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Настоящее издание содержит материалы международной конференции, проведенной Дальневосточной общественной организацией преподавателей английского языка и Пан-азиатским консорциумом совместно с Дальневосточным федеральным университетом. Тексты докладов ученых освещают вопросы лингвистики и методики преподавания английского языка и культуры.

Издание адресовано специалистам, студентам и аспирантам, занимающимся проблемами лингвистики, преподавания иностранного языка и культуры.

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Contents

LINGUISTICS

Linguistics Through the Lenses of Gender Display

Victoria Jansen-Akulicheva
Steinke-Institut, Germany-Russia

Abstract

This paper sets out to investigate the intensification of the anthropological approach in linguistics through the lenses of gender display. Gender linguistics explores social and cultural factors determining the behavior of men and women in society according to their gender relations, and it reveals how social gender is reflected in language. Linguistic methods and language elements discover gender representations as well as gender asymmetry.

Keywords: *gender, gender linguistics, gender display, gender factor*

Introduction

It would be no exaggeration to say that gender and language are deeply interrelated. Moreover, the gender factor constantly appears in intercultural communication: linguistic elements can be either gender neutral or gender significant. Language androcentrism is shown on different structural levels and, therefore, it displays gender asymmetry of forms and demonstrates their development in the language. On the one hand, linguistic methods allow us to reveal gender representations in text structure. On the other hand, the analysis of the gender factor makes it possible to explore through the lenses of gender how different language elements vary.

Recently growing attention has been devoted to a new approach in linguistics, termed gender linguistics, in connection with the arrival of the category *gender* in the academic paradigm. That happened due to the fact that social factors have been found to be determinative in language disciplines that are deeply related to the individual. Thus, the introduction of the category of gender into linguistic terminology has opened new perspectives for the analysis of different aspects of language.

Gender linguistics requires research based on psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, cognitive linguistics, intercultural communication, pragmalinguistics and other social disciplines. Gender is shown on different structural levels of the language, forms gender differences and demonstrates how they are developed in the language.

The concept of *gender* appeared in research in the 60s' of the 20th century dealing with a broad spectrum of gender issues across the social realm, but it began to generate interest in linguistics in the 80s', later than in other social sciences such as history, psychology and sociology. Originally the research was conducted in the West by Western linguists (Baylon, 2002; Cameron, 1992; Christie, 2000; Coates, 1986; Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 2004; Houdebine-Gravaud, 2003; Jespersen, 1964; Kotthoff, 2002; Lakoff, 1973).

The concept of *gender* is associated with the name of the American psychoanalyst Robert Stoller who states: "It's important to differentiate biological and social nature: sex is supposed to be studied by biology and physiology, and gender should be investigated by psychology and sociology" (1985, p. 45).

Though *gender* is now in use and is recognized by the majority of scholars, still there are some difficulties in distinguishing the nuances of this notion. It first appeared in the English language and is a synonym of a grammatical category, which causes difficulties in linguistic description: along with the concept gender, English scholars use such terms as *sex difference* and *sex role*. In Western linguistics the concept of *gender* reflects the fact that a man is not only a biological, but also a social creature.

Misunderstandings of the notion vary from one language to another. In the English language, *gender* indicates not only a grammatical category, but also a social category. But in the French language, the situation is more complicated: despite the existence of such words as *le genre* which means the grammar category and *le sexe* which means the biological category the word *le genre* is not used for *gender* designation. Moreover, its English equivalent is avoided. As a result, the French language prefers such constructions as *masculine – feminine* and *l'identité sexuelle.* R. Stoller's 1985 book is known in English as *Presentations of Gender* but

was translated into French as *Masculin ou Féminin?* (1989). In Russian linguistics the concept of *gender* is widely used along with its equivalents: *gender relations, gender aspects, gender studies.*

Gender display penetrates into all human activities, is fixed in language, and has an effect on speech. In this case *gender* is interpreted as a factor that reveals gender stereotypes and is fixed in native speakers' consciousness. C. West and D. Zimmermann (2000) assert: "Gender characteristic is not just an aspect of personality but man's interaction with others" (p. 84). Social planning and its representation have become the predominant elements of linguistic description which analyzes the language in the deep correlation between society and people, reflected in the social structure of relations.

The name of Otto Jespersen is closely related with gender linguistics as he was among the pioneers. He drew serious and fundamental conclusions about the linguistic differences of men and women in his study *Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin* (1964). He acknowledged different language strategies that differentiate men and women on the level of vocabulary, syntax, etc. Women use traditional language according to the existing rules, while men are not afraid of making language experiments. Women learn language more quickly, but at the same time it is important to note that orators were mainly men. Women use syntax with a simpler structure – coordinative sentences, called parataxis; men create more complex subordinating sentences, called hypotaxis. Besides, he posited that logical connections between the parts of a sentence in hypotactic style is expressed clearly and unambiguously, while it is hidden in paratactic style. Otto Jespersen compared these sentence types: "A male period is often like a set of Chinese boxes, one within another, while a feminine period is like a set of pearls joined together on a string of ands and similar words" (1964, p. 252).

Gender display in linguistics is conducted actively, and the conclusions are based on data from European languages, mainly English. Unlike gender display studies in Western linguistics which have been and remain popular thanks to numerous studies, Russian gender linguistics does not have a long history. Besides, Russian scholarship was not developed based on feminist ideology as happened in the US and Western Europe. Feminism has turned to questions of language to show men's language domination, to reveal discriminative structures, and to demonstrate the sexist character of the language. In Russia the feminist factor has not been presented so vividly, and issues of feminism have not been discussed, for political and social reasons. The absence of critical discussion has brought things to the point where gender studies did not form part of academic and interdisciplinary movements. This process began only under the influence of ideas from Europe (Горошко, 2003; Кирилина, 1999; Халеева, 1999).

A new wave of studies started to be conducted only in the mid-90s of the 20th century. Developing during the period of postmodern philosophy, genderology studies language structures and acknowledges their significant role in cultural representations of gender. Gender can be analyzed through various disciplines that examine the issues of reference, nomination, discursive peculiarities, linguistic studies of culture, etc. Their aim is to study how gender is demonstrated in the language, what values refer to men and women, and in what semantic fields they are found.

The main difficulty of gender linguistics consists of a huge amount of theory coming from the feministic perspective on gender. This area is closely connected with psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and communication theory.

At the end of the 60s and the beginning of the 70s, gender linguistics became widespread due to a new women's movement in the USA and Germany, as a consequence a new approach, called *feminist linguistics,* appeared in linguistics. The main research revealed the subordinate state and defectiveness of the image of women created in language. Particular features of feminist linguistics are: its polemical character, its use of interdisciplinary studies (psychology, sociology, ethnography, anthropology, history) and its attempts to influence linguistic policy.

The precursor of gender terminology was the book *The Second Sex* by Simone de Beauvoir (1975). De Beauvoir argued that men had made women the "Other" in society and: "It was nowhere more true than with sex in which men stereotyped women and used it as an excuse to organize society into a patriarchy" (p. 29). *The Second Sex* published in French in 1975 sets out the question of androcentricity of language as a manifestation of the world's androcentricity.

Robin Lakoff's study *Language and Woman's Place* (1975) became the fundamental work on feminist linguistics which introduced to the field of sociolinguistics many ideas about women's language that are now commonplace. She proposed that women's speech can be distinguished from that of men in a number of ways lexically, syntactic, and in intonation:

- Use of phrases like "*sort of,*" "*kind of,*" "*it seems like*";

- Adjectives with extra connotative meaning: *divine, adorable, gorgeous*, etc.;
- Polite forms: "*Would you mind…*", "*Is it ok if…?*", "*…if it's not too much to ask*";
- Apologies: "*I'm sorry, but I think that…*";
- Avoidance of coarse language or expletives;
- Prevalence of tag questions: "*You don't mind eating this, do you?*", *"The war in Vietnam is terrible, isn't it?"* Such sentences allow the speaker to avoid conflict with the addressee*;*
- Hyper-correct grammar and pronunciation: use of prestige grammar and clear articulation;
- Indirect requests: "*Wow, I'm so thirsty*" when asking for a drink;
- Speaking in italics: the use of tone to emphasize certain words, e.g., "*so*", "*very*", "*quite*".

According to R. Lakoff (1973), the peculiarity of women's language consists in "blurring feminine identity and in its denial of possibility to express itself" (p. 48).

