves students in reconsidering the week points through revisiting the material and as a result improve learning.
- *the formative use of summative assessment* that can be made both before and after the assessment event [1].

Research studies have demonstrated that certain techniques/tools associated with formative assessment can help students to learn more effectively. These include: checklist, classroom journal, conferencing, discussion (whole class, small group or paired), examples of good work, learning diary/log, open-ended questions, rubrics and sharing assessment criteria [1; 3; 5]. As practice shows, open-ended questions like *'What has been done well?' 'What still needs to be learned or developed?' 'What needs to be done to improve?'* are a good instrument for formative use of summative assessment, especially when a student-teacher works on the redrafting of his/her assignment or for resubmitting it.

Though the piloting of the new curriculum assessment has revealed certain problems mentioned above, both our students and methodology teachers see clear benefits of formative assessment, which replicate those found in research [8; 10]. The analysis of focus group questions shows that student teachers' motivation has increased; they are more responsible learners and users of assessment; they cultivate lifelong skills such as self-evaluation, self-assessment, and goal setting – the 21st century skills of a competent person; some of them have made considerable progress in the methodology course. As a methodology teacher in the pilot groups of student teachers, and this is a shared opinion [2], I can identify how well my students meet curriculum requirements; I can make changes in teaching and assessment to cater for student's needs, and I am able to enhance their understanding of how to improve learning.

Conclusions. It should be mentioned that changing teaching and assessment practices is a critical element if assessment for learning is to be progressed. At the same time, more attention needs to be given to using those strategies and techniques of summative assessment (self-assessment checklists, learning diary, good examples of work; conferencing; the formative use of summative assessment) which are "more inclusive of the basic principles that are informing formative assessment" [6, p.10; 7].

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Appendix 1. The Structure and Content of the PRESETT Methodology Curriculum

The total number of hours recommended for the programme – 660: 396 contact hours and 264 self-study hours. Recommended number of hours per unit – 30: 18 contact hours and 12 self-study hours.

Semester/ Module	Unit	Semester/ Module	Unit
3/1	Introductory unit	6/4	Planning Teaching
	Psychological Factors in Language Learning		Working with Materials
	Second Language Acquisition		Error Analysis and Dealing with Errors
	Developing Learner Autonomy		Testing and Assessment
4/2	Principles of CLT	7/5	Developing Intercultural Competence
	Teaching Grammar in Context		Teaching Young Learners
	Teaching Vocabulary in Context		ICT in Learning and Teaching
	Classroom Management		Classroom Action Research 1
			Catering for SEN
5/3	Teaching Listening	8/6	Classroom Action Research 2
	Teaching Speaking		Planning for CPD
	Teaching Reading		
	Teaching Writing		

Appendix 2. Sample of a Self-assessment Checklist: Unit 1.3 Developing Learner Autonomy

Now that I have completed this Unit, I can	without difficulty	to some extent	not at all
demonstrate a working knowledge of autonomous learning and the theories and principles underlying it			
give my learners advice and recommendations on how to plan, organise and manage their learning autonomously			
reflect on my own progress as an autonomous learner			
compile and keep my own Language Portfolio			
plan my learners' activities fostering learner autonomy beyond the classroom			

Appendix 3. Assessment Criteria for Observed Teaching

Area of professional behavior	Indicator/ctiterion	Mark
Understanding learners	Materials are selected and, if necessary, adapted to cater for learners with different learner needs and learning styles.	15 %
	Both the activities and suggested ways of doing them are appropriate to learners' needs and age.	
	Learners are involved in different ways of learning that facilitate the development of their learning strategies.	
	Learners are guided in finding and using resources in and beyond the classroom that assist their learning.	
Managing a lesson	Supportive foreign language environment is created and maintained.	15%
	Classroom processes are organised through clear instructions and accurate timing.	
	Interaction in the classroom is set up and monitored according to learning purposes and learning styles.	
	A proper balance between teacher talk and student talk is maintained.	
	Sources of learner misbehaviour are identified and dealt with appropriately.	
	Appropriate feedback to learners is provided and feedback from learners is taken into account.	
	Classroom resources and technologies are used to support learning.	
Evaluating and assessing learning	Appropriate test tasks for assessing skills in a certain learning context are selected.	15 %
	Learning is assessed against the criteria in the National Curriculum.	
	Learners' errors and difficulties are identified, diagnosed and dealt with properly.	
	Appropriate techniques to correct errors in learners' spoken and written language are employed.	
	Learners are helped in understanding their errors and in self-correcting them.	
Knowing the subject of English	A justified use of L1 and L2 in class is made.	15 %
	A good model of pronunciation, use of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy is provided.	
	Language and terminology appropriate to the learners' level and the lesson aims are selected.	
	Full and accurate answers to students' questions about different aspects of language and its usage are given.	
Total		60%

Appendix 4. Assessment Criteria for the Qualification Paper

Criteria		Mark
Context	Clear statement of context, including a profile of the class or classes in focus	5%
Topic	Clear, well-focussed research questions and/or hypotheses on a classroom-based issue or problem Evidence of the ability to relate the issue to relevant theory in the literature.	15%
Classroom investigation methodology	Clear description of research methodology Appropriate choice and justification of research methods and instruments	15%
Findings	Clear analysis and presentation of data and findings	10%
Interpretations, implications and conclusions	Valid interpretations, implications and conclusions, including any materials developed as a result of the investigation	20%
Presentation of the written work	Systematic and consistent referencing Readability: style, organisation and signposting of writing Length and format according to requirements	5%
Total		70%

Criteria for the public defence:

Criteria		Mark
Content of the presentation	The student: gives due consideration to key results of the research provides argumentation to support the most important conclusions demonstrates the ability to reflect on research experience	15%
Dealing with questions	The student: addresses the questions directly and clearly clarifies the fundamental aspects of the research links answers to different aspects of the paper	10%
Form of the presentation	The presentation is clear, structured, comprehensible to listeners and within a time limit	5%
Total		30%

INNOVATIVE CONCEPTS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN SCHOOL

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Abstract: The article deals with the modern approaches of teaching foreign languages in school. Clarified modern methodology in teaching foreign languages in school. Innovative methods that improve the efficiency of learning English in the classroom in high school are described. The use of innovative methods in educational institutions has the potential not only to improve education, but also to empower people, strengthen governance and galvanize the effort to achieve the human development goal for the country. with a number of educational options available before the present generation learners, the newer trends seem to have emerged in the field of education that have entirely changed the face of traditional system of education. Recent trends, methodologies and developments portray the vital role of education sector in general with its internalization of the education process, stress on quality above quantity, increase in the adoption of technologies, necessity for rofessional talent. Methods of teaching English have developed rapidly, especially in the previous years. As a language learner, training manager, or teacher, it is important to understand the various methods and techniques so that you are able to navigate the market, make educated choices, and boost your enjoyment of learning a language.

Keywords: advanced concepts, teaching foreign language, innovative techniques, methodology, learning effectiveness.

At the present stage, regular changes are one of the leading characteristics of modern society. Constant integration of the latest technologies into all spheres of life has led to a continuous improvement of human activity. Immediately decreases the time spent on the implementation of new ideas, knowledge, and technologies in life. And besides, there is a growing need for the latest forms of education, training and acquisition of skills.

Ukraine began its active access to the world and European areas, so there was an urgent need to change certain sectors of society and, in particular, education. There was an urgent need for an intensive study of foreign languages in high school. Modern society requires highly skilled professionals with a thorough knowledge of foreign languages. But the problem is that the methods of teaching foreign languages in schools are outdated and require innovation, especially the use of modern concepts in the teaching of foreign languages in high school.

As knowing of foreign languages is a prerequisite for a modern and educated person, in our case, this is a future student of a higher educational institution, so the applicant must have a sufficient level of foreign language for admission to university. To achieve this goal, some changes must be taken in the language teaching methods of the foreign language.

Today, there are numbers of philology scholars, studying the problems associated with new concepts of studying foreign languages. Among them, the works written by such authors as Sysoeva U.S., Fomina T.N., Nikolaev S.U, Skuratovskaya M.O. etc. Also, the problem of modern innovative teaching technologies was studied by Potashnik M.M, Shibayeva S.A., Khutorsky A.U., Pugachev M.B and others. Certain results have already been achieved in solving a given problem, but there are still many unexplored issues and areas needed to be addressed. The article examines modern concepts of teaching foreign languages at school, which improves the level of students' knowledge.

The aim of the article is to improve the knowledge about modern innovative teaching technologies as a means of improving the quality of the educational process, their application in the educational process, analysis of the teacher and students` readiness to innovate. At the same time, the integration of education and science is a necessary point in ensuring the quality of education and its living development.

The urgency of the question aims that XXI century is characterized by the high development of modern technologies, which occupy a prior place in the life of each person, because along with the development of scientific and technological progress, the demands of quality and the educational process are increased. The quality of education becomes the main argument of human development in the modern high-tech information society, in providing a level of vital and professional competence of a person that would satisfy its aspiration for self-esteem and self-development, and as a consequence, the needs of the society in educated and highly culturally diverse citizens [10, p.21].

According to the quote of the famous scientist Albert Einstein: "Foolishness is to act in the old way and to wait for new results," - is possible to state with enthusiasm that if the world expects new achievements from the educational process, he must introduce new ways to gain the goal. In the modern world, one of such methods is innovative technology.

The idea of the implementation innovative technologies in teaching involves the achievement of the goal of high-quality education, is that, education is competitive, capable of providing each person with conditions for independent achievement of different goals, creative self-assertion in various social spheres [7, p.34].

Innovations - new forms of organization and management, new types of technologies that cover various spheres of human life [18, p.711].

The profession of a teacher requires special attention to constant renewed tendencies of society, the ability to assess rationally the needs of students and, accordingly, adjust education and training activities. Particular importance of such a process has come from the present post-industrial, informational era, which requires many fundamentally new skills, skills and, accordingly, contemporary thinking. One of the most important institutes of human socialization in the present is a school. Young people's preparation for the role of active subjects in future social processes should be extremely attentive to new realities and trends of social development, and to innovations in the field of content, forms and methods of education and upbringing [5, p.121].

The only possible way to increase the motivation to studying is when referring to the actual needs of those who study and to create conditions for their provision. Students should think, understand the essence of things, understand ideas and concepts, and already be able to look for the information they need, interpret it and apply it in specific contexts, formulate and defend personal opinions [5, p.87].

This is facilitated by innovative technologies, the use of which is not aim in itself, but only a means to achieve such an atmosphere in a class that will produce the best cooperation, intelligence and benevolence, makes possible real implementation of person-oriented learning, to cultivate a competent person [5, p.73].

Innovative learning technology is not just an intermediate link between a teacher and a student; but all the changes in the means and methods of teaching which lead to a general change in the content of learning activities, which is gaining more and more independent and creative features, contributes to the implementation of an individual approach to learning.

A major step in the development of computer technology and software facilitated the introduction into the educational process of technologies such as multimedia technologies, Internet technologies, Web design, and their proper exploitation contributes to the complex development of personality and abilities of man [7, p. 3]. Modern teaching methods include the usage of mass media, together with multimedia, computers, computer networks, web sites, electronic textbooks, video programs.

Innovative technologies have positive effect on the learning and educational process primarily because they change the scheme of transfering knowledge and teaching methods. At the same time, the introduction of such technologies into the education system in the conditions of formation highly-developed society is based on the use of computers and telecommunications, special equipment, software and hardware, information processing systems, etc. [14 , p.3].