Further discussion focused on the forms *Mrs.* and *Miss* which can offend women's dignity: the marital status of a woman is specially marked by means of language, while no special indication exists for men in this case. That is why such forms as *Mrs.* and *Miss* should be substituted with the neutral *Ms.* which does not accentuate the marital status of the woman. Language creates an image of the world based on men's point of view and women's opinions are not taken into consideration (Lakoff, 1973, p. 45; Michard, 2003, p. 68).

This publication provoked many scholarly discussions based mainly on two ideas: firstly, women and men speak differently, therefore, there are two types of language: the men's variant and the women's variant. Secondly, differences in men's and women's speech are the result of men's predominance. Later these two approaches were transformed into a theory of difference and a theory of dominance (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 2004; p. 4). The brightest example of research based on the first theory is D. Tannen's book *You Don't Understand Me,* where she analyses men's and women's speech styles and states that the conversation between men and women is the communication of opposite cultures (Tannen, 2001). The second theory is represented by D. Spencer's study *Man Made Language* (1980).

Feminist linguistics affirms that all languages are based on men's worldview and are the source of power for defining language structure, mentality and reality. This is known as the androcentrism of the language. For instance, in many European languages there is an identification of notions. In English "man" is a person of masculine sex, and at the same time it is the notion of a person, a human being. The same situation is found in French where two notions are united in the word "homme". Moreover, language prefers masculine forms to indicate groups of different sexes (médecin, professeur); feminine nouns are derivatives from masculine forms (étudiant – étudiante; ouvrier – ouvrière).

Language androcentricity is the display of gender asymmetry in language. Femininity and masculinity are differentiated and opposed which leads to misunderstandings in communication. Thus, it is quite natural that feminist linguistics advocates changing language norms and bases this on the principles of language regulation and language policy. Another important issue of feminist linguistics is research into communication in unisex and mixed groups which shows and describes masculine and feminine strategies of talk behavior.

The development of feminist linguistics formed has led to linguistic approaches:

Cross-cultural and *linguo-cultural linguistics* examine how men's and women's behavior may vary according to the norms of a culture, thus the main purpose of this research is the investigation and description of possible differences.

Masculinity linguistics explores how masculinity is reflected in language, as an example for imitation. But it is evident that masculinity as well as feminity can change through history and can vary in different cultures.

Psycholinguistics explores the cognitive differences of men's, women's and children's talk. Various experiments revealed differences in men's and women's talk (Кирилина, 1999, p. 59): women are more likely to change the subject of conversation; men prefer not paying attention to hints not related to the topic; women use examples from their lives as arguments to support an idea; men often interrupt women and even each other during conversations; men prefer using lots of terms and definitions, and often make their speech ruder. Slang is not supposed to be used in mixed groups; women's speech is very expressive and full of interjections; men's speech is stylistically neutral; stereotypes in men's and women's speech are related to different values: sport, professional activity, the military sphere, nature, family, etc.

Sociolinguistics examines how people of different races, ethnicities, classes, and nationalities assume gender identities in various historical periods and use language for communication.

Conclusion

Linguistics through the lenses of gender display possesses vast perspectives for research, leads to the analysis of communication and interaction between men and women from the point of view of different linguistic disciplines: feminist linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, cross-cultural linguistics, pragmatics, etc. Gender display is an interdisciplinary category that mainly focuses on social and cultural differences, leaving behind biological characteristics. In this case, linguistics observes language peculiarities taking into consideration the social differences of men and women and investigates the interaction of gender with language. Linguistics analyzes what role the gender factor plays, which language features may be considered as masculine or feminine, how gender display reflects language learning, and how it is represented in different kinds of texts.

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Some Trends in Chinese Vocabulary

Anna Khamatova
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The last thirty years have seen great changes in all fields of human activities in China and the response of vocabulary to these changes is immediate and sensitive. The ways the Chinese language has enriched its vocabulary in the last decades of the 20th century have been analyzed by Russian and Chinese linguists. This article gives an analysis of the new words registered by *The Dictionary of New Words in the Chinese Language* (2005-2010) which includes two thousand words, and the ways the Chinese language is developing in the early 21st century.

Keywords: *neologisms, word-formation, borrowed words, lettered words, abbreviations, Internet vocabulary*

Being a complex and dynamic system, a language is always in motion and is constantly developing. Each language has its past, present and future. The dynamic character of the language is manifested through the ways a language enriches its vocabulary. There are periods of very rapid development of vocabulary in the history of every language. The last few decades can be easily called a neological boom time for the Chinese language. In China, this period has seen changes in all spheres of people's activities. These changes have an immediate impact on lexis.

The first decade of the 21st century has come to an end and the question arises of whether the vocabulary trends identified in the late 20th century have changed in the 21st.

The Dictionary of New Words in the Chinese Language (2005-2010) [汉语新词词典: 2005-2010] (hereafter *The Dictionary*), which includes 2,000 new words, was published in 2011 in Shanghai by Wang Junxi. The first evidence provided by the Dictionary is that the new Chinese vocabulary is complex. Among 2,000 neologisms, there are only 28 monosyllable words. This accounts for 1.4% of the words in *The Dictionary*. 1,152 words are disyllable words (57.6%); the rest of the words (41%) are tri-syllable and multi-syllable words.

Almost half of the monosyllable words in *The Dictionary* (13 out of 28) are labelled "Internet word". For example: 表 *biǎo* – should not, not necessary; 寒 *hán* – unable to get; 槑 *méi* – to become extremely stupid; to petrify; 切 *qiè* – a particle, expressing contempt; 素 *sù* – yes, there is (synonym 是).

Among monosyllable words, there is a group catalogued as abbreviations and acronyms, including: 麦 *mài* – from 麦克风 *màikèfēng* – a microphone; 博 *bó* – from 博客 *bókè* – a blogger; 院 *yuàn* – from 院长 *yuànzhǎng* – a president, director; 台 *tái* – from 台长 *táizhǎng* – an executive of a TV channel; 社 *shè* – from 社长 *shèzhǎng* – a managing director.

Notably, *The Dictionary* points out that the last name of every official should have (院, 台, 社) before the last three monosyllables. Only one monosyllable in *The Dictionary* is noted as having a dialectal origin: 面 *miàn* – weekish.

There are polysemous words among the monosyllables in *The Dictionary*: 粉 *fěn* – 1. Narcotic. 2. Much (on the Internet); 晒 *shài* – 1. To give publicity, to expose on the Internet. 2. To disclose, to exhibit.

There are synonymous pairs among the monosyllable neologisms. For example: 1. 撂 *liào* – to confess; 喷 *pēn* – to make full admissions; 2. 顶 *dǐng* – to withstand, to support (on the Internet); 挺 *tǐng* – to withstand, to support.

As one can see from the examples above, the majority of the monosyllables are neosemantisms, but in one case there is not just a new meaning for an existing word or morpheme, but a new character: 槑 *méi* – to become extremely stupid, to petrify. The word *stupid* is usually designated by the character 呆 *dāi* in the Chinese language. *Extreme stupidity*, designated by a new character in *The Dictionary*, is a reduplication of the existing character.

The analysis of the multi-syllable vocabulary in *The Dictionary* shows that the major method of word formation is compounding. This is characteristic of both disyllable and multi-syllable words, as well. For instance: 彩晶 *cǎijīng* – colored crystal; 黑社 *hēishè* – an illegal travel agency; 互联网寡妇 *hùliánwǎng*

guǎfù – an Internet widow (women whose men, including their husbands, are no longer interested in them because they are addicted to the Internet); 毒女 *dúnǚ* – a female drug addict; 电话家教 *diànhuà jiājiào* – a new kind of home tutoring, by paying a monthly tuition fee, a student can have consultations with a tutor by phone.

Among multi-syllable neologisms there are words registered as Internet terms. For example: 黑人 *hēirén* – criticizing or libeling (dictionaries published earlier gave a different meaning – a person having no official residential registration); 好康 *hǎokāng* – beautiful; 灰常 *huīcháng* – extraordinary, unusual; 么么黑 *mòmòhēi* – very dark, very gloomy; 杯具 *bēijù* – tragedy (homonym 悲剧 *bēijù* – tragedy, drama); 茶具 *chájù* – deviation, discrepancy (compared to 差距 *chājù* – deviation, discrepancy).

There is also a new word with the meaning "a habit of using the Internet": 第五习惯 *dìwǔ xíguàn* – the fifth habit (after books, newspapers, radio, television).

Designated in Chinese linguistics as "new affixes", some Chinese morphemes are part of new words included in *The Dictionary*. For example: 高坛 *gāotán* – the world of golfers; 毒坛 *dútán* – drug addicts; the world of drug addicts (in this case one can see the semantic change of the morpheme 坛 *tán* – in the past it was used only to form words having a positive character); 乐拍族 *lèpāizū* – people fond of having their picture taken; 乐活族 *lèhuózū* – people fond of having fun.

The analysis of the vocabulary in *The Dictionary* supports the assumption that morphemic contraction, as a response to the increasing number of multi-syllable words in the early 21st century, has been and still is a productive type of new word formation. For example: 地工 *dìgōng* – from 地下工作者 *dìxià gōngzuòzhě* – an illegal worker; 币市 *bìshì* – from 钱币市场 *qiánbì shìchǎng* – financial market; 三险 *sānxiǎn* – from 养老保险 *yǎnglǎo bǎoxiǎn*，失业保险 *shīyè bǎoxiǎn*，医疗保险 *yīliáo bǎoxiǎn* – three types of social insurance programs (old-age insurance, unemployment insurance, sickness insurance).

The specific group (其他 qítā – other, miscellaneous) is comprised of 107 new words, which generally appear to be so-called lettered words (字母词 zìmǔcí), but this list also includes new words made by combining letters and hieroglyphs, numbers and letters or simply numbers. The majority of these new words are borrowed abbreviations, but along with them there are more complex forms and even lettered words and interjections (a considerable portion of this vocabulary is labeled "Internet terms"): **m** – a fool, blockhead (Internet); **e** – wicked intentions; **VC** – venture capital; **PE** – private equity; **WEF** – World Economic Forum; **WTA** – Women's Tennis Associations; **3Q** – thank you (Internet); **419** – (four, one, nine – for one night) – one night love; **high** – hilarious, cheerful (Internet); **Ha ha** – laugh (Internet); **He, he** – laugh (Internet); **8** 好意思 *bā hǎoyìsi* (不好意思 *bù hǎoyìsi*) – awkwardly, embarrassing.

A considerable prportion of new words categorised as "other, miscellaneous" are abbreviations of the initial letters of the phonetic transcription, "pinyin", of Chinese morphemes. For example: **BC** – báichī – 白痴 – idiot (Internet); **BU** – biāohàn – 彪悍 – psychiatric deviations (Internet); **gx** – gōngxǐ – 恭喜 – to congratulate, congratulations (Internet); **JR** -jiànrén – 贱人 – a prostitute; **JS** – jiānshāng – 奸商 – a speculator (Internet); **SB** – shǎbi – 傻比 – a silly woman, an idiot (Internet).

Therefore, the analysis of the vocabulary in *The Dictionary* allows us to conclude that the development trends of Chinese vocabulary of the late 20th century are in still functioning in the 21st century. The trends are as follows:

Multi-syllable vocabulary makes up an absolute majority of new words in the Chinese language.

The major forms of new word formation are: compounding, morphemic contraction, affixation and the lexical-semantic way. Functional shift and reduplication are not productive word-building types for neologisms.

Foreign borrowed words are active sources for enriching the Chinese vocabulary. The major proportion of borrowed words is from English. These borrowings can be of different types: phonetic, semantic, semi-semantic and hybrid. Among the neologisms there are dialectal borrowed words.

The number of lettered words is growing. The analysis of *The Dictionary* shows that a variety of words is growing, too. These words are often not only lettered words and blend words, combining hieroglyphs and letters, but more complex forms, including numbers.

Internet vocabulary is actively developing. In the dictionary under consideration this vocabulary can be found both in the main corpus and in a special section called "other, miscellaneous" and including lettered words as well as combinations of lettered forms with hieroglyphs and numbers.

Authors and compilers of dictionaries of new words place Internet vocabulary in a differentl category from others. Thus, the compilers of the dictionary of new words published in Shanghai in 2009 place new Internet vocabulary in a special appendix under four sections: 1. Character neologisms; 2. Lettered words; 3. Numeric neologisms; 4. Frequently used words [现代汉语新词语词典].

Compilers of dictionaries face some difficulties dealing with lettered words. If they are not compiling a special dictionary of lettered words (some have been published, such as [汉语字母词词典]), some new words of this type are placed in the main corpus, others in the appendix. It is noteworthy that the number of the new words in appendices is constantly growing.

The development trends of the Chinese vocabulary require thorough study. The analysis of vocabulary in *The Dictionary* shows a sustainable development trend in Chinese vocabulary formation and provides food for thought about the further development of neologisms. We may ask: how neologisms accommodate; why some new words are actively used in the language and are placed in the main corpus, whereas another part disappears and is substituted by synonyms; whether lettered words have an impact on the typology of the Chinese language and on its writing; what is considered to be the norm for Internet vocabulary, etc. The rapid development of communication on the Internet has resulted in the formation of a specific system of terms which needs to be studied.

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Literary Translation from Chinese into Russian: Theory, Practice and Teaching Techniques

Nadezda Khuziyatova
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The necessity of teaching modern Chinese literature and literary texts as a part of teaching the Chinese language is often disputed. However, studying literature helps: to develop aesthetic criteria (which ultimately leads to aesthetic competence); to form concepts, which basically means to form the conceptual sphere of personality, and to realize how difficult translation is and to come up with creative ways to overcome this difficulty.

Keywords: *Chinese literature, literary text, problems of translation, teaching Chinese*

Introduction

Nowadays, Chinese Studies is taught in universities all over Russia; there are plenty of gifted and talented students, many of whom go on to enter post-graduate programs in China, master both written and spoken Chinese to perfection and express interest in the theory and practice of literary translation (one has only to log on to the Chinese Studies section of the Internet message board called Eastern Hemisphere to see evidence of that). However, translations of modern Chinese fiction into Russian are very few in number and those that do exist fail to interest Russian readers, even scholars of Chinese Studies themselves. This is a paradox. However, there are reasons for it. Those reasons lie only in part in the history and the present state of Chinese literature itself, but are mostly internal to Russia. The main reason is that Russia lacks a distinct and thought-out state cultural policy with respect to China. Actually, many prominent Russian scholars of Chinese Studies have written and spoken on the subject, expressing their concern, for several decades now (a well-

known Russian scholar, Kobzev, has said in an interview, "Unfortunately, the development of Chinese Studies in our country is inversely proportional to the growth of China's importance in the outside world" (Kobzev, 2011).

Chinese literature has not been popular during the last few decades because the works of fiction that happened to be translated have been poorly chosen (a collection of stories entitled *Chinese Metamorphoses* and edited by D. N. Voskresensky is one of the very few exceptions (Voskresensky, 2007). Western publishers try to minimize their risks by seeking out authors who emulate Western writings, and such authors are hard to find. The main problem is not just the choice of a particular work of fiction, but the choice of a translator who be able to present the work of fiction adequately, because some Chinese authors, no matter how popular they in China, need a facilitator to get through to a Western reader, so great are the differences in mentality and perception of art (there is a popular saying in Russia that goes, "The East is a delicate thing", which, of course, means that the East is a thing foreign and incomprehensible). Of course, there are also financial reasons behind the lack of popularity of Chinese literature in Russia. Publishers, who are used to paying low fees for translations from European languages, opt to have Chinese fiction translated from English or French. The fees that translators get for translations from Chinese are so inadequate in comparison to the work involved that to engage in translating fiction is actually only possible for a person who has a substantial source of income elsewhere. In addition, there are such factors as the generational change among the translators that happened in the 1990s, lack of specialized training programs producing highly qualified translators capable of making literary translations from Chinese into Russian, and insufficient development of Chinese Translation Studies as an independent field.