Teaching innovation means the teachers having creativity, being able to reflect on, to design and to apply new, diverse teaching methods or activities, understanding individual differences of students, stimulating students' learning motivation and interests, enhancing the students' learning effectiveness in the preparation before teaching, in the process of teaching and in student assessment [16]. In short, teaching innovation means teachers having creativity and showing vivid and lively teaching methods to make students interested in learning, thus enhancing the teaching effectiveness. The purpose of teaching innovation for students involves: 1) developing student capabilities for independent analysis, thinking and judgment; 2) stimulating student interest and motivation for learning; 3) tapping student potential in creativity and problem-solving; and 4) enhancing students' learning ability. The purpose of teaching innovation for teachers involve: 1) enhancing teaching quality and effectiveness; 2) having rich and diverse teaching content and methods; 3) having a diversified student assessment; and 4) achieving educational goals and ideals [6][4][2]. From the above, the following hypothesis can be obtained: H 1: Teaching innovation has a significant, positive, direct effect on students'

At the same time, we conclude that increased use of technology in teaching is not a panacea for improved student achievement and that intensified causal research on various innovative teaching methods and experiments is needed. Since the individual teacher is essential when it comes to innovations in teaching, incentives play a crucial role in stimulating educational innovations. The evidence on the returns to different kinds of skills of the students suggests that the central task of the education system is to train students in general skills. From a governance perspective, increased competition at all levels of education by providing more autonomy to the institutions and by more internationalization, and activating important stakeholders like parents and employers, seem to be important policy instruments to increase the innovative capacity of the education sector.

In teaching practice, foreign language teachers often use time-tested, standardized methods and concepts. The process of teaching language continues to be a "modernized version" of the grammar-translation method. Unfortunately, teachers do not take into account the fact that the requirements of foreign language lessons are changing, especially in the modern society, which is developing at a rapid pace. That is why, at the present stage of Ukrainian science development, it can be said that the times when the proof of mastering a foreign language was "the ability to translate the text into the native language" have already passed. Students need a deeper study of foreign languages, on the other hand, teachers should be interested in new methods of teaching languages and seek to apply them in practice. Since the activities of students in the process of learning have an educational and cognitive character, then the effectiveness of teaching foreign languages depends more on the teacher's ability to organize the educational process in accordance with the basic laws of educational and cognitive activity of students. And that’s why, various pedagogical concepts of teaching foreign languages are being developed to improve the acquisition of material by students. [16, p.320]

The term "concept of learning" is interpreted as a system of scientific views on understanding the essence, content, methodology, organization of learning processes and the definition of peculiarities of activity students in the process of its implementation. Teachers actively apply the associative - reflex concept of learning, the theory of phased formation of mental activities of the student, the concept of problem learning, the concept of programmable learning, and others.

All pedagogical concepts of learning, regardless of their content and orientation, have a common goal. And this is perfect mastering of students' knowledge and skills and their perfect application in practice. The teacher, applying a certain concept, must understand its essence, content, its peculiarity, realize the strengths and weaknesses of this concept and, accordingly, be able to organize the educational process.

Consequently, successful linguistic preparation of students at the present stage of education considered impossible without the latest educational concepts. The latest technology in teaching is the study of a foreign language, through the use of information and computer programs aimed at learning foreign languages (multimedia system), distance learning of foreign languages, advanced test technologies that allow students to monitor the level of language knowledge.

Modern scholars, representatives of Principle education, psychologist and other scientists have developed a holistic concept of learning. New solutions organically combine productive traditional and innovative approaches. [11, p.302]. The main concepts of teaching foreign languages are communicative and constructive methods.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) represents a unified theoretical perspective about the nature of language, and language teaching and learning, which emerged around 1970 when the effectiveness of the dominant traditional approaches was increasingly called into question. Of the several theoretical influences on CLT in those early stages of development the contributions of functional linguistics [6], notional/ functional syllabus design [15], and the construct of communicative competence advocated by Hymes [8] were pivotal. It was Hymes who argued that knowledge of language consists of not only knowledge of the rules of grammar but also knowledge of the rules of language use. Later influences include comprehensible input hypothesis (1985) [9] and interaction hypothesis (1983, 1996) [10]. Today, not surprisingly given the multiple influences and long gestation period of CLT, there are a number of interpretations available to the teacher and researcher. Brown [1] attempts to provide a clearer understanding amidst this diversity.

CLT can be said to have two core concerns. The first of these is the concept of communication (the goal) itself, how this is to be interpreted and understood. The second relates to how communication as process should inform language teaching/methodology, the implications for classroom practice. Constuctivist approaches to learning assert that students should be treated as individuals and should have the opportunity to work with others and learn through observation, talking and group work. Students have ideas and skills that have not fully emerged but have the potential to be developed, particularly through this type of interaction with others. Constructivism also acknowledges the importance of social and cultural influences on intellectual development, and this, in turn, has an effect on how children learn from each other. Each student brings with him knowledge, opinions and experiences from his individual background that will have an influence on what he brings to the group.[13]

At the present stage, a non-standard method, as a scenario, is also used. This method is quite progressive, since students do not use textbooks, but creatively present their work in class. And the task of the teacher is to guide only a few episodes of history and situations that children must play. In return, students accomplish this task by mastering certain communication skills in non-standard situations.

We conclude that increased use of technology in teaching is not a panacea for improved student achievement and that intensified causal research on various innovative teaching methods and experiments is needed. Since the individual teacher is essential when it comes to innovations in teaching, incentives play a crucial role in stimulating educational innovations. The evidence on the returns to different kinds of skills of the students suggests that the central task of the education system is to train students in general skills. From a governance perspective, increased competition at all levels of education by providing more autonomy to the institutions and by more internationalization, and activating important stakeholders like parents and employers, seem to be important policy instruments to increase the innovative capacity of the education sector. Therefore, on the basis of the above, one can conclude that the Ukrainian educational sphere requires the use of modern concepts of studying foreign languages at school. Harmonious combination of traditional and new concepts will improve the level of language teaching, which in turn will improve the level of knowledge of foreign languages by students. However, in order to achieve positive results, the teacher should be interested in, studying and applying new trends in teaching foreign languages in practice and trying to provide a solid knowledge of the students.

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TEACHING WRITING SHORT STORIES

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Abstract: The article runs about methodology approach to teaching writing short stories both as an interactive activity during English classes from primary to high school and a relatively young literary genre which can be taught during the course of "Creative and academic writing" at higher educational establishments. The paper focuses on the stages of writing (pre-writing, drafting, editing, and publishing). The author shows how to develop different elements and characters while compiling a short story. This kind of literary text is also regarded as a tool to develop team work and leadership skills within small groups while writing descriptive, narrative or discursive pieces of the story during the classes. Particular attention is paid to the use and introduction of visual aids as means of making a short story visually attractive and appealing to the reader. The latter becomes of special importance during all stages of writing Here we deal with pictures, videos and font taking into consideration the colour scheme. In this regard, the question of plagiarism becomes an object of consideration too.

Keywords: a short story, stages of writing, class, visual aids, a character.

Derived from tales short stories have accompanied us since the beginning of the XIX century due to a number of successful literary pieces belonging to Edgar Allan Poe, Anton Chehov, Franz Kafka and many other brilliant fiction writers. They transformed fairy tales into realistic prose, appealing and remarkable. Short stories could be read in a single sitting and it was key to the form. It allowed the reader to have an uninterrupted experience of the fictional world [1].

Writing short stories as an academic activity proved to be an exciting experience both for students and their teacher. The process of telling tales is quite natural. It turns us back to our childhood when fiction was an everyday reality with a child's brain producing endless successions of images, heroes, and events. Still when in a classroom, we face definite principles of writing such literary pieces. Like many other literary works, short stories are marked with different peculiarities which could be regarded as some rules for a game. We should develop the major elements of fiction — character, plot, theme, point of view, etc. The space for developing an author's ideas is also limited. Usually short stories are about ten to twenty-five pages. (The cut-off for most journals is 10,000 words). But as an academic activity it may range from 1 to 4 pages taking into consideration the students' age, language and literary skills, and creativity. The amount of work you can develop with the students also depends on time limitations during the class. The best option to work out all the stages of writing is a special course of "Creative and academic writing" or a literary club, etc. But being pressed for time it is always up to the teacher which activities he / she can practice with the students. Still in this paper we are focusing on the full cycle of producing the above mentioned piece of writing.

To meet this challenge, short-story writers generally follow, consciously or unconsciously, a pretty standard list of rules. But the teacher should remember Alan Maley's recommendation: "Try to establish a relaxed, non-judgmental atmosphere, where your students feel confident enough to let go and not to worry that their every move is being scrutinized for errors. [2]"

THE PRE-WRITING STAGE takes the biggest part of all activities. At this very point it is crucially important to think over the plot and the characters, their appearance, behavior, typical reactions in typical situations, and peculiarities of speech and thinking. That is the high time to get the students to cooperate with each other as a small team which is to achieve common goals. A teacher may easily turn these necessities into a number of interesting activities. The first one can be a brainstorming [3, p. 308].

Activity 1 *Think about two characters of your story and write down a list of adjective to depict them.*

My students' list looks like that:

Mary	Alan
Cheerful	gloomy
Extravert	introvert
Easy-going	reserved
Slim	lanky

If your students' list seems quite long they may be asked to cross out repeated notions or those which are of less importance. The role of a teacher is to help understand that these personal qualities are a key to the heroes' relationships and behavior. Thus, this list may vary and change during the whole process of writing.

The next activity is for a team of 3-5 students each of them having his / her own task but working on it in cooperation with the whole team in succession.

Activity 2 *Write a descriptive paragraph about your characters (student 1 with others);*

write a narrative piece about your character (student 2 with others);

write a discursive piece about your character (student 3 with others);

write a dialogue revealing a typical situation your characters are in (student 4 with others)

describe a typical situation from the life of your character (student 5).

This activity helps students realize the essence of their characters' lives and to come up closer to the plot of the short story.

To fit the heroes into the plot is also an interesting piece of work, which can be organized in several activities. But the teacher should firstly present the scheme of a literary piece or develop it with the students taking into account their previous reading experience or knowledge and skills from a number of literature classes. It is also important to remind that the time frame is limited meaning that they cannot tell the whole life story but only about one peculiar period of time. That is one more rule for a short story writing.

The short story structure is rather conventional:

EXPOSITION → RISING ACTION→ CLIMAX→ DENOUEMENT

Activity 1 *The students can be suggested to write several sentences about:*

a) *how the story begins; b) what happens next; c) what is the problem; d) how it is solved; e) how the story ends.* One option is to write one by one, sentence by sentence on one and the same paper passing it to each other. Thus, all the students in the team of 5 are involved in developing the story's plot.

The next stage of this activity presupposes discussion of the best variants mentioned. The role of a teacher is quite important here as he / she should not only "lead" the students to the best ideas but also remind them about the reader and his needs to "consume" a bestseller where not everything is on the surface and so clear and simple. The teacher is facilitating the whole process but not imposes the ideas.

Activity 2 *Imaging that your story is a precious necklace with small and bigger purles coming up one after another. These purles are the events in your story. How would you arrange them?*

This activity may help the students come back again to the classical structure of a short story being quite selective and choosing only best "purles" for their masterpieces.

Now when we have all necessary elements of a short story it is high time to put them all together.

At the stage of ***DRAFTING*** we start organizing all the above mentioned ideas into real sentences and paragraphs but still with little attention to grammar or proper vocabulary. We focus more on grasping the ideas.

Activity 1 a) *Write the introductory paragraph to your story;*

b) *write the body of your story;*

c) *write about the conflict;*

d) write *the concluding paragraph.*

A good option is to get students work in pairs where one is writing and another is facilitating.

When the students finish they may be asked to exchange their works with the representatives of other pairs to develop the ideas further.

Activity 2 is for 2 students who are given different roles – writer and editor.

Student A. *Imagine that you have become a witness of the story. You decide to share your ideas with your friend by email. Send him / her a letter with your story attached. You are eager to hear your friend's feedback. Think about 5-6 questions you would like your friend to answer about your story.*

Student B. *As soon as you receive your friend's story write him / her back a letter with the feedback. Try to be friendly but critical*.

This activity enables the students to make their stories better in cooperation with others. It also shows that other people may think differently and unexpectedly.