Owing to the work of V. M. Alekseyev, N. T. Fedorenko, Yu. A. Sorokin in the 20th century, we do have some theoretical basis for literary translations from Chinese into Russian, but it needs to be strengthened, developed and brought up-to-date. Scholars of Chinese Studies seeking methodological support often turn to the theory of translation from Western languages, but it is insufficient for their purposes. Considering the complexity of bilingual and bicultural problems that we face we need a proper theoretical foundation specific to literary translations from Chinese into Russian. Chinese literature is very hard to translate into Russian (and as for poetry, it is virtually impossible to translate). Besides, as V. M. Alekseyev (1982) says, "there are no standard principles for translating Chinese poetry and prose: every translation is made according to its purpose and its reader" (p. 141). The result depends on the extent of the translator's talent (it is well known that literary translation is a literary pursuit in its own right, or even an art) and on his or her ability to stay faithful to the original (Victor Golyshev said in one of his interviews, "The most important thing is to respect the author. The second is to respect the Russian language. The third – to respect oneself. And the fourth – to respect the reader" (Golyshev, 1991).

Many feel that the most substantial problems when translating from Chinese are due to the use of Chinese characters and the fact that the literary texture of the original written in those characters (that is, visual objects, capable, unlike writings in alphabet letters, of conveying certain imagery) is completely obliterated by translation. Others, like the prominent American scholar James J. Liu, think that the impact of the visual effect is overestimated, while the audio effects created by the monosyllabic nature of Chinese characters and the tone system, are gravely underestimated (especially in poetry). The Chinese language does not have morphological means of expressing such categories as tense, aspect, person, case and number (which is manifested differently in prose and in poetry). The information about the spatio-temporal framework that the original does convey is not conveyed through word forms, and often it is not conveyed at all. According to Tan (2000), "completely different mechanisms of coding and decoding" (p. 131) are at work here, and that creates a multitude of additional difficulties hindering the translation from having the same emotional and intellectual impact on the reader, as the original.

The main object of contemporary research, which especially emphasizes cultural aspects of translation, is to identify essential differences between the original and the translation, differences originating not only in the language form, but also in cultural factors. This means that a translator from Chinese into Russian needs to perform a full linguistic and cultural analysis of the text and context involved in the translation. In the meantime, the respective lacunas in the two language systems are so numerous that the translator often has to resort to intricate and extensive commentaries. In contemporary literature, the problem is somewhat alleviated by the similarity of historical, cultural and personal (social) experience, namely the experience of surviving through tough socio-economic and political conditions of the recent past.

Discussions about methods of teaching the Chinese language and the choice of related subjects for future translators and interpreters always raise the question of universality vs. specialization. Yu. A. Sorokin (2003) thinks that "every student of Chinese, Japanese or Korean is capable of translating anything, including fiction" (p. 73). Although this declaration might be somewhat exaggerated, it is often confirmed by reality. However, the system of higher education does not have any kind of solid and thought-out academic program for teaching the theory and practice of literary translation. Frankly speaking, it is not likely to produce one any time soon (lack of time, especially with the transition to a bachelor program underway; excessive regulations concerning educational standards, academic programs and educational process; the existing framework of priorities, and preference for socio-economic studies shown by students; the lack of enthusiastic and skilled teaching staff being the main reasons). However, some universities that provide Chinese language education also offer reading and translation of fiction as academic subjects (such subjects exist at the Institute of Asian and African Studies, Moscow State University (IAAS, MSU) and in the Oriental Studies Faculty of Saint Petersburg State University (SPSU), both of which have produced many prominent translators of Chinese). Literary translation as an academic subject also used to be taught in the Oriental Studies Institute of the Far Eastern National University (FENU, now the Far Eastern Federal University, FEFU), complete with a textbook created by the relevant Department and certified by the Education and Methodics Association (Khuziyatova, 2005).

At present, students doing Oriental and African Studies or Regional Studies as undergraduates at FEFU obtain basic skills in reading and translating fiction in such classes as Written Chinese, and Translation and Abstracting (two semesters in the 4th year). These classes correspond with the transition to the Advanced level of studying the language and are based on the contents of textbooks published in China which are not translation-oriented (on the negative side), but which draw their material from works of fiction (on the positive side). As with translations of Chinese literature, the choice of literary texts is extremely important (meaning the choice of textbook or, rather, the combination of textbooks, perhaps with a further addition of materials prepared by the professor). Nowadays there is nothing or almost nothing to prevent us from presenting the whole variety of Chinese literature, including authors who used to be banned in the past or are outside of the focus of official literary critique at present. Literary experiments of Chinese modernists and avant-gardists of the 1980s~90s invariably excite special interest in students (Can Xue, Yu Hua, Su Tung and others). Contemporary Chinese essays also provide ample material for studying. Preference is given to works by prominent Chinese authors, pamphleteers, scholars in Cultural Studies (Lin Yutang, Wang Zengqi, Wang Anyi, Yu Qiuyu), who describe and analyze local cultures (subcultures). This is both a tribute to Chinese tradition (especially in relation to North – South issues), and evidence of a shift towards a greater stress on the spatio-geographical factors in the methodology of liberal arts (one has only to remember essays by I. Brodsky and P. Vail). The informative and stylistic richness of this kind of text requires the students to concentrate fully on creative interpretation of the original's meaning and search for means to express it in the language of the translation. To develop skills of literary translation, various forms of self-study and out-of-classroom reading are also used. Students specializing in Chinese philology gain substantial experience in translation when preparing their term papers and graduation thesis, regardless of whether they choose a topic in Literature Studies or Linguistics (for the latter, works of fiction become the source of linguistic material; the examples are then translated and incorporated into the graduation thesis). Graduation theses in contemporary Chinese Literature Studies are based exclusively on studying and translating Chinese authors who have not been translated into Russian before. Literary analysis is combined with linguocultural methods of research. One of the requirements is the inclusion of literary translations made under the guidance of the thesis advisor as an appendix to the graduation thesis. Chinese Studies students at FEFU also have the unique experience of collaborative work by professors and undergraduates in the compilation and translation of a collection of short stories by Chinese authors of the 20th century (Chinese Kaleidoscope, in preparation for publishing by the FEFU Confucius Institute). The effectiveness of our work is demonstrated by victories of FEFU students in various international and interregional contests where literary translation is one of the competitive disciplines (2011 – International Contest organized by Siberian Federal University, 2012 – Interregional competition for Chinese Studies students of Siberia and the Far East, at Irkutsk State Linguistic University).

Conclusions

Literary translation is one of the most important forms of cross-cultural dialog, essential to understanding different cultures, different nations, different mentalities. The Chinese Studies Department at FEFU is prepared to take the lead in organizing this kind of contest. Joint Masters programs in the theory and

practice of literary translation, operating within the framework of undergraduate and graduate exchange, can also have much potential.

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Conceptual Metaphor: On Teaching the Language of Linguistic Discourse

Larissa Koulchitskaya
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Cognitive linguistics posits that metaphors are indispensable to any language, including academic language. Conceptual metaphors (CMs) are taken to be mental projections spinning off from linguistic instantiations. There are "three common academic discourse forms: The Guided tour, the Heroic Battle, the Heroic Quest" (Lakoff), based on CMs "thought is motion", "argument is war", and "knowledge is a valuable elusive object". We claim that subsuming linguistic metaphors under particular CMs should facilitate teaching/learning metaphors in academic discourse (ESP).

Keywords: *conceptual metaphor, theory of conceptual metaphor, traditional theory of metaphor, academic discourse*

- *Language is a cemetery of dead metaphor (Paul Ricoeur, 1986)*
- *Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.3)*

Introduction

Here is an example to set the scene "Сделать телевизор громче/тише" is to "turn the TV **up**/**down**" in English. From personal experience I know that this combination of words is difficult for learners to remember unless they understand that *turn the TV up/down* are instantiations of a metaphorical idea of measuring quantity (amounts) in terms of verticality (cf. the idea of a thermometer - the higher the temperature, the higher the mercury level; the more water in the glass, the higher its level, etc.). The conceptual metaphor (CM) behind these expressions is MORE IS UP / LESS IS DOWN. SO, TO turn the TV **up**, to "make the sound louder", is **to add** some sound **volume**, and turn the TV **down** is to make the sound **lower.**

Students need to remember *up* and *down,* which is easy for them to do, and then rely on them when speaking of other amounts and quantities (e.g.: plummeting, skyrocketing prices, etc.). This is how language builds up its vocabulary ontologically: from words for concrete and physically tangible things (through sensorimotor experience), to words for abstractions. Any academic discipline is full of abstractions, that is, full of metaphors, especially in view of the cognitive-linguistics-theory-of-metaphor perspective. In the

language of linguistics, ***пересмотреть*** *теорию* (in the meaning of "to give up a theory in favor of a different one") and *метод* ***позволяет*** *лингвисту,* ***обеспечивает*** *ч-л etc.* are also metaphorical expressions. The author argues that the choice of proper English (translation) equivalents for these and other necessary expressions will, or might well, depend on conceptual metaphors. If we consider our task more broadly, learning ESP involves learning metaphors as well.

Metaphor in mind and in language: a cognitive approach

Cognitive linguistics has brought about a new theory of metaphor, a theory of conceptual metaphor challenging the traditional Aristotelian theory in many aspects. What is new about the conceptual metaphor theory? The theory makes two major claims:

(1) metaphor is not a "matter of mere language" (Lakoff) but of thought and cognition, in other words, metaphor is in brain and in mind rather than in language;

(2) metaphor is omnipresent.

As a consequence, cognitive linguistics

(3) has expanded the **scope** of linguistic metaphor, the concept of which linguistic forms can be taken to be metaphorical.

The first point concerns the "locus" of metaphor. Cognitive linguistics has made metaphor change this. Traditional post-Aristotelian linguistics took metaphor to reside in language and be "perfect cheats", "the artificial and figurative application of words" invented by rhetoric in order to "insinuate wrong ideas, move the passions, and thereby mislead the judgment (these quotes arefrom John Locke, 1690). Cognitive linguistics assign metaphor to a different role, that of a cognitive instrument: "Metaphor is a cognitive tool we use to comprehend abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning" (Lakoff, 1993, p. 244); "[T]he essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.5); "[t]he cognitive mechanism for such conceptualizations is conceptual metaphor" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 45). Conceptual mappings are "cross-domain mappings from a source domain to a target domain" (p. 58). Language is a material form among others forms in which conceptual metaphor can manifest itself or, in Lakoffian language, "be instantiated".

Cognitive linguists have taken A. Richards' view of metaphor; he wrote in 1936: "That metaphor is the *omnipresent* principle of language can be shown by mere observation. We cannot get through three sentences of ordinary fluid discourse without it. Even in the rigid language of settled science we do not eliminate or prevent it without great difficulty" (Richards, (1936) 1965, p. 92). Compare this with: "Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3); "Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life" (p. 3), it is ubiquitous (it is this word that was used in the title of the collection of papers on metaphor: *The Ubiquity of Metaphor*, Kövecses, 1985, 2012. This stance has led cognitive linguists to look for conceptual metaphor in science and its language.

These two claims have had an important consequence. Metaphor in language was no longer confined to unconventional, original metaphors (stylistic embellishments). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1999), any metaphorical expression whose etymology is still alive is assumed to be an instantiation of a conceptual metaphor (p. 125). Cognitive linguistics has established a guiding principle for metaphor identification in language. It holds that metaphor in language is any use of a word whose contextual meaning is different from its primary direct concrete meaning in the dictionary. (For further details see Кульчицкая, 2012). A metaphorical expression is an instantiation (the Russian terms are "рефлекс" and "объективация") of a source domain element projected onto language. Below is an example which is not metaphorical from the traditional point of view but metaphorical from the point of view of the conceptual theory of metaphor (metaphorical expressions are given in ***bold italics***):

«*Волновая теория света создавалась не для того, чтобы* ***уподобить*** *свет волне.* ***Дав толчок развитию мысли****, метафора* ***угасает****. Она* ***орудие****, а не* ***продукт*** *научного* ***поиска***» (Арутюнова, 1990, p. 15). (Total: 24 words; 9 words are using their indirect meanings, i.e. used metaphorically = 37.5%).

1. Теория is a living being: able to liken to - *уподоблять* (ontological metaphor);
2. мысль (thought) is a physical entity, we can push it: *дает толчок* развитию *мысли* (ontological metaphor);
3. мысль (thought) is a living being: it develops *развивается* (ontological metaphor +personification metaphor);
4. метафора is a living being: it gives sth. to sb. *дает* что-то кому-то;
5. метафора is a source of light emission: it dims – она *угасает*;

6. метафора is a tool; explicit predication (ontological metaphor);
7. метафора is not a product; explicitly expressed metaphorical predication with negation; presupposition: if there are some people who take it for a product, it is an ontological metaphor;
8. наука (science) as a research activity is a quest (metaphorical image scheme);
9. метафора для науки (metaphor for science) is a torch/flashlight for a wanderer in the dark (this metaphor is not given in the text but implied or inferred).

Hence, the extremes of the conceptual metaphors instantiated in language range from conventionalized metaphors, traditionally called "lexicalized" items or "trite"/"dead" metaphors like those in the example above, to rhetorical embellishments (as known as "stylistic devices" in Russian literature) not encouraged in academic language. Cognitive linguistics has expanded the scope of linguistic metaphors by shifting it to the lowest extreme. By *scope* we mean here all the linguistic forms that fall under the name of metaphorical expressions / linguistic metaphors. (In this meaning, the term has nothing to do with the meaning of the term "scope of the conceptual metaphor" in Z. Kövecses' papers).

Metaphors in the language of linguistic discourse

In line with the reasoning of the cognitive approach, I posit that a class of verbal metaphors in a scientific or linguistic text (or a set of texts) will include not only (1) metaphorical terms – proper scientific metaphors like *source text, target text* (the path metaphor with metaphorical projections: the SOURCE TEXT IS THE POINT OF DEPARTURE and the TARGET TEXT IS THE POINT OF DESTINATION / ARRIVAL) but also (2) general cross-scientific expressions, e.g. ***в рамках*** *когнитивного подхода* (a container metaphor), (3) meta-textual metaphorical expressions, which connect parts within a scientific text or highlight transitions between them, e.g. ***перейдем*** *к рассмотрению Р,* ***остановимся*** *на Р (*the path metaphor), and (4) general language metaphorical words and phrases (highly unwelcome encounters).

Hence the professional language of any academic discipline includes, apart from literal words (the reflexes of rational and empirical thinking), verbalized conceptual metaphors, no matter how much we would like to resist their presence. The set of conceptual metaphors which a certain academic discipline employs, forms a metaphorical mental space. Taken together, the instantiations of conceptual metaphors in language may be termed generically as metaphors in the language of science (linguistics, etc.).

Ideally, teaching English to would-be translators/ interpreters seeks to make them as fluent in the language as native speakers. A good command of metaphor-based idiomatic language is part of this program. Since "the rigid language of the settled science" of the human language cannot dispense with metaphor (Richards, 1936), authentic speech related to translation issues requires a command of metaphorical expressions, or, in other words, knowledge of how verbal projections from conceptual metaphors of the metaphorical mental space can function in professional language.

Academic discourse forms and metaphors

Science in a broad sense, including linguistics, is a cognitive activity aimed at gaining knowledge, academic, scientific, technical (an epistemic and cognitive aspect), and sharing this knowledge between the members of the scientific/academic community (a communicative/discourse aspect of science). A scientific text from the cognitive and discourse standpoints is a verbal account of mental operations one performs on scientific phenomena and on thoughts about these phenomena. According to G. Lakoff (1993), there are four common academic discourse forms in the English Language: the Guided Tour, the Heroic Battle and the Heroic Quest. Each of these discourse forms is based on a particular conceptual metaphor.

The Guided Tour is based on the metaphor that THOUGHT IS MOTION, where ideas are locations and one reasons *step-by-step*, *reaches conclusions,* or *fails* to reach a conclusion if one is engaged in *circular reasoning.* COMMUNICATION in this metaphor IS GIVING SOMEONE A GUIDED TOUR of some rational argument or of some *intellectual terrain.*

The discourse form of the Heroic Battle is based on the metaphor that ARGUMENT IS WAR. The author's theory is the hero; the opposing theory is the villain, and words are weapons. The battle is in the form of an argument defending the hero's position and demolishing the villain's position.

The Heroic Quest discourse form is based on the metaphor that KNOWLEDGE IS A VALUABLE BUT ELUSIVE OBJECT that can be *discovered* if one perseveres (cf. the abstract from Arutyunova's paper above). The scientist is a hero on a quest for knowledge, and the discourse form is an account of his / her difficult journey of discovery. What is *discovered* is, of course, a real entity (Lakoff 1993, p. 244).

The Guided Tour, the Heroic Battle and The Heroic Quest are image schemas (a kind of scenario). According to Lakoff, the image-schema structure of the source domain is projected onto the target domain in a way that is consistent with inherent target domain structure.