At the stage of **EDITING** the skeleton of a short story gets its body**.** It is when short sentences become complex, with more developed ideas. We usually deals with "cleaning" the paper from grammar and lexical errors, providing proper cohesion in the paragraphs and between the paragraphs. The role of a teacher is one of the leading. Each piece of writing is unique and it needs specific help, which can tremendously improve the work making it a real product for the reader.

Some activities could be provided to help students develop the character or situation, etc.

Activity 1 *Put down some synonyms to describe a reserved man (or any other). Write some more sentences to describe him.*

Activity 2 *Look at the list of linking words. Which of them could be used to provide better transition between your ideas in the paragraph A?*

Activity ***3*** *Imagine that your are the editor working for The New York Times. You receive a short story to be published in the upcoming issue. The author of the story is quite young but promising. Read his / her paper and put down some remarks. Then have a talk with the author in your office. Give him / her a chance to improve.*

The teacher should remember that it is quite hard to improve all the aspects of writing in one class, making every student a writer. The process may turn to be quite stressful and oppressive. So, the best option is to deal with a specific aspect of writing every time (language, literary structure or ideas). If you practice different skills from class to class, sooner or later you will be surprised will good results.

Checking and improving the paper may be also accompanied with quite interesting and interactive tasks dealing with visual attractiveness of the paper. At this point we can distract students' attention from errors focusing on the esthetic facet. You can suggest answering the following questions to develop visual images to go with the story:

- *How will you illustrate your article?*
- *What kind of photographs / pictures will convey to your readers whatever you want them to know about your character / events / conflict, etc.?*
- *How will you make the text visually attractive (font, colour scheme, etc.)?*
- *Will you show the people involved in the story / setting / emotions, etc.?*
- *What will your illustrations enable your reader to see? What will the picture add to the understanding of the short story?*
- *How will you arrange the visual aids?*
- *Are you going to produce the images yourself, ask someone for help or borrow? (Discuss the rules of borrowing somebody's ideas to avoid plagiarism).*

PUBLISHING is one of the most thrilling parts of the creative process, which is sometimes neglected and reduced to mere passing the paper to a teacher. We should take into account that publishing is the most motivating instrument the teacher may have. That is why it must be properly arranged. Here are some ideas:

- ✓ making a blog to share short stories;
- ✓ sticking them on the wall in the classroom / school for everyone to read;
- ✓ building a literary tower to demonstrate short stories;
- ✓ reading short stories in a class or during some events;
- ✓ organizing a competition;
- ✓ voting for the bestseller in social media, etc.

We can come up with a number of ideas but the main point is to make the works public and thus worthy but not dumped deeply on the teacher's shelf. In such a way we stimulate our students' enthusiasm, cognition, and desire to create new and even better pieces of writing.

In conclusion, we may state that writing a short story is a creative and many-facet process which requires thorough preparation. Run carefully through all the stages of pre-writing, drafting, editing, and publishing, short stories may bring fruitful results in terms of better language acquisition, in general, and writing, in particular. The latter turns to be a complex skill, which demands good critical thinking, awareness of literary peculiarities of a genre, teamwork and readiness to share your ideas with others.

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WHAT IS ‘TASK-BASED LEARNING APPROACH’?

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Abstract: What is Task-based Learning Approach? Task-based Learning is a different way to teach languages. It can help the students by placing his/her in a situation as in the real world. A situation where oral communication is essential for doing specific task. Task-based Learning has the advantage of getting the student to use his/her skills at his/her current level. To help develop language through its use. This article aims to present key principals of TBL, the advantages of using it. It gives a clear explanation of ‘Task-based Learning’ structure and some recommendations to use it while teaching English to adults.

Keywords: foreign languages, education, approach, task-based, adult education, learning, teaching.

How often do we as teachers ask our students to do something in class, which they would do in everyday life using their own language? Probably not often enough.

If we can make language in the classroom meaningful therefore memorable, students can process language, which is being learned or recycled more naturally [1].

Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), also known as task-based instruction (TBI), is an approach, which offers students to actively engage in communication in order to achieve a goal or complete a task using language. It was first developed by N.S. Prabhu in Bangalore, Southern India. According to Prabhu students may learn more efficiently when they focus more on task than the language they are using [3]. Major scholars who have done research in this area include Teresa P. Pica, Martin East and Michael Long.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language.

TBLT enables learning process through task, which learners have to perform, or a problem they have to solve [].

“TASKS are activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome” as defined by Willis [5]. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help.

Assessment is primarily based on task outcome (in other words the appropriate completion of real world tasks) rather than on accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes TBLT especially popular for developing target language fluency and student confidence. That means a task can be anything from doing a puzzle to making an airline reservation. As such, TBLT can be considered a branch of communicative language teaching (CLT).

In English language classroom:

- Tasks should be related to students' real-life language needs.
- Tasks create opportunities for focusing on form.
- Tasks develop students' intrinsic motivation.
- This approach enables teachers to see if students are developing the ability to communicate in an L2.

Task-based learning offers the student an opportunity to do exactly this. The primary focus of classroom activity is the task and language is the instrument, which the students use to complete it. The task is an activity in which students use language to achieve a specific outcome. The activity reflects real life and learners focus on meaning; they are free to use any language they want. Playing a game, solving a problem or sharing information or experiences, can all be considered as relevant and authentic tasks. In TBL, an activity in which students are given a list of words to use cannot be considered as a genuine task. Nor can a normal role-play if it does not contain a problem-solving element or where students are not given a goal to reach. In many role-plays, students simply act out their restricted role. For instance, a role-play where students have to act out roles as company directors but must come to an agreement or find the right solution within the given time limit can be considered a genuine task in TBL.

In the task-based lessons included below our aim is to create a need to learn and use language. The tasks will generate their own language and create an opportunity for language acquisition (Krashen*). If we can take the focus away from form and structures, we can develop our students' ability to do things in English. That is not to say that there will be no attention paid to accuracy, work on language is included in each task and feedback and language focus have their places in the lesson plans. We feel that teachers have a responsibility to enrich their students' language when they see it is necessary but students should be given the opportunity to use English in the classroom as they use their own languages in everyday life [2].

A Task-Based approach to Language:

• allows for a needs analysis to be matched to identified student needs;
• is supported by the research findings of classroom-centered language learning;
• allows evaluation to be based on testing referring to task-based criterion;
• allows for form-focused instruction.

Therefore, we should select topics that will motivate learners, engage their attention and promote their language development as efficiently as possible.

What are the advantages of TBL?

1. Task based learning is useful for moving the focus of the learning process from the teacher to the student.
2. It gives the student a different way of understanding language as a tool instead of as a specific goal.
3. It can bring teaching from abstract knowledge to real world application.
4. A Task is helpful in meeting the immediate needs of the learners and provides a framework for creating classes, interesting and able to address to the students' needs.

Tasks can be used as the central component of a three-part framework: "pre-task", "task cycle" and "language focus". These components have been carefully designed to create four optimum conditions for language acquisition, and thus provide rich learning opportunities to suit different types of learners [6].

The following framework outlines the roles of the teacher and learners during a task-based learning (TBL) lesson. Note especially the degree of teacher control, and the opportunities for learner language use.

Table 1. Task-Based Learning Framework

Components of a TBL Framework		
PRE-TASK PHASE		
INTRODUCTION TO TOPIC AND TASK Teacher explores the topic with the class, highlights useful words and phrases, and helps learners understand task instructions and prepare. Learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task, or read part of a text as a lead in to a task.		
	TASK CYCLE	
TASK Students do the task, in pairs or small groups. Teacher monitors from a distance, encouraging all attempts at	**PLANNING** Students prepare to report to the whole class (orally or in writing) how they did the task, what they decided or	**REPORT** Some groups present their reports to the class, or exchange written reports, and compare results. Teacher acts as a

<table>
<tr><td>communication, not correcting. Since this situation has a "private" feel, students feel free to experiment. Mistakes don't matter.</td><td>discovered. Since the report stage is public, students will naturally want to be accurate, so the teacher stands by to give language advice.</td><td>chairperson, and then comments on the content of the reports.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Learners may now hear a recording of others doing a similar task and compare how they all did it. On the other hand, they may read a text similar in some way to the one they have written themselves, or related in topic to the task they have done.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">LANGUAGE FOCUS</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">ANALYSIS
Students examine and then discuss specific features of the text or transcript of the recording. They can enter new words, phrases and patterns in vocabulary books.</td><td>PRACTICE
Teacher conducts practice of new words, phrases, and patterns occurring in the data, either during or after the Analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Sometime after completing this sequence, learners may benefit from doing a similar task with a different partner</td></tr>
</table>

Learners get *exposure* at the pre-task stage, and a chance to recall things they know. The task cycle gives them speaking and writing exposure with opportunities for students to learn from each other.

The task cycle also gives students opportunities to *use* whatever language they have, both in private (where mistakes, hesitations, and approximate renderings do not matter so long as the meaning is clear) and in public (where there is a built-in desire to strive for accuracy of form and meaning, so as not to lose face).

Motivation (short term) is provided mainly by the need to achieve the objectives of the task and to report back on it. Success in doing this can increase longer-term motivation. Motivation to listen to fluent speakers doing the task is strong too, because in attempting the task, learners will notice gaps in their own language, and will listen carefully to hear how fluent speakers express themselves.

A *focus on form* is beneficial in two phases in the framework. The planning stage between the private task and the public report promotes close attention to language form. As learners strive for accuracy, they try to organize their reports clearly and check words and patterns they are not sure of. In the final component, language analysis activities also provide a focus on form through consciousness-raising processes. Learners notice and reflect on language features, recycle the task language, go back over the text or recording and investigate new items, and practice pronouncing useful phrases.

According to N. S. Prabhu, there are three main categories of task: information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap [3].

Information-gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another – or from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information (for example an incomplete picture) and attempts to convey it verbally to the other. Another example is completing a tabular representation with information available in a given piece of text. The activity often involves selection of relevant information as well, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

Reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables. Another is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as in information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

Opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions [3].

According to Dave and Jane Willis, any topic or theme can give rise to different types of tasks, which can be generated with the help of the typology TBL Task Design [6]:

Table 2. Typology for TBL Task Design

ORDERING, SORTING, CLASSIFYING

LISTING

COMPARING, MATCHING

YOUR TOPIC

PROBLEM SOLVING

CREATIVE TASKS, PROJECT WORK

SHARING PERSONAL EXPERIENCES, ANECDOTE TELLING

Each type involves different cognitive processes. The top three types increase in cognitive complexity from left to right, but are generally cognitively less challenging than the three at the bottom. These may involve more complex cognitive operations or combinations of simpler task types.

People have often been under the impression that task-based learning means, "forget the grammar". This would not be a wise move. The aim of analysis activities is to encourage learners to investigate language for themselves, and to form and test their own hypotheses about how language works. In the task-based cycle, the language data comes from the texts or transcripts of recordings used in the task cycle, or from samples of language, they have read or heard in earlier lessons. Having already processed these texts and recordings for meaning, students will get far more out of their study of language form [6]. Analysis activities can be followed by quick bursts of oral or written practice, or dictionary reference work. Finally, students need time to note down useful words, phrases, and patterns into a language notebook. Regular revision of these will help vocabulary acquisition.

It is important to be aware of some pitfalls concerning the use of task-based learning. Since it encourages students to use their own language and vocabulary, it is necessary for the teacher to help students expand these. Otherwise, students will not learn new phrases or words by themselves, but only increase skills in using the language the student already possesses.

This can also be solved by having students change who they work with, so that the stronger students can work with the students who are at a lower level. Where the stronger student should be told to focus on using more advanced words and phrases. This does not help the stronger students though, for that, they will need the aid of the teacher.