Our material show that the discourse forms explained above may coexist within the same discourse / text, and so may scenario frames of battles, excursions and quests when they are employed for understanding and discussing scientific / linguistic phenomena (to some extent) and ways of presenting new knowledge about them (to a greater extent). Common to these scenarios will be the path metaphor for the tour guide, the warrior, and the hero: RESEARCH ACTIVITY IS A PATH. For instance, *This has **run** almost **parallel with** what may be labelled the "contextual turn" in linguistics. By the mid-1980s linguists have already **made inroads into** aspects of translation* [H:7]; *Any assessment of Catford should therefore take into account where he **stood** regarding what translation is and what the aims of translation theory are* [H:17]. The path metaphor facilitates the conceptualization of scientific research in general and research activities in a particular field of knowledge, for example in Translation Studies. This conceptual metaphorical scenario of motion along a path involves several participants:

- A source of motion, or the *point of departure* (an *original text* also known as a ***source** text*): *The concept of shifts is defined in terms of **departures "from** formal correspondence in the process of **going from the SL to the TL"*** [H: 15], *...that **source t**exts are semantically **unstable points of departure*** [H: 50].
- A moving entity, called a *trajector* (a translator): *"...certain translation traditions tolerate the presence (i.e. **intrusion, intervention)** of the translator in the translation"* [H: 45]
- A trajectory of motion, called a *path across a rugged terrain.* The path leads across the ***field,*** which in some instances may imply "semantics" [Ch: 32]. The field is "*a **testing ground** of translation*" [H: 9]. The topography may mount obstacles that impede the traveler's progress ("*A **way around** this problem is suggested by Fraser*" [H: 161]) and make him / her "***bridge** cultural and linguistic differences*" [H: 18] (CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC DIFFERENCE IS A GAP). There are many other examples. A Russian metaphor of impediments (obstacles) entails metaphorical expressions connected with military action, where the translator has to break through a sort of cordon to grasp an original writer's real view: «*переводчик должен '**прорваться**' сквозь '**заслон**' оригинала к 'реальности авторского видения'*» [Ч: 62] (A TRANSLATION PROBLEM IS A CORDON); There are signs on the path that help one to know the whereabouts of the answer: "[the book] *represents another **landmark** in translation studies*" [H: 18].
- A goal, or the *point of destination* (target text): "Anglo-Americandom '***tends towards'*** fluency in translations" [H: 147].
- An unrealized trajectory approaching that goal: "***tends towards"*** [H: 147], a translator "*has to adjust his or her strategy in **the direction** of the target language and culture."* [H: 146].

The examples above have been cited to support the statement that scientific research is conceptualized as a motion across a broken terrain full of obstacles, impediments and enemies. This motion may require some equipment (→ Research methods) either for a traveler or a hero, or a warrior: *The customary **tools** with which phonology or morphology were studied could not **equip** the linguist **with** what is required for **mapping** such cognitive **sites** as human knowledge and experience...* [H: 12]. In view of this, if one needs to put in English an idea that looks / sounds in Russian like «Метод обеспечивает / позволяет лингвисту что-то», it is a good idea to consider as a translation equivalent a metaphorical expression "***equip** one with*" instead of, or along with, *provide with, ensure that.* The latter expressions are good but not exceptionally good for the idea and hence not as abundant in authentic English texts as they are in those translated from Russian. The metaphor "***equip**"* adds diversity to the target language.

Metaphors may reveal the writer's intention to enhance reader's interest in the problem under discussion. Sometimes the degree of idiomaticity, which depends on the sender of the message, fails to be a merit. However the understanding that a discourse form rests on a particular conceptual metaphor helps one during translation or self-translation practice by prompting him/her to rely on metaphor rather than the semantics of the source language form. Take, for example, the phrase *пересмотреть теорию,* where *пересмотреть* is the realization of a conceptual metaphor. KNOWING IS SEEING. Both Russian and English have this conceptual metaphor. A dictionary will give for the Russian *пересмотреть* such synonyms as *revise, reconsider, go (over) again, review,* but not *revisit*, which would be the best fit in this example. It is this word that collocates with words of mental activity such as "concept", "theory" and "abstract idea". This is because, at this level of conceptualization, English lives by another metaphor, namely that of a visit or a tour

of a building. In our material, this metaphorical expression "revisit a metaphor/a theory" is the instantiation of the conceptual metaphor THEORY OF TRANSLATION IS A HOUSE OF MANY ROOMS, the house which both the researcher and the translator in the same person have to visit over and over again (revisit): It is worth noting that *revisit* is an instantiation of a live conceptual metaphor and, consequently, we may expect it to occur here and there on a regular basis in other scientific texts. Indeed we come across it as soon as we turn to the language of other academic literary sources. A fundamental treatise on metaphor (as large as 523 pages) has seven occurrences of *revisit* with the word metaphor: *to **revisit** a metaphor* (Gibbs, 2008, pp. 54, 227, 228, 260 and 521), e.g.: "*To illustrate how metaphor has been rethought …, we will **revisit** the classic metaphor of time as space…"* (p. 54). If one knows that a scientific and broader, an academic discourse form relies on a conceptual metaphor, the choice of *revisit* is simple and justified. The choice is motivated by the conceptual metaphor SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH / ACTIVITY IS A TRIP / TOUR GUIDE, in which THOUGHT IS A POINT ALONG THE ROUTE / IN THE ITINERARY. The linguist has to visit the place, hence the expressions: *the way **to approach** sth.*, ***come to / reach t**he conclusion; In the appropriate section under research models*, this topic *is **re-visited*** [H: 41] (Hatim's orthography in the latter example has been preserved).

This recommendation to take into account conceptual metaphors does not imply that every time a translator or a speaker lacks for an appropriate ready-to-use equivalent they need to create metaphors *ad hoc* to their liking. We believe that as soon as part of our conceptual system is metaphorical, it is wise to learn what lexemes it produces. Being aware of what mental scenario schemes govern our reasoning, we may understand the mystery of the otherwise unexplainable combinability of some lexemes (why *theory* combines with *revisit* in English, for instance) and put forward a translation hypothesis about the combinability of these lexemes with a view to verify it over and over again against dictionaries, thesauruses and text corpora.

Within the scenario frames, discussed above, in addition to the path metaphor there are ontological metaphors including personification metaphors, that is when an academic discipline, its parts, theories, conceptions, etc. are conceptualized as if they were concrete physical entities, either animated or unanimated or both: *In what ways can applied linguistics **inform** translation research?* [H: 3-4]; *This chapter will **look** in more detail **at**… how two influential theories of translation **view** equivalence* [H: 12].

The awareness of this fact helps one understand the logic behind a seemingly strange syntactical structure and opt for a form that complies best with the norms of scientific language, rather than pick up the first translation equivalent which the source language text "imposes" on a student, or a dictionary offers. In view of this, the idea "главным для этой парадигмы является…" may be expressed like this: *This paradigm (has) **declared** an interest in…*", "в таблице приводятся результаты…" may be transformed into *The table **contains**…*; and "целью/задачей к-л дисциплины является" may be put into this form: *Translation studies is **seeking** to do…* This standard translation transformation is also good for self-translation.

Conclusion

The idea behind this paper is that the vocabulary of any language does not build up chaotically. Language is a cemetery of dead metaphors, but cognitive linguistics posits that the metaphors, though presumed dead, are still alive and are instantiated in language on a regular basis. A single conceptual metaphor spins off a lot of metaphorical expressions; all of them seem to be easy to commit to memory if organized around several generic source domains of metaphors. If we look for a conceptual metaphor (Russian linguists prefer to say "metaphorical model" instead) behind a group of thematically interrelated and metaphorically used lexemes we may make teaching and learning easier. This knowledge spares a student mechanical learning of otherwise unrelated words. Conceptual metaphors work as a unifying principle for a stratum of lexemes used in academic discourse. Being aware of the metaphorical scenarios involved in this discourse a student may organize the vocabulary in a system and understand the mechanisms of word combinability. We claim that subsuming linguistic metaphors under corresponding conceptual metaphors will facilitate the process of teaching/learning metaphors in academic discourse.

Symbols

[Ч: 45] – [Чайковский 2008: page 45]
[H: 45] – [Hatim 2001: page 45]

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To Translate or Not to Translate: Code-switching as Metaphor

Ma. Milagros C. Laurel
University of the Philippines and PALT

Abstract

Why do writers in English use non-English words in their works? Are these lexical items not translatable into English? This paper attempts to explain the nature of code-switching in literature. It examines the occurrence of code-switching between English and a native language as an effective way of encoding experiences and expressing one’s unique identity in selected literary texts. The linguistic features of the text are carefully analyzed, leading to a systematic unraveling of cultural metaphors embedded in the instances of code-switching in the texts.

Key words: *cultural metaphor, local color, code-switching, Philippine English*

Introduction

This study looks at the significance of code-switching in Philippine literature in English. It examines the use of code-switching as it is occurs together with other details that are peculiar to a particular region or locality. In such cases, then, what one may find in a literary text is what used to be referred to as “local color,” defined as “the use of detail peculiar to a particular region and environment to add interest and authenticity to a narrative. This will include some description of the locale, dress, customs, music, etc.” (Cuddon, 1991, p. 509). Thus, when characters are set in a particular locality, a distinct flavor is added to the story.

I remember in my high school days, my teacher would always ask us to identify instances of the use of local color in stories we read in class. Thus, imagery, local linguistic expressions, descriptions of a place, names of people, places and events were some of the things we had to watch out for in order to connect with the locality or setting of the texts we were reading. Little did I realize that this repetitive exercise in looking for identifying marks of a locality, of a setting, would later on expand to cover a wider semantic field and involve far-reaching linguistic implications.

The last fifteen years at the University of the Philippines have seen a growing interest in code-switching found in literary texts written by Filipino authors. The studies manifest attempts to unravel the various levels of meaning embedded in local terms and expressions used by the writers in their compositions. Take, for example, Jo-Ann N. Cajigal's study (1998) of "Shared Narratives: The Semiotics of Culture in Manuel Arguilla's *How My Brother Leon Brought Home a Wife and Other Stories"*, which uses the method of semiotics and analyzes the meanings of codes not found in standard English dictionaries. In her analysis of one typical story in the Arguilla anthology, Cajigal notes that instead of calling each other by their names, the characters chose to use expressions found in the Ilocano language; terms like *Manong* and *Ading* constantly appear in the text.

Manong is a culturally loaded term. When characters address each other as *Manong* and *Ading* as in Arguilla's fiction, the reader already knows the characters' positions in the family and even in the community, for *Manong* is an older brother and may be used to refer to an older member of a family or community. *Ading*, on the other hand, is a younger sibling. The meanings of these terms of address go beyond the literal meanings of these two expressions. *Ading*, being the younger, shows respect to *Manong*. Thus, the *Manong* is, in a way, next to the parents in terms of hierarchy in a nuclear family set-up. Beyond familial relations, the two terms connote one's position and authority in the family.

Nowadays *Manong* occurs frequently in colloquial usage. Curiously, the term is used to address even the household driver and the jeepney driver. The guard at the gate of a school building is everybody's *manong* or *kuya,* the Tagalog term for "older brother." In an extended family set-up, the term *Manong* positions the addresser in an implied social hierarchy. One shows respect to a Manong who, in turn, is obliged to protect the younger members of his family or community.

Code-switching can also lead to the discovery of culture-rooted meanings. Jenny Feirr L. Santos, in her 2010 study of "Cultural Metaphors in Arnold Molina Azurin's Poetry Collection, *Leis of Isles*", saw, in code-switched expressions, metaphors that embody particular identities. Cultural metaphors are seen as "a unique or distinctive activity, phenomenon, or institution that members of any group (small group, ethnic group, nation, etc.) consider to be important and with which they emotionally identify" (Gannon, 2001, p. 23). Santos discusses the significance of the Ilocano word *tapuy* in Azurin's "Tapuy in Time". *Tapuy* is made from fermented brown rice. It is no ordinary rice wine for its use is closely linked to rituals and folk practices. Translating the original term into its English equivalent "rice wine" will cause it to lose its cultural meaning as a ceremonial drink. Azurin himself admits to the deliberate use of this lexical item because to him, the meaning of *tapuy* cannot be captured in translation. According to Azurin, the raw material used for *tapuy*, the brown rice, should come from the place where the feasting will be held. The rice grains cannot be "imported" from another region, otherwise the ritual will lose part of its essence (Personal communication with Azurin, 2012).

One source, *101 Filipino Icons* (Almario and Almario, 2009, p. 29) documents that in the Cordillera Region, tapuy is an important beverage used in rituals celebrating birthdays, weddings, fiestas, cultural fairs, and in honoring the dead. Its preparation is a time-consuming ritual in itself with its own rules and superstitions.

Santos (2010) treats *tapuy* as "a spiritual metaphor or a metaphor of religiosity" (p. 67). Tapuy, as distinct from *basi* and *lambanog*, which are also natural wines, is an appropriate metaphor to use to bring about meanings that one associates with identity. "Brown rice becom[ing] sacred wine in due time" (Azurin, 1991, p. 92) can very well be a metaphor for the race.

In contrast, in another poem entitled "Chivas Leput" (1999) Azurin mentions another kind of wine, this time *lambanog*, which is made from coconut. This wine is associated with what Azurin calls "the macho rites of the Tagalog menfolk." The mere mention of *lambanog* brings to mind a group of men engaged in a drinking spree, showing off "manhood's vainglory." The contexts of *tapuy* and *lambanog* differ sharply.

A third interesting take on texts containing code-switching in lexical choices is found in yet another thesis, this time using plays as source material for lexical choices. Lily Ann D. Chu, in her "Languages in Contact in Wilfrido Ma. Guerrero's *My Favorite 11 Plays*" (2011), singles out the non-English lexical items in the Filipino playwright's works published between 1937 and 1953. Three languages were noted to have converged in the plays – English, which is the principal language that Guerrero used in writing the plays, Spanish and Tagalog. Chu notes that Tagalog figures prominently in the plays that are set in the rural area. On the other hand, plays with an urban setting as background have more Spanish among the code-switched lexical items. The characters depicted as rural folk have more Tagalog in their discourse, probably in an attempt by the playwright to give the plays in which these characters appear a more rural atmosphere. As a young boy,

Guerrero was forbidden by his father to use Tagalog at home. Later, Guerrero found himself in a classroom that fined students for speaking their native language. Thus he grew up using Spanish at home and English in school (Alegre and Fernandez, 1987, p. 215).

Code-switching, in the case of Guerrero's plays was evidence of "a society in the midst of a lingual transition," according to Chu (2011, p. 128). The Spanish regime had ended almost four decades prior to the writing of the earliest play included in the anthology. At about this time, too, Tagalog had been declared as the basis of the national language of the country. Meanwhile, the American presence was still very much felt when Guerrero was writing the other plays. The three languages found meaningful and real interaction in the plays of Guerrero.

To further illustrate the significance of code-switching in Philippine literary texts, samples are taken from an anthology of short stories (Arcellana, 1962) published in 1962 by the Philippine chapter the of International PEN, an organization of poets, essayists and novelists.

Twenty-two stories from as many writers in this anthology give a spectrum of Philippine writing in English. The selections span three decades of continuous growth since creative writing in English was encouraged at the University of the Philippines in the Thirties (Arcellana, 1962, cover).

Most, if not all, of the writers included in the anthology are the most prominent names in Philippine literary history, some of them have been recognized in more recent years as the country's National Artists for Literature, including the editor of the anthology.

Of the 22 stories in the anthology, only one does not contain a code-switched item. Fourteen stories contain Spanish borrowings. Some references to places come from loan words with origins in Spanish:

Plaza, a Spanish word which eventually was assimilated into English, is found in four stories (Gregorio C. Brillantes' "Journey to the Edge of the Sea," Erwin E. Castillo's "Tomorrow is a Downhill Place," Bienvenido N. Santos' "The Day The Dancers Came," and Kerima Polotan-Tuvera's "The Sounds of Sunday"). The town *plaza* is the center of the town and mention of such immediately situates the plot in a mainstream setting.

Barrio, meanwhile, which in Spanish denotes a "suburb" (Williams 2005, p. 39) but in Philipine English means a "village" (Anvil, 2010, p.18), is also found in four stories (Gregorio C. Brillantes' "Journey to the Edge of the Sea," Wilfrido D. Nolledo's "Rice Wine," Vicente Rivera, Jr.'s "The Open Door," and Bienvenido N. Santos' "The Day The Dancers Came").