Another very important thing to remember is that even though after the task cycle is complete, the learning process is not. The evaluation part is critical for the students to become self-aware of the learning they have just gone through. Put crudely there are two parts in the learning process of task-based learning of equal import. The first is to do the work and go through the tasks, the second is to get the student to think about what it is he or she has just gone through. If you the teacher do not follow up in the post task, half of the task based learning process is wasted

TBL offers a change from the grammar practice routines through which many learners have previously failed to learn to communicate. It encourages learners to experiment with whatever English they can recall, to try things out without fear of failure and public correction, and to take active control of their own learning, both in and outside class.

For the teacher, the framework offers security and control. While it may be true that TBL is an adventure, it can be undertaken within the safety of an imaginatively designed playground.

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LESEVERSTEHEN BEI DEN STUDIERENDEN DER INGENIEURWISSENSCHAFTLICHEN FÄCHER

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Abstract: In the Republic of Moldova, German as a foreign language is taught not only at the faculties of philology but also at other faculties. This article discusses the specificities of working with specialized texts at the faculty of real sciences, economics and environmental protection (specialization - Engineering and Management).

Key words: University, Faculty of Real Sciences, Economics and Nature Conservation (specialization - Engineering and Management), Republic of Moldova, reading comprehension, specialist texts.

Von der richtigen Wahl der Fachtexte hängt in hohem Maße der Erfolg der Lernenden, die originellen Fachtexte zu verstehen und Lesefähigkeiten und -fertigkeiten zu entwickeln.

Das Angebot an Fach- bzw. Sachtexten ist umfangreich und umfasst [4, S. 11]:

- authentische Texte (Anleitungen, Anzeigen, Gebrauchstexte, Nachrichten, Kataloge);
- Sach- und Fachmagazine;
- Wissensbücher, Nachschlagewerke und Lexika;
- populärwissenschaftliche Veröffentlichungen;
- Biographien und Geschichten;
- Wissenschaftsromane;
- Online-Artikel und Forumsbeiträge;
- Fachtexte in Lehrbüchern.

In der didaktischen Literatur ist die Arbeit an der Entwicklung der Fertigkeit Lesen gewöhnlich in *drei Phasen* gegliedert: die Arbeit vor dem Lesen, Vorentlastung, Abbau von lexikalischen, grammatischen, landeskundlichen Schwierigkeiten), die Arbeit während des Lesens und die Arbeit nach dem Lesen (Erweiterung).

Der Verwendungszweck des Textes und die Leseabsicht bestimmen den *Lesestil* und die *Lesetechniken (Lesearten)* [4, S. 12]:

- *(suchendes) Lesen (scanning):* gezieltes Heraussuchen gewünschter Informationen (Wörter, Daten, Fakten) durch Überfliegen, um Aufgaben zu bearbeiten;
- *orientierendes Lesen (skimming):* den Text ausgehend von Überschriften, grafischen Hervorhebungen oder Bildern überfliegen, um entscheiden zu können, was man sich genauer anschauen möchte;
- *extensives (kursorisches) Lesen*: häufiges und schnelles Draufloslesen umfangreicher oder vielfältiger Texte, um möglichst schnell ein globales Verständnis zu erreichen;
- *intensives (detailliertes, totales) Lesen*: der Text wird intensiv mit Strategien gelesen, um ihn als Ganzes im Detail zu verstehen und zu bearbeiten;
- *zyklisches Lesen*: einen Text zunächst orientierend, dann extensiv und danach intensiv lesen, manchmal wiederholt extensiv und intensiv.

Eine *Lesestrategie* ist ein Handlungsplan, der hilft, einen Text gut zu verstehen. Lesestrategien zielen auf einen eigenständigen Umgang mit Texten. Die Lesehilfen und die Arbeitsaufträge leiten und führen den Leser unterstützend durch die Texterschließung. Lesestrategien haben Werkzeugcharakter: mit ihrer Hilfe kann der Leser den Text möglichst selbstständig erschließen. Es gibt eine Vielzahl von Lesestrategien, die sich in Umfang, Anspruchsniveau und Unterstützungsgrad unterscheiden.

Die folgenden Strategien zur Texterschließung haben sich bei Fachtexten in allen Fächern bewährt [4, S. 13-15]:

- *Fragen zum Text beantworten;*
- *Fragen an den Text stellen;*
- *den Text strukturieren;*
- *den Text mit dem Bild lesen;*
- *den Text farborientiert markieren;*
- *den Text in eine andere Darstellungsform übertragen;*
- *den Text expandieren;*
- *Verschiedene Texte zum Thema vergleichen;*
- *Schlüsselwörter suchen und einen neuen Text zusammenfassen;*
- *das Phasen-Schema anwenden.*

Beispiel der Arbeit mit dem Text ***Zeitalter der Metalle*** [5, S. 155 – 157]:

a) _______________

Als erstes Metall stellte der Mensch Kupfer in größerem Umfang her, gefolgt von Bronze: Kupfer wird mit Zinn zu einer harten Bronzelegierung, die korrosions- und verschleißfest ist. Die Schmelztemperatur von Kupfer liegt bei 1084 Grad Celsius; durch Legieren mit Zinn, dessen Schmelzpunkt bei nur 231 Grad liegt, wird der Schmelzpunkt der Bronze verringert. Der Schmelzprozess und die Verarbeitung werden also erleichtert. Die ältesten bekannten Bronze-Gegenstände sind mehr als 5000 Jahre alt; vor drei bis viertausend Jahren war Bronze (neben Holz und Keramik) der wohl wichtigste Werkstoff. Kupfer ist auch heute noch ein begehrter Werkstoff, es wird z. B. für Rohre, Dachrinnen und Kessel zum Bierbrauen verwendet. Für elektrische Anlagen ist Kupfer in Form von Kupferdraht aufgrund seiner ausgezeichneten Leitfähigkeit von großer Bedeutung.

b) _____________________

Bronze ist härter und schöner als Kupfer, durch seine goldglänzende Farbe wirkt es sehr edel. Wegen seiner Härte war es besonders geeignet für die Herstellung von Werkzeugen und Waffen: Es entwickelte sich eine Metallurgie, in der geschickte Handwerker Äxte, Zangen, Messer, Schwerter, Helme, Dolche u.v.a.m. aus Bronze herstellten. Das schöne Aussehen machte die Bronze aber auch sehr geeignet für die Produktion von Schmuck und Verzierungen aller Art, auf kostbaren Vasen, Gefäßen und Krügen.

c) ______________________

Bronze wurde allmählich durch Eisen als Werkstoff ersetzt. Circa 800 v. Chr. war auch in Mitteleuropa nicht mehr Bronze, sondern Eisen dominant. Gegenüber den teuren Bronzen war das viel häufigere Eisen vor allem wegen seiner größeren Härte, Festigkeit und Verformungsfähigkeit überlegen. Entscheidend war hier eine Verbesserung der Heiztechnik der Schmelzöfen: Durch Zulegieren von Kohlenstoff konnte die Schmelztemperatur von 1536 Grad Celsius (reines Eisen) auf bis zu 1150 Grad Celsius (bei 4,3 Prozent Kohlenstoffanteil) gesenkt werden. Diese Legierungen konnten jedoch nur im gegossenen Zustand durch mechanische Bearbeitung zur Endkontur gestaltet werden. Erst mit geringeren Kohlenstoffgehalten nimmt die Verformungsfähigkeit zu – die

Legierung wird schmiedbar, und damit vergrößern sich die Gestaltungsmöglichkeiten der endgültigen Form des Bauteils.

d) ______________________

Der überwiegende Anteil der chemischen Elemente fällt in die Klasse der Metalle. Es gibt eine große Vielfalt an Leichtmetallen (z. B. Aluminium, Magnesium), Schwermetallen (z. B. Eisen, Zink, die im Unterschied zu den Erstgenannten eine Dichte größer 5 kg/dm^3 haben) und sogenannten Refraktärmetallen wie z. B. Wolfram, Molybdän, die alle einen Schmelzpunkt über demjenigen von Platin (1772 Grad Celsius) aufweisen und erst bei höherer Temperatur umformbar werden. Noch größer wird die Vielfalt, wenn man diese Elemente zu Legierungen kombiniert und ihre Struktur gezielt verändert.

Das Schema der Unterrichtsstunde, in der das Leseverstehen verwendet wird:

Schritt I – Einführungsphase. Aufgaben vor dem Lesen zur Vermittlung des *orientierenden Lesens*:

1) Das Thema des Unterrichts *Metalle* erraten die Studenten, indem sie Assoziationen hervorrufen:
Aluminium, Bismut, Blei, Cadmium, Chrom, Eisen, Gallium, Gold, Iridium, Cobalt, Kupfer, Magnesium, Molybdän, Nickel, Platin, Silber, Tantal, Wolfram, Zink, Zinn
2) Um die Studenten zur Arbeit zu motivieren, schlagen wir ihnen vor, die Anwendungsbereiche von diesen Metallen zu bestimmen, z. B.:

	Metalle		Anwendungsbereiche
1	Aluminium	a	Legierungsbestandteil (Bronze), Lote (Lötzinn), Weißblech, Zinnfiguren
2	Bismut	b	Legierungsbestandteil (Messing)
3	Blei	c	Glühlampen
4	Cadmium	d	Kondensatoren
5	Chrom	e	Schmuckmetall, Fotografie
6	Eisen	f	Schmuckmetall, Katalyse, eines der wertvollsten Metalle
7	Gallium	g	Legierungen (Nickel-Eisen, Nickel-Chrom, Nickel-Kupfer etc.), Legierungsbestandteil (Chrom-Nickel-Stahl), Magnete
8	Gold	h	Legierungsbestandteil (Molybdän-Stahl) zur Erhöhung der Warmfestigkeit
9	Iridium	i	Einweg-Blitzbirnen bzw. Blitzlichtpulver
10	Cobalt	j	Elektrotechnik (zweithöchste Leitfähigkeit nach Silber), Bronze, Messing
11	Kupfer	k	Magnete

12	Magnesium	l	Elektroden, Zündkerzen Einweg-Blitzbirnen bzw. Blitzlichtpulver
13	Molybdän	m	Schmuckmetall, Blattgold, Elektrotechnik, Wertanlage, Währungsabsicherung
14	Nickel	n	Thermometer
15	Platin	o	wichtigster metallischer Werkstoff (Stahl, Gusseisen), viele Legierungen Schmuckmetall, Katalyse, eines der wertvollsten Metalle
16	Silber	p	Legierungsbestandteil (Chrom-Vanadium-Stahl, Chrom-Nickel-Stahl, Chrom-Molybdänstahl), Überzugsmetall
17	Tantal	r	Akkumulatoren
18	Wolfram	t	Legierungen, Bleiakkumulator, Lote, Korrosionsschutz
19	Zink	u	Legierungen
20	Zinn	v	Elektrotechnik

Lösungen:

1 v	**2 u**	**3 t**	**4 r**	**5 p**	**6 o**	**7 n**	**8 m**	**9 l**	**10 k**	**11 j**	**12 i**	**13 h**	**14 g**	**15 f**	**16 e**	**17 d**	**18 c**	**19 b**	**20 a**

3) Um die Studenten tiefer in das Thema einzuführen, geben wir einige Aufgaben auf, die das Verstehen des Textes erleichtern können. Die Studenten bekommen eine Liste von Wörtern, und sie sollen die Synonyme dazu finden:
Ding – (Gegenstand), Material – (Werkstoff), Herstellung – (Erzeugung, Anfertigung, Produktion), Heimwerker – (Handwerker), Behälter – (Gefäß), führend sein – (dominant, fortschrittlich, leitend sein), Festigkeit – (Härte), Vervollkommnung – (Verbesserung), mindern – (senken, absenken, herabsetzen, herabdrücken), Kondition – (Zustand), Verarbeitung – (Bearbeitung), Komponente – (Bestandteil, Bauteil), Quote – (Teil, Anteil), Vielseitigkeit – (Vielfalt), umformbar – (verformbar).
4) Die Studenten werden näher zum Text hingeführt, weil ihnen schon die neuen Wörter bekannt sind:
r Schmuck, r Werkstoff, - e, leiten, e Wärme, r Strom, e Legierung, -en, korrosions- und verschleißfest, r Schmelzpunkt, r Schmelzprozess, s Rohr, - e, r Draht (Drähte), e Leitfähigkeit, edel, e Verformungsfähigkeit, e Heiztechnik, r Schmelzofen (Schmelzöfen), r

Kohlenstoff, schmiedbar, s Leichtmetall, - e, s Schwermetall, - e, s Refraktärmetall, - e.