The *azotea*, a "flat roof" or "roof terrace" (Williams 2005, p. 36) appears in three stories (Gilda Cordero-Fernando's "People in the War," Wilfrido N. Nolledo's "Rice Wine" and Vicente Rivera, Jr.'s *The Open Door*). The *azotea*, being the "stone terrace" (Anvil, 2010, p.14), implies the socio-economic status of the owner of the house.

In contrast, the *nipa* house is made from the leaves of the *nipa*, from the Malay word *nipah*, referring to "a Southeast Asian palm" (*Merriam-Webster*, 2012, p. 839). *Nipa* appears in two stories: one is a hut of a *kainginero* one who clears the land for farming by cutting the plants and burning them (Gregorio C. Brillantes' "Journey to the Edge of the Sea"), the other a nipa house in the fields (Amador T. Daguio's "The Woman Who Looked Out of the Window").

Still on the subject of dwellings, one story (Estrella Alfon's "Low House") is set in a *barong-barong*, "a roughly built house in a poor area" (Anvil, 2010, p. 18). A *barong-barong* and a *nipa* house are set apart by locale. The former is generally the abode of informal settlers in the city while the latter is a farmer's dwelling.

The stories also mention cultural icons. The *jeepney*, for example, is found in Cesar Aquino's "In the Smithy of my Soul". The *jeepney* in Philippine cultural history metamorphosed from the original two- to four-seater vehicle used by American soldiers during the Second World War into a fourteen- to twenty-seater public transportation that is now a common sight on Philippine roads. As a cultural icon, the *jeepney* represents Filipino attitudes and beliefs. Packing as many as twenty passengers on narrow seats in a low-ceilinged vehicle, the *jeepney* best expresses the Filipino spirit of community and accommodation: there is always room for one more. The *jeepney* driver is head of his "family" of commuters and is "in charge." He is at the wheel, he is the conductor who collects passengers' fees, he switches on the radio and chooses the station for everybody to listen to. He even keeps a small altar with religious icons the way he does in his own home.

In contrast Gregorio C. Brillantes' "Journey to the Edge of the Sea" cites the *calesas* and Gilda Cordero-Fernando's "People in the War" the *carretelas*, both horse-drawn carts that are now becoming rare sights in the streets of Manila.

Folk practices and rituals add distinct cultural meanings to the texts. The *misa de gallo*, literally interpreted as "Mass of the cock," is a practice among the Catholic population. This unique practice takes its name from the ritual of attending a nine-day series of dawn masses from December 16 to December 24 in preparation for Christmas Day. The practice is supposed to have been started in Spanish colonial times by farmers who, before going to work in their fields, fulfilled their religious obligations as the cocks announced the break of dawn.

Fiestas are celebrated to commemorate the feast of patron saints. *Fiestas* are a reason for merrymaking with relatives and friends. The town, lavishly decorated with paper bunting and wooden or bamboo arches, wakes up to the music of brass bands that parade around the community, inviting the residents to attend church services honoring the patron saint. *Fiestas* also mean food, fun and festivity. Sports competitions, song and dance contests, brass band performances, stage plays, firework displays and a religious procession complete the *fiesta* celebration. Both rituals, the *misa de gallo* and *fiesta*, are mentioned in Wilfrido D. Nolledo's "Rice Wine" and in Bienvenido N. Santos' "The Day the Dancers Came".

Conclusion

Local expressions embody cultural meanings. An entire experience is captured in every code-switched item that represents an aspect of Philippine life. Thus, cultural metaphors are foregrounded in the texts through the use of cultural terms preserved in the original language. These instances of code-switching then become a regular feature of Philippine writing in English. The lexical items can eventually form part of the corpus of Philippine English.

At a conference held in Manila in 1996, a panel of distinguished Filipino writers in English was asked about the kind of English that they use in their writings. At one point in the discussion, Dr. Gemino Abad, one of the panelists commented:

> We have our own way of thinking. We have our own way of feeling, by which we then use this language called English. So that English is ours. We have colonized it too. (Bautista, 1997, p. 170)

Filipino writers have, indeed, colonized the English language.

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Frame in Teaching Foreign Languages

Irina Lungu
Sholom-Aleichem Priamursky State University, Birobijan, Russia

Abstract

This paper touches upon some aspects of using a frame as a cognitive framework in the structuring of the material of a text for its semantic compression and visualization. Using one of the types of scenario frames we can present the contents of a text built with denotata in a more compact way so it can be more easily memorized and reproduced, thus improving learners' mental abilities, in particular, and the process of teaching in general.

Keywords: *frame, frame nucleus, terminals (slots), meaning compression, denotatum, scenario structure*

Introduction

Scientific and technical progress is connected with the constant increase of the amount of information that mankind has to receive and digest. The amount of the study material that has to be worked through and learnt by students at any level of the educational process also increases. That evokes the necessity of finding new technologies for learning the same amount of material in shorter periods of time. There are a number of such technologies already very well known, such as: intensive methods, project methods, structuring, game technologies, information technologies and others.

All of them have been used to make teaching and learning processes more effective and productive. Very often they require working up the material to represent its contents in a compact and more digestible way. Structuring knowledge presented in the material of the text can be done differently: by marking out the denotata of the text, building graphs and structuring formulas and also with the help of a frame scheme.

Frame and its application in language teaching

A frame is associated with "framework", "structure" and "system," and points to "analytical scaffolding with the help of which we perceive our own experience" (Goffman, 2003; Minsky, 1974). A frame is a key notion in cognitive science which studies systems for getting and perceiving information and the general principles operating in thinking processes. The idea of a frame is also used in Social Sciences and the Humanities; in these fields it means a semantic framework employed by a person to understand something and, accordingly, how to act within the limits of this understanding. A frame is also one of the main elements of a person's conceptual picture of the world, along with schemes, images, scripts, strategies, plans, scenarios and other things. A frame is a stereotype, standard situation (Gurina & Sokolova, 2005).

There is a variety of the definitions of frame suggested by scholars at different stages of the development of cognitive science.

The term "frame" was first introduced by Marvin Minsky whose paper "A Framework for Representing Knowledge" (1974) perhaps had the greatest influence on artificial intelligence. The work describes the basics of Frame Theory and presents a frame as a cover term for "a data-structure representing a stereotyped situation" (p. 213). Miriam Petruck (1996) in her paper "Frame Semantics" gives the following definition of a frame: "A frame is any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any one concept it is necessary to understand the entire system; introducing any one concept results in all of them becoming available" (p. 1). Charles Fillmore developed his cognitive understanding of frame within the boundaries of his Frame Cognitive Semantics, based on Minsky's theory of the frame. He understood a frame as a "cognitive structure of the schematization of the experience" (Fillmore, 1976, p. 25).

According to Irving Goffman (2003): "A frame is the whole, first of all of practices…and meanings, constituted by agents, which people in typical, repeated social situations…give to their actions (verbal and non-verbal)" (p. 83).

So, based on what has been said above, we may summarize that a frame is a stable structure, a cognitive formation of knowledge and expectations and also a scheme of representation of our experience.

This paper uses the term "frame" in a similar way to the stated definitions, hence it is understood as a structure of represented knowledge of a conceptual object (event or phenomenon) that contains data "about the essential, typical and possible for this object (event or phenomenon)" (Gurina & Sokolova, 2005, p. 19).

The main element of a frame structure is its focus (nuclear) which constitutes separate peculiarities of the frame. The structure is presented in the paper "Frame Representation of Knowledge" by R. Gurina and E. Sokolova (2005). From the point of view of psychologists "focus" is the object to be primarily paid attention to. A frame as structured data to present stereotyped situations has slots (terminals) or graphs to be filled. Slots are special categories to be formed by all humankind during the process of knowing the world, reflecting people's knowledge about objective reality. Categorization is the distribution of categories, such as: groups of people, objects and phenomena that have some features in common. The basic components of a frame to determine its terminals are called cognitive components and they present our ideas about typical events and phenomena of the world around us. Terminals in a frame are filled with language units that are used in verbalizing the event, thus activating the frame. In the structure of a frame there are also functions to be performed by certain participants and the background knowledge of the interlocutors to support speech communication (Gak, 1976).

Thus, the main features of a frame, constituting its matter, are: the nucleus, terminals defined by cognitive elements, functions of the interlocutors and their background knowledge. This makes it an appropriate means of compressing the contents of the meaning of a text.

In this particular case a frame is presented as a framework structure containing stereotyped information of the text that has empty