Schritt II – Aufgaben während des Lesens zur Vermittlung des *intensiven (detaillierten, totalen)* und des *selektiven (suchenden) Lesens*:

Wir beginnen die Arbeit am Text während des Lesens auf solche Weise: Die Studenten lesen den ganzen Text durch.

Danach teilen die Studenten den Text in Abschnitte ein:

Abschnitt 1: Als erstes Metall stellte der Mensch Kupfer in größerem Umfang her … von großer Bedeutung.

Abschnitt 2: Bronze ist härter und schöner als Kupfer … Vasen, Gefäßen und Krügen.

Abschnitt 3: Bronze wurde allmählich durch Eisen … die Gestaltungsmöglichkeiten der endgültigen Form des Bauteils.

Abschnitt 4: Der überwiegende Anteil der chemischen Elemente … ihre Struktur gezielt verändert.

Dann notieren sie zu jedem Abschnitt die Kernaussagen:

1. Als erstes Metall stellte der Mensch Kupfer in größerem Umfang her.
2. Bronze ist härter und schöner als Kupfer, durch seine goldglänzende Farbe wirkt es sehr edel.
3. Gegenüber den teuren Bronzen war das viel häufigere Eisen vor allem wegen seiner größeren Härte, Festigkeit und Verformungsfähigkeit überlegen.
4. Es gibt eine große Vielfalt an Leichtmetallen, Schwermetallen und sogenannten Refraktärmetallen.
5. Danach finden sie die Überschriften zu diesen Textteilen:
6. Kupfer
7. Bronze
8. Eisen
9. Klassifikation von Metallen

Um den Text zu erfassen, schlagen wir den Studenten vor, mit Hilfe eines *Flussdiagramms* den Inhalt des Textes darzustellen:

Kupfer ⇒ Zinn ⇒ Bronzelegierung ⇒ der wohl wichtigste Werkstoff (Rohre, Dachrinnen und Kessel zum Bierbrauen, Kupferdraht) ⇒ Härte ⇒ Herstellung von Werkzeugen und Waffen ⇒ Äxte, Zangen, Messer, Schwerter, Helme, Dolche ⇒ Schmuck und Verzierungen aller Art (Vasen, Gefäße und Krüge) ⇒ Eisen ⇒ Härte, Festigkeit und Verformungsfähigkeit ⇒ Verbesserung der Heiztechnik ⇒ Kohlenstoff

⇒ Legierungen ⇒ Klasse der Metalle ⇒ Leichtmetalle ⇒ Schwermetalle ⇒ Refraktärmetalle.

Schritt III – Aufgaben zum *(selektiven) suchenden Lesen*:

1) Die Studenten bekommen Tabellen, die sie anhand des Textes auszufüllen haben.

Tabelle 1. Aufgaben zum *(selektiven) suchenden Lesen*

Bestandteile von Bronze	
Eigenschaften	
Schmelztemperatur von Kupfer	
Gegenstände aus Bronze	

Tabelle 2. Aufgaben zum *(selektiven) suchenden Lesen*

Vorteile von Eisen gegenüber Bronze	
Welches Verfahren ermöglichte eine Senkung der Schmelztemperatur?	
Verarbeitungsmöglichkeit bei < 4 % Kohlenstoff	

Tabelle 3. Aufgaben zum *(selektiven) suchenden Lesen*

Ergänzen Sie die Sätze: Die meisten chemischen Elemente sind ____.
Man unterscheidet zwischen______________________und _____________________und sog.__________________________________.
Letztere haben folgende Eigenschaften:____.
Die große Anzahl an Metallen kann durch____________________________noch erhöht werden.

2) Multiple – Choise- Aufgabe. Diese Aufgabe besteht darin, dass die Studenten eine richtige Variante von drei angebotenen Varianten wählen, z.B.:

a) Die Schmelztemperatur von … liegt bei 1084 Grad Celsius.

Eisen – Kupfer – Zink

b) … ist härter und schöner als Kupfer, durch seine goldglänzende Farbe wirkt es sehr edel.

Bronze – Silber – Gallium

c) Das … machte die Bronze aber auch sehr geeignet für die Produktion von Schmuck und Verzierungen aller Art.

Gewicht – Volumen – Aussehen

d) Bronze wurde allmählich durch … als Werkstoff ersetzt.

Gold – Silber – Eisen

e) Entscheidend war hier eine … der Heiztechnik der Schmelzöfen.

Verbesserung – Verschlechterung – Erniedrigung

f) Der überwiegende Anteil der chemischen Elemente fällt in die Klasse der Metalle.

Metalle – Alkalien – Säuren

Schritt V – Den Studenten wird vorgeschlagen, einige Grammatikübungen zu machen:

1) Die Studenten markieren im Text alle Verben, die im Passiv stehen. Sie sind:

wird … verringert; werden … erleichtert; wird … verwendet; wurde … ersetzt; werden … gesenkt; werden … gestaltet

2) Sie bestimmen, dass diese Verben im Präsens und Präteritum Passiv stehen.

Schritt VI – Verankerung und Erweiterung des Wortschatzes zum Thema *Metalle. Zeitalter der Metalle*

1) Um den Inhalt des Textes und den thematischen Wortschatz zu erweitern, bekommen die Studenten die Aufgabe, aus einem Satz möglichst viele Sätze zu bilden, z.B:

Circa 800 v. Chr. war auch in Mitteleuropa nicht mehr Bronze, sondern Eisen dominant. Gegenüber den teuren Bronzen war das viel häufigere Eisen vor allem wegen seiner größeren Härte, Festigkeit und Verformungsfähigkeit überlegen. Entscheidend war hier eine Verbesserung der Heiztechnik der Schmelzöfen: Durch Zulegieren von Kohlenstoff konnte die Schmelztemperatur von 1536 Grad Celsius (reines Eisen) auf bis zu 1150 Grad Celsius (bei 4,3 Prozent Kohlenstoffanteil) gesenkt werden.

2) Die Studenten werden gebeten, die Schlüsselwörter zum Textinhalt zu schreiben, um seinen Inhalt ausführlich wiederzugeben, z.B.:

Metalle, Kupfer, Bronze, Zinn, Bronzelegierung, korrosions- und verschleißfest, Schmelztemperatur, Legieren, Schmelzpunkt, Schmelzprozess, Verarbeitung, Bronze-Gegenstände, Holz und Keramik, Werkstoff, Rohre, Dachrinnen und Kessel zum Bierbrauen, elektrische Anlagen, Kupferdraht, Leitfähigkeit, edel, Herstellung von Werkzeugen und Waffen, Metallurgie, Handwerker, Äxte, Zangen, Messer, Schwerter, Helme, Dolche, Produktion von Schmuck und Verzierungen aller Art, Vasen, Gefäße und Krüge, Eisen, Härte, Festigkeit und Verformungsfähigkeit, Verbesserung *der Heiztechnik der Schmelzöfen, Kohlenstoff, Legierungen, Gestaltungsmöglichkeiten, chemische Elemente, Leichtmetalle, Schwermetalle, Refraktärmetalle, umformbar werden.*

Schritt VII – Entwicklung von anderen Fertigkeiten im Unterricht (Sprechen und Schreiben)

Die nächsten Aufgaben:

1) Beschreiben Sie das Bild, das unten steht! Beachten Sie das Metall (die Legierung), aus dem (der) die Autospeicher hergestellt sind!

2) Schreiben Sie: Was lehrt dieser Text?

Zum Schluss möchten wir betonen, dass der Einsatz mehrerer Lesestrategien wesentlich zum tieferen Verstehen des Fachtextes verhilft. Methodisch zielgerichtet erstellte Aufgaben in ihrer Vielfalt und Reichtum motivieren die Studenten zusehends und stärken ihr Interesse an dem Fremdsprachenerwerb. Unser Versuch, die Phasen der Arbeit am Fachtext in den Unterrichtsstunden zu zeigen, könnte die Lesekompetenz der Studenten fördern.

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ЗАГАЛЬНОНАЦІОНАЛЬНІ РИСИ ФУНКЦІОНУВАННЯ УКРАЇНСЬКИХ МОВНИХ СИМВОЛІВ У КІНОПОВІСТІ О. ДОВЖЕНКА «ЗАЧАРОВАНА ДЕСНА»

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Abstract: The article analyses the semantic symbols due to which the live connection between the man, language and culture is created; with archetypical symbols performing the significant role. The classification of the symbols employed in A. Dovzhenko's cinema-novel "The Enchanted Desna" is being performed and their function in the fictional discourse has been defined. Words-symbols create a complex and rich system in which different types of relations, that is paradigmatic, syntagmatic and phraseological ones are inherent. The linguistic symbols used in A. Dovzhenko's work acquire the specific national colouring; demonstrate the high level of the Ukrainian people's intellectuality as well as the remarkable diversity of the Ukrainian linguistic expressive means. The symbol as a verbal sign, the semantics of which being the result of integration and reinterpretation on the level of associations of its direct, figurative, connotative meanings under the specific influence of national cultural context, is formed as a result of metonymic or metaphoric transformations. The symbol also serves as a means of artistic expression in which the conceptual and artistic energy of the cinema-novel "The Enchanted Desna" is accumulated and the author's most vivid perceptions of the world are focused.

Keywords: symbol, image, connotation, archetype, nationally-coloured symbol, national cultural context.

Увага до проблем національного самоусвідомлення і самовираження стимулює пошуки нових підходів до слова як скарбниці національних конотацій. Національна своєрідність того чи іншого народу представлена передусім в етнокультурній лексиці, яка найяскравіше виражає шляхи духовного розвитку етносу. Як один із виявів національної самобутності, мова творів українських письменників зберігає і передає наступним поколінням особливості світосприймання народу, факти його історії, картини соціального та родинного побуту, найрізноманітніші гами людських почуттів та оцінок, утілених у відшліфованих словесно-виражальних формах, значною мірою символізованих. Увага до вивчення символу в етнолінгвальному, функціонально-стилістичному аспектах також умотивована намаганням глибоко проникнути у творчу лабораторію митця слова, розкрити особливості сприйняття і відображення національно-мовної картини світу, визначити співвідношення між новаторством і традиціями, загальнолюдським і національним, зрозуміти неповторний вияв авторського світобачення.

Символ найяскравіше відтворює і фіксує національно-культурні особливості народу. Саме символ встановлює живий зв'язок між людиною, мовою і культурою (В. Бугров, О. Гакман) В. фон Гумбольдт обґрунтував необхідність осмислення ролі символу в пізнанні світу. Учений доводив, що лише в символах розкривається сутність усього того, що сприймає людина; у прагненні їх пізнати видно потяг до ідеалу, висвітлення внутрішнього змісту.

Дослідження символів, започатковане вивченням мови етнографічних та фольклорних текстів у XIX – першій половині XX ст. (праці Г. Булашева, Ф. Колесси, М. Костомарова, І. Нечуя-Левицького, О. Потебні та ін.), було продовжене з позицій структурно-типологічного (К. Леві-Строс, Р. Барт та ін.), психологічного (З. Фрейд, К.-Г. Юнг та ін.) та філософсько-культурологічного напрямків (О. Лосєв та ін.). Лінгвістичний аспект вивчення символів, який останніми десятиліттями набуває все більшого значення, представлений у працях Є. Бартмінського, І. Голубовської, В. Жайворонка, В. Кононенка, О. Левченко, О. Сімович та ін. Більшу увагу слову як символу приділив О. Потебня, який уміло поєднав філософський підхід і лінгвістичний аналіз у процесі пізнання словесного образу, запропонувавши критерії виокремлення символу та визначивши основні його риси – **знаковість, образність, умотивованість, багатозначність і синонімічність, розпливчастість меж значень у символі, пов'язаність символу з міфом і архетипом** тощо, а також наголосивши на етнічних особливостях його функціонування[О. Потебня].

Отже слова-символи творять багату і складну систему, якій притаманні різні типи відношень: парадигматичні, синтагматичні, фразеотворчі.

Саме в процесі ідеографічного аналізу найвиразніше виявляється суть символу – особливості його номінації, значення, експресивності.

Наше дослідження присвячене виявленню особливостей лексем О. П. Довженка «Зачарована Десна», які набувають символічного значення, а також вживаються як тропеїчні засоби: метафори та епітети. За їх допомогою автор досягає художньої довершеності твору, створює казковий світ дитинства ліричного героя

В статті досліджуємо архетипні символи, що тісно пов'язані з первісними уявленнями людства. Вони є спільними для багатьох народів, особливо генеалогічно споріднених, але в культурі кожного народу на їх основі розвинулась національно-інтерпретована символіка. Такими словами в кіноповісті є: *сонце, вогонь, вода, ватра, вогнище, полум'я, свічка, лампада.*

Ще давні мудреці вважали, що думка зароджується і передається в образах і символах. З давніх-давен сонце – це істинність, бо не залежить від нас, всемогутнє слов'янське божество, що втілювало життя, тепло, світло, символ всемогутності *«Вже сонце зайде, а ми ще збираємось»* [6; 238]. Зі значенням любові до життя вживає О. Довженко символ сонця, характеризуючи діда Семена *«Більш за все на світі любив він сонце. Він прожив під сонцем коло ста літ, ніколи не ховаючись у холодок. Так під сонцем на «погребні... він і помер, коли прийшов його час»* [2; 19].

Розвиток символічного значення в загальновживаних словах відбувається різними шляхами. Доведено, що поширеним є виникнення слова-символу на ґрунті зв'язку між первісним предметом, якому в уяві надається те чи інше символічне значення, і словом-символом, що сприймається як мовне втілення певних узагальнених ознак [Кононенко 1991: 30].

Постійні асоціації, що супроводжують символ, створюють передумови для його вживання в складі готових словесних формул, визначають його здатність чітко і вагомо передавати глибинний зміст, основну ідею.

Словесні символи, які виникають у художньому чи розмовному мовленні на ґрунті власного мовного матеріалу як наслідок узагальнення, розширення, семантичного переосмислення значення загальновживаного слова, перетворення його в образ-ідею, мають розгалужені асоціативні зв'язки. Витворені творчою уявою народу в цілому чи окремого митця, символічні образи не ізольовані один від одного, їхні шляхи нерідко перетинаються: один символ породжує схожий, але не тотожний, інший, асоціативно пов'язаний із вихідним.

Отже, символічне значення не є сталим, грані його можуть розширюватися, видозмінюватися, поглиблюватися.

У процесі функціонування навіть у того самого автора воно реалізується в різних виявах. Так, в кіноповісті в іншому контексті сонце постає як жива істота, воно ховається за хмари, встає, підіймається високо. *«Прокидаюсь я на березі! Десна під дубом. Сонце високо, косарі далеко, коси дзвенять, коні пасуться»* [2; 46]. Ідилія минулих часів.

Згадка про божественну силу сонця помітна у прокльонах, якими пересипане мовлення баби Марусини, адже без прокльонів вона не могла прожити й дня. *«Царице небесна, заступнице моя милостива, щоб ріс він не вгору, а вниз, щоб сонечка праведного не бачив»* [2; 21].

Навколо архетипу ***вогонь*** в мові твору зустрічаємо таке символічне коло: *полум'я, пекло, огонь, вогник, блискавка, іскра, свічка, лампада*.

Вічний вогонь – символ пошани; довір'я, багатства; очищення та вшанування пам'яті загиблих воїнів; безсмертя, пам'яті, вдячності. В уяві первісних людей – це стихія, що світить і гріє, підтримує життя, відганяє хижаків, усе нищить і спопеляє. Вогонь став Богом, і йому почали поклонятися і обожнювати в різних країнах, зокрема у слов'янських. Вічний вогонь вважався вічно живою, вічно голодною і очищувальною силою. За народними повір'ями, це багатство не можна було віддавати з дому, щоб не зубожіти.

За даними О. Афанасьєва, слов'яни використовували вогонь під час весільного обряду: молоді переступали підпалені снопи жита й пшениці або перестрибували через вогонь, щоб іти в життя чистим і багатим. Коли народжувалася дитина, господарі запалювали лампади, доки не охрестять немовля. Вважалось, що «нечисть» боїться вогню і тому не зашкодить дитині. Переходячи в нове житло, переносили із старого й вогонь, щоб не щезнув колишній затишок [Потапенко, О. І. Словник символів; 18].

Отже, вогонь як чудодійна сила очищення, як засіб протиставлення світла темряві і разом з тим як страшна пожираюча сила – широко використовується у стилістиці української мови. У кіноповісті «Зачарована Десна» слово вогонь (огонь) використано з кількома значеннями, в тому числі й символічними.

*«Під ужакою, внизу, геть-чисто все **горіло**, як на пожарі. То було пекло»* [2; 25]. Тут вогонь як кара за гріхи, який все нищить і спопеляє.

*«А баба тоді взяла та й накупила у церкві **свічок** проти матері, та й поставила їх перед богом сторч догори»* [2; 25]. Тут свічка – символ застереження, щоб не попасти в рай. Асоціації суто авторські.

*«Неприємно дивитись на **великий вогонь**, а от на малий – приємно».* «Великий вогонь» автор вживає з переносним символічним значенням як руйнування, нищення всього живого, тому його неприємно споглядати, і навпаки, малий вогонь – це символ тепла, джерело світла, життя.

*«Упоравшись трохи з духом, дід знову хапав вила чи сокиру і стрімголов кидався в саме **пекло**»* [2; 47]. Слово «пекло» – як дуже небезпечне місце, нестерпні, жахливі умови; жах, кошмар [16; Т. 3; с. 231]. Вжито автором із символічним значенням.

*«Ці страшні побоїща закінчувалися десь аж надвечір, проте завжди щасливо. Всі виявлялись живі і неушкоджені, тільки довго і важко хекали від **внутрішнього вогню**» (с. 48).* «Внутрішній вогонь» – душевне натхнення, піднесення, запал, пристрасть. Вжито з переносним значенням [16; Т. 1; с. 502].

*«Часом я засинав ще до вечері, дивлячись на зорі, або на Десну, або в **вогонь**, де варилася каша» (с. 48).* Вогонь в значенні вогнище [16; Т. 1; с. 502].

*« Там, де я починаю палати **в огні своїх пристрастей**, вони розхолоджують мій мозок» (с. 54).* «В огні своїх пристрастей» – душевне піднесення, мрії, натхнення [16; Т. 1; с. 502].

*«Загинуло й щезло геть з лиця землі моє село не від води, а од **вогню**. Високе **полум'я** палахкотіло вночі, тріщало, вибухало глухими вибухами, і тоді **великі вогненні пласти** соломи, немов душі загиблих матерів, розносило вітром в темну пустоту неба. Карателі ганялись по вулицях і городах за жінками, однімали дітей і кидали **в огонь палаючих хат**» (с. 43).* «Вогонь» – як нещадна жорстокість, що знищує все живе, як символ страшної фашистської навали. Отже символічна семантика слова змінюється залежно від контексту, перетворюється на образ клятого ворога, набуває нових асоціативних зв'язків.

Близьким до вогню вагомістю та обсягом фольклорних і художньо-поетичних реалізацій є архетипний **символ води**. Вона – джерело життя, одна із основних стихій всесвіту. Сила води – як благотворна, так і руйнівна викликала в уяві багатьох народів побожний трепет. Вогонь пробуджує і гріє воду, а вона народжує світ і омиває, очищує його, робить гарним, тому і міфології, фольклорі та й в релігії вона має магічну силу: нею ворожать, заклинають, виливають, зцілюють [14; 309].

*«Любив плескіт **води весняної**. І жаб'яче ніжно-журливе кумкання в болоті, як спадала вода весняна» (с. 29).* Вода весняна – символ народження, очищення всього живого на землі, магічна сила води.

«Я пливу за водою, і світ пливе наді мною, пливуть хмари весняні… Пропливають лози, верби, в'язи, тополі у воді, зелені острови. Отже, ну таке щось гарне приснилось в човні» (с. 31). Вода як символ чистоти й здоров'я тих далеких дитячих років, коли в уяві маленького мрійника Сашка, ще без темряви в душі, линули навесні води Дунаєм, Десною і очищали землю, готуючи її для працьовитих селянських рук. Але дитячі роки минули без вороття, *«пішли за водою»,* і вже ніколи не вернеться святість босоногого дитинства.

*«Жили ми в певній гармонії з силами природи… восени місили грязь, а весною нас заливало **водою**, і хто цього не знає, не знає тієї радості і повноти життя. Тоді ніхто не чув про перетворення природи, і **вода** тоді текла куди і як попало» (с. 38).* Вода – воля, свобода, чесність, правдивість. Цього символічного значення лексема набуває в контексті про перетворення природи, з втручанням *«вождя нації»* в особисте життя автора цих рядків.

*«Напередодні Пасхи **повідь** случилась така, якої ніхто… не знав. Вода прибувала з дивовижною швидкістю… А на ранок усі*

*вулиці були **під водою**, а вона ще прибуває» (с. 38).* Архетипний образ – символ води у цьому контексті кіноповісті створює нову парадигму вода – біда, вода – горе, вода – руйнівна сила.

Отже, основними компонентами символічного значення лексеми ***вода*** є: життя, час, життєдайність, очищення, здоров'я, воля, свобода, молодість, біда, горе, руйнування.

Символічне поле архетипу ***вода*** розширюють своєю семантикою слова криниця (колодязь), джерело, річка, калюжа, море і рідше в українській мові – океан.

Криниця – символ батьківщини; здоров'я, сили, багатства, родючості; святості і чистоти; краси, вірності; безсмертя народного духу; розлуки, туги; високої духовності. Символіка криниці тісно пов'язана із символікою води. Практично всі народи світу обожнювали водну стихію. Оспівані у піснях, криниці символізували батьківщину, рідне село, кохану, непорушну віру у безсмертя народу, джерело його високої духовності [Потапенко, О. І. Словник символів; 6].

*«Після рибалки дід Захарко запалював цигарку і довго сидів біля хати **на колодці**, дивлячись в одну точку…» (2,с. 27). «З правого і з лівого боку від **колодязя** з-за клуні журавлиними ключами появляються нові старці» (2,с. 35).* Лексеми ***колодязь (колодець)*** символізують рідне село, яке знаходиться в центрі уваги автора.

Слово ***джерело*** має символічне значення духовної сили, наснаги, чистоти: духовні джерела, рідні джерела, чисті джерела. У кіноповісті «Зачарована Десна» цієї словоформи не вжито жодного разу.

Лексема ***калюжа***, використана О. Довженком, є наскрізним символом у його кіноповісті. Особливо цікаве новаторсько-символічне протиставлення калюжа – море – океан.

*«Топив наш батько кораблі задля того, щоб бодай хоч іноді у брудному шинку маленька **калюжа** його життя обернулась хоч на час у **море – бездонне** і **безкрає**».*

*«І хоч життя послало йому **калюжу** замість **океану**, душа в нього була океанська... Душі в нього вистачило б на цілий **океан**» (2,с. 39).*

У цьому протиставленні проявляється індивідуально-авторське збагачення семантики слова, уміння наповнити його символічним і глибоко філософським змістом. Лексема ***калюжа*** символізує в О. Довженка примітивність, буденність життя, нереалізованість можливостей особистості, а слова ***море, океан*** означають велич і багатство душі, невичерпність і нескінченність добра і теплоти в людському серці.

Характерним для слів-символів є розширення їх семантики за рахунок семантичних зсувів. Яскравою ілюстрацією цього є слово-символ ***ріка***. Так, «Словник символів» тлумачить його як символ початку і кінця життя, вічного плину часу, перешкоди, небезпеки, рубежу між чужим і своїм простором, земних жил, по яких тече кров, символ мовлення. Багатство і різноманітність семантики лексеми ріка пояснюється насамперед давнім походженням і активним функціонуванням у мові. Символічне значення виникає на основі предметно-асоціативних зв'язків [6].

Уживання у відповідному контексті надає цій лексемі й значення символу землі-вітчизни, Батьківщини, землі дитинства.

Символічний образ ріки посідає помітну роль у фольклорі (вогненна ріка, молочна ріка з киселевими берегами, річка із меду, пива, вина тощо). Часто зустрічається також образ «кривавої ріки», що символізує жорстоку, смертельну битву. У літературі образ ріки символізує Батьківщину, босоноге дитинство. Так ,у О. Довженка читаємо: *«Благословенна будь, моя незаймана дівице Десно, що, згадуючи тебе вже много літ, я завжди добрішав, почував себе невичерпно багатим і щедрим... Далека красо моя! Щасливий я, що народився на твоєму березі, що пив у незабутні роки твою м'яку, веселу, сиву воду, ходив босий по твоїх казкових висипах ..., що лічив у тобі зорі на перекинутому небі, що й досі, дивлячись часом униз, не втратив щастя бачити оті зорі, навіть у буденних калюжах на життєвих дорогах» (2,с. 62).*

Матеріальною основою, за допомогою якої реалізується символічне значення лексеми ріка, є слова *красо, щасливий, човен, берег, м'яка, весела сива вода.*

Таким чином, образи, що містяться у мовних символах твору, набувають української національної специфіки, вони відбивають концептуальну картину світу всвідомості етносу. Такі мовні знаки здатні передавати значний обсяг інформації, доступної для декодування будь-яким мовцем, представником етносу. Отже, спостереження за виявом символічної семантики загальновживаних лексем, свідчить, що основою для виникнення і розширення символічного значення у слові є схожість суттєвих ознак відтворюваних реалій, асоціативні зв'язки, контекстне оточення, а також світобачення і світосприймання самого автора твору.

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FROM A NEW WORD TO A DICTIONARY ENTRY

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Abstract: The evolution of a human being is a long–lasting process. Every invention born by the evolution has brought to life a new word, its name, a neologism that puts forward and opens up the innovation to the society. The highest level of its acceptance is introduction in a dictionary through the obtainment of the legal place of habitation, a dictionary entry.

Keywords: neologism, dictionary entry, term, derivation, lexicography, neology.

The modern linguistics considers the language a complicated dynamic system. The direction and the character of its evolution are subdued to the general rules of the dialectics. The most active language development takes place in the framework of the lexicon that is conditioned by high level of intralinguistic determination; however, grammatical and phonological stages remain relatively stable. The basic process of the lexicon development is neologization. The initial step of the lexical enrichment is the practice, the human life, as it is influenced by the scientific (musicolingustics, frunk), economic (e-marketing, hybrid vehicle, drone, political (Brexit, Trumpcare, BRICs (Brazil, Russia, India, and China)), cultural (Hashtags - function code for social interaction, Trolling), and social (monogamish 2011, educaţie digital, broken-heart syndrome, wild cycling, shoefie) spheres of the human activity.

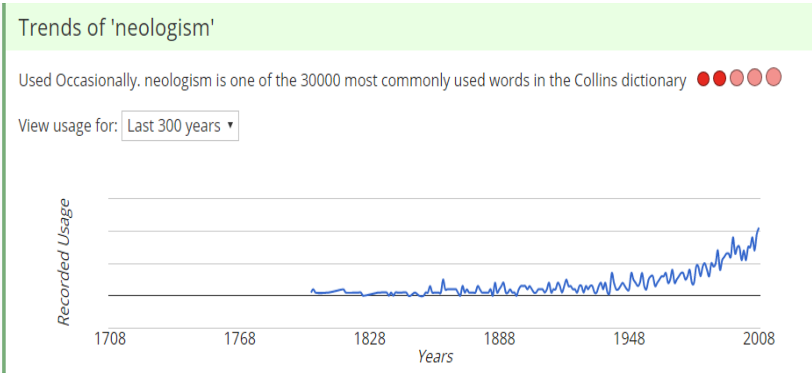
The issue of defining a neologism appears when we deepen our knowledge addressing the dictionaries. According to the Oxford Dictionary, the term neologism comes from French "néologisme"[4] in the early 19th century and means a newly coined word or expression. However, Dictionnaire de l'Académie française, 4th Edition (1762) identified the term neologism as "mot tiré du Grec. On s'en sert pour signifier l'habitude de se servir de termes nouveaux, ou d'employer les mots reçus dans des significations détournées. Ce mot se prend presque toujours en mauvaise part, désigne une affectation vicieuse, fréquente en ce genre"[2], the definition shows the attitude of its authors, and probably expressed the general mood of the society. The definition of the same dictionary, the 8th edition (1932-5), is more neutral. It explains a neologism as "nouveau ou mot détourné de sa signification ordinaire." [3]

The Russian Dictionary of the Linguistic Terms (Словарь-справочник лингвистических терминов. Изд. 2-е. — М.: Просвещение Розенталь Д. Э., Теленкова М. А. 1976) defines a neologism as "слово или оборот речи, созданные для обозначения нового предмета или выражения нового понятия."[8] However Russian lexicographists were not always so enduring. A grop of zealots required to clear the Russian language from non-Russian words, especially neologisms in the 60s of the 20th century. Their struggle was fruitless. The scientists realized that it was ridiculous to fight with new linguistic infusions, especially after the tremendous success of Peter the 1st, M.V. Lomonosov, N.M. Karamzin, who can be called outstanding neologists. F.M. Dostoevsky was proud of his neologism “стушевался”. The English language was enriched by Shakespeare (invented 500 words, hint, critic); Geoffrey Chaucer (universe, approach), Ben Jonson (rant, petulant), John Donne (self-preservation, valediction) and Sir Thomas More (atonement, anticipate), so they used to be neologists as well. Due to the fact that from time to time some French and Russian activists tried to preserve the purity and originality of their languages in the previous centuries nowadays it is hardly possible, especially after reading an article on social issues on the BBC. I came across such words as “парламентский пул”, “харассмент”[11], the words that can be substituted with “бюро”, “домогательство”. In this case I am not sure whether this is the issue of lexicon enrichment or simple passing the Russian language, as well as other languages through a global language grinder. I do not see the need in such radical mutations. To my mind, the first the definition given by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary “a new word, usage, or expression”[6] is more functional and necessary than simple renaming and substituting existing words. The second explanation given in this entry is a *psychological term* “a new word that is coined especially by a person affected with schizophrenia and is meaningless except to the coiner, and is typically a combination of two existing words or a shortening or distortion of an existing word”. The electronic online dictionary http://www.yourdictionary.com/ has a theological explanation of a neologism “a new doctrine or a new interpretation of scripture” [9]. As we see, the term neologism has become polysemous.

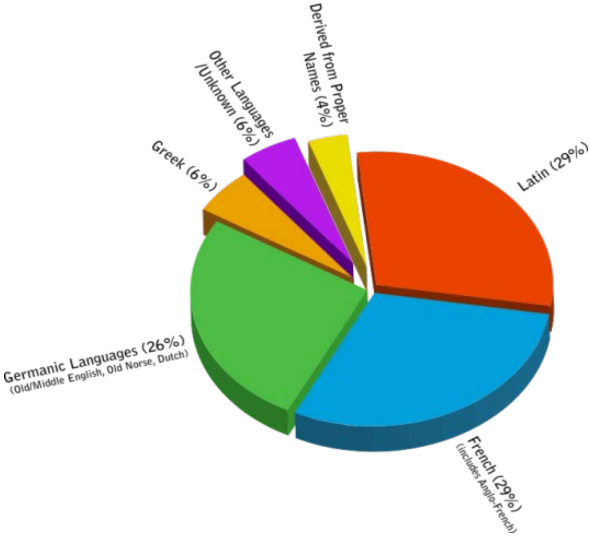
The above-mentioned definitions do not define “linguistic nature”, and the “chronological character of neologism’ [7 (Rey, p.64)]. Alain Rey gives his definition to the term, “new units in a specific linguistic code“, to satisfy immediate and practical purposes. V.S. Vinogradov writes «Неологизмы - это закрепляющиеся в языке новые слова или значения, которые называют новые предметы мысли» [10].

The extended use of neologisms created a variety of derivatives that are widely used, such as NEOLOGIAN,

NEOLOGIC/NEOLOGISTIC, NEOLOGY, NEOLOGIZE, NEOLOGIZATION [1]. Recorded usage of the word neologism within 300 years proves the growing necessity of this term beginning with middle of the 20th century.



The influence of the English language on the world is highly appreciated and accepted by the global society. We can find anglicisms in any living and existing languages that live modern lives. However, before becoming a global lingua franca, the language that unites speakers of different languages, the English language has passed through radical changes. The most noticeable stages of its development from the Old English period, when it was highly influenced by Danes and Norwegians, to the Norman Invasion that preceded the Middle English period, classified as the version close to the modern. [5] The percentage on the English words taken from different languages is high as well. The present diagram proves the huge impact of the Vikings raids and Norman Invasion.



The language has unlimited creativity, that might be the road to hell. People generate morpheme-words lexical units, complex words, and even “lexicalized” phrasal units. The core area of neology can be divided into two groups:

- The area of borrowings
- The area of morthology, where morphological novelties (base+suffix, prefix+base, base+base) can enter the lexicon by forming conceptual or communicative units, thus becoming part of a lexicon.

The process of neologisms acceptance is almost impossible to predict. However, A. Rey considers that neologisms must be accepted as functional and pragmatic lexical novelties and the concept can only depend on a collective judgment, otherwise they become neological phantasms. When a larger group of users get to know a new term it rises to another level of usage. The simple chronological view of neology, as of a single act of communication, like a single text, is an “insufficient criterion for declaring the existence of a neologism” [7 (Rey, p.73)]. Psychological and sociological factors are the limiters that determine the lexical norm and guarantee the efficacy of communication.

Alain Rey distinguishes between formal, semantic and pragmatic types of neologisms.

1. Formal neology - “the result of the application of grammatical rules to the morpheme store of the language”. (suffixation, prefixation, composition), i.e. “From Obamacare toTrumpcare”, by Harry Nelson, путинизм, etc.
2. Semantic neology if found in all neologisms. It can be total in the system (borrowings), partial (words created by affixation, composition, agglutination into complex words, syntagmatic formations into word groups), and weak (acronyms, abbreviations).
3. Pragmatic neology is identified in relation to communication. It is not possible to consider a neologism independently from concrete processes of language. A new word can always move from a dialect to another subsystem and become a neologism.

The three above- mentioned aspects are necessary to define what is “new” in neologisms.

E.V.Rozen divides neologisms into two groups 1.necessary, and 2.redundant. Into the first group he includes neologisms that appear to identify new inventions, new ideas, while the second group includes the appearance of new words for the already existing, or borrowed from other languages, dialects, jargons.

V. G. Gack underlines the importance of neology to identify the ways of recognizing new words and meanings, analyzing the factors of their appearance, investigating the models of if their formation, elaborating the principles of their acceptance or not acceptance, and finally their lexicography, getting a dictionary entry. The way of a new lexical unit into a language might be long and thorny but as A.Rey has said, “it is impossible to name without names.” According to Global Language Monitor, around 5,400 new words are created every year; and only 1,000 or so are sufficiently widespread to be printed.

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ЛИНГОСТРАНОВЕДЧЕСКАЯ НАПРАВЛЕННОСТЬ УРОКОВ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В ОБУЧЕНИИ ДЕТЕЙ С ОСОБЫМИ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНЫМИ ПОТРЕБНОСТЯМИ

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Abstract: This article deals with the problem of the lingo-cultural orientation of the English language lessons in teaching children with special educational needs. The features of teaching a foreign language to children with special educational needs, organizational and methodological aspects of this teacher's work in an inclusive class are shown in this work. The author gives the examples of the teacher's work during extracurricular activity, and justifies the used methods.

Key words: children with special educational needs, lingo-cultural orientation of studying a foreign language, extra-curricular work.

Одно из направлений модернизации образования в республике Молдова – внедрение во все уровни образования идей инклюзивного обучения. Эта работа проводится в соответствии с Постановлением правительства республики Молдова «О развитии инклюзивного образования в республике Молдова на 2011-2020гг.).

Перед учителями школы, и, в частности, перед учителями иностранного языка, возникает вопрос – как наиболее эффективно учить таких детей? Ведь для большинства из них характерны отклонения в речевом развитии, они испытывают трудности в звуковом анализе, у многих нарушен фонематический слух.

Специалисты в области коррекционной педагогики пришли к единому мнению о том, что обучение иностранному языку школьников с особыми образовательными потребностями необходимо проводить не столько с целью практического овладения иностранной речью, сколько для их общего развития, совершенствования процессов мышления, памяти, воображения, активизации познавательной деятельности. Иностранный язык, как никакой другой предмет, способствует решению этих задач. Практическое же овладение языком (на определённом уровне) становится средством решения этих задач.

Для того, чтобы успешно обучать иностранному языку детей с ООП, учитель должен знать особенности проявления различных типов отклонения учащихся и в соответствии с этим намечать стратегии их обучения, одновременно рассматривая аспект коррекционной педагогической деятельности.

Одним из способов повысить эффективность учебно-воспитательного процесса по иностранному языку является взаимосвязь урочной и внеурочной работы по предмету, так как изучение любой программной темы во внеурочной деятельности может положительно повлиять на формирование компетенций учащихся.

Поэтому при планировании и осуществлении работы с этой категорией детей учитель иностранного языка должен выбрать те формы, которые, с одной стороны способствуют освоению иностранного языка, а с другой стороны отвечают образовательным потребностям «особых детей» и сочетаются со всей системой учебно-воспитательного процесса.

На основе исследований A. Budnic, E. Costovici и др. мы выделили те виды мотивации, развитие которых способствует повышению эффективности в обучении иностранному языку детей с особыми образовательными потребностями:

1. целевая коммуникативная мотивация, когда главная внутренняя установка ребёнка – это общение со сверстниками и взрослыми;
2. страноведческая мотивация, вытекающая из удовлетворения специфического, эмоционально-личностного интереса ребёнка к стране изучаемого языка, ее культуре, народу;
3. лингвопознавательная мотивация, вытекающая из интереса к самой языковой форме (например, к этимологии, приращению лексического запаса, работе с контекстом, сбору идиоматических выражений и т.д.);
4. инструментальная мотивация, которая развивается на основе чувства радости и удовлетворения от выполнения определенных видов работы;
5. эстетическая мотивация, вытекающая из эстетического удовольствия, наслаждения, получаемого от процесса познания иностранного языка, от участия в различных формах работы по иностранному языку [1; 2].

Опыт работы автора статьи даёт основание сделать вывод о том, что на начальном этапе организации работы по иностранному языку с учащимися с особыми образовательными потребностями, мотивы деятельности очень часто определяются не такими факторами, как, например, чувство долга, жизненные планы, а интересом к самой деятельности. В связи с этим учителю не имеет смысла чрезмерно увлекаться разъяснением социальной и личностной значимости иностранного языка. Гораздо важнее обеспечить разнообразную, способную увлечь детей коммуникативную деятельность и постараться организовать ее таким образом, чтобы учащиеся испытывали удовлетворение от достигнутых результатов, чтобы осознание успеха и чувство гордости стимулировали их деятельность на последующих этапах работы.

В целом ряде исследований доказана эффективность использования лингвострановедческой направленности в изучении иностранного языка, которая предполагает знание учащимися основных особенностей социокультурного развития страны изучаемого языка.

При отборе лингвострановедческого материала для обучения иностранному языку детей с ООП используются такие критерии, как соответствие материалов определенной тематике, соответствия возрасту и интересам, эмоциональность, языковая доступность, значимость и другие.

При реализации лингвострановедческого компонента в обучении языку детей с особыми образовательными потребностями очень важна их стимуляция интереса к языку, мотивация учения, развитие образного мышления, формирование образно-художественной памяти, более осознанное овладение языком, как средством общения.

Доказано, что использование в работе с ними лингвострановедческой информации в доступной и увлекательной форме, способствует усвоению ими элементов иноязычной культуры, повышению познавательной активности, созданию у них положительной мотивации к изучению языка. А главное – в этой работе формируется социокультурная компетенция учащихся, удовлетворяются их познавательные потребности, что в дальнейшем положительно скажется на процессе полноценной социализации.

Личностно-ориентированное образование гуманистического типа – важнейшее требование к обучению детей с особыми образовательными потребностями. А процесс обучения иностранному языку, построенный на коммуникативной основе, расширяет возможности в решении этой задачи. Это связано с тем, что подход сконцентрированный на «особом ученике» способствует не только развитию идеи коммуникативной компетенции в области иностранного языка, но и более лёгкой интеграции учащихся в систему массового образования. Он основан на гуманистических воззрениях, личной инициативе учащихся, индивидуально ориентированной внеклассной работе, привлечении альтернативных источников информации и творческих проектных заданий.

При этом особая роль отводится социокультурному компоненту содержания обучения, который становится всё более актуальным в свете формирования в обществе республики толерантного отношения к детям с психо-физическими отклонениями и их интеграции в социум.

Специалист в области преподавания иностранного языка Elena Costovici считает, что в планировании и проведении внеклассной работы по предмету необходимо принимать во внимание, что она значима и эффективна в том случае, если каждое её мероприятие органически вписывается в учебно-воспитательный процесс школы. В связи с этим все проводимые в рамках системы внеклассной работы формы, как постоянно действующие, так и периодические, должны координироваться администрацией школы и органически сочетаться с планами работы классных руководителей, деятельностью ученических организаций школы [2]. Учитывая это положение, учитель иностранного языка должен координировать индивидуальную работу с инклюзивными детьми с многопрофильной комиссией, которые сегодня созданы во всех образовательных учреждениях, администрацией школы, узкими специалистами, а также родителями ученика.

Особое внимание следует обратить на детей имеющих интеллектуальную недостаточность. В работе с ними надо учитывать, что речь детей с недостаточным интеллектом и на родном языке ограничена бытовой тематикой, лексически небогата, грамматически часто неправильна. А так как степень обученности иностранному языку зависит от общего уровня развития ребёнка, то освоить иноязычную речь он сможет только на уровне своего развития. Следовательно, необходимо сократить количество лексических единиц для запоминания и активного применения, часть грамматических явлений вынести только на ознакомление, то есть сделать учебный материал доступным и дать возможность ребёнку поверить в свой успех. Любой даже маленький шаг в изучении иностранного языка надо поощрять и не зацикливаться на исправлении ошибок.

Эффективность работы по иностранному языку в инклюзивном классе во многом определяется соответствием её содержания, форм и методов психофизиологическим особенностям учащихся, учетом типа отклонений ученика, направленностью коррекционной работы.

Работая с детьми, имеющими особые образовательные потребности, учитель должен учитывать целый ряд педагогических условий, от которых зависит успешность освоения ими иностранного языка.

На организационно-методическом уровне необходимо обеспечить проведение организационно-аналитических мероприятий, которые будут способствовать оптимизации изучения иностранного языка детьми с ООП. К ним мы отнесли:

- определение образовательных потребностей учащихся с нарушениями развития;
- оценка возможностей школы и конкретного учителя в реализации обучения иностранному языку этой категории детей;
- оценка материальной и методической базы для решения задач коррекционно-развивающего обучения в процессе изучения иностранного языка.

Основополагающим условием успешной работы учителя является разработка программно-методического обеспечения работы с данной категорией детей, которая включает:

- при необходимости гибкий индивидуальный план учебной деятельности по иностранному языку, предполагающий варьирование объема учебного материала за определенный отрезок времени;
- адаптацию куррикулума по иностранному языку в соответствии с индивидуальными возможностями ребенка к коллективной и индивидуальной формам обучения.

Важным условием успешного обучения иностранному языку детей с ООП является психологическая готовность педагогов к этой деятельности. Это предполагает принятие учителем концепции обучения детей с нарушениями развития в образовательном учреждении, мотивацию и стимулирование их деятельности. В этой связи очень важным является использование в учебно-воспитательном процессе педагогики сотрудничества, как средства обеспечения субъект-субъектного характера отношений, индивидуально дифференцированного подхода, технологии проблемного обучения, связи иностранного языка с другими предметами.

Особо важен в этой связи аспект индивидуально дифференцированного подхода. Он направлен на преодоление несоответствия между уровнем владения иностранным языком, который определяет куррикулум данной ступени и реальными возможностями каждого ученика.

Представленные педагогические условия смогут обеспечить эффективное обучение детей с ООП: развитие у учащихся самостоятельности в овладении знаниями на иностранном языке и иноязычной коммуникативной компетенции, творческих способностей и активной жизненной позиции в иноязычной речевой деятельности.

Сейчас очень много говорят о инновационных методах, в том числе и по обучению иностранному языку. Тем не менее, считаем необходимым отметить, что в погоне за инновационными средствами образования ни в коем случае не следует забывать о традиционных методах, большинство из которых в течение нескольких десятков лет доказали свою результативность в системе специального обучения. Среди подобных методов можно назвать работу с оригинальными аудиоматериалами (в том числе и музыкальными), содержащими социокультуроведческую информацию о стране изучаемого языка; ролевые игры и коммуникативные задания, проведение викторин, КВНов и др. [5; 6].

Мы учли мнение специалистов о том, что одним из эффективных средств воспитания у учащихся с ООП интереса к английскому языку, создания коммуникативной направленности является игра. Это особенно важно для младших школьников с задержкой психического развития. Опыт работы с этой категорией детей убедил нас в том, что в играх различные знания и сведения по иностранному языку ученик получает легко, и то что на уроке кажется трудным, даже недостижимым, во время игры легко усваивается. Интерес и удовольствие, по нашему мнению, - важные психологические эффекты игры. Игровые приемы приближают речевую деятельность к естественным нормам, помогают развивать навык общения, способствует эффективной обработке языкового материала, обеспечивают практическую направленность обучения.

Для детей с ООП важно, чтобы цель игры была достижимой, а оформление - красочным и разнообразным. Тогда будет действовать фактор эмоциональности, и игра будет вызывать удовольствие, весёлое настроение, удовлетворение от удачного ответа.

Степень интенсивности информационной, психологической и методической оформленности материалов, как и помощи учителя при подготовке к ролевым играм, должна варьироваться в зависимости от уровня коммуникативно-речевой и социокультурной подготовки учащихся**,** особенностей их психофизического развития.

Их следует активно привлекать к проведению традиционных английских праздников: «День Святого

Николауса», «Рождество», «День Святого Валентина», «Halloween» - с разучиванием песен, стихов и танцев; изготовлением национальных атрибутов, приготовлением совместно с родителями национальных блюд.

Таким образом, изучение иностранного языка детьми с особенностями развития создаёт вокруг них реабилитирующее, развивающее пространство, помогающее им реализовать себя как полноценную личность в рамках учебного процесса даже такого сложного предмета, как иностранный язык. Задача учителя – проявлять мудрое терпение, быть чутким и принимать детей такими, какие они есть, радоваться успехам каждого.

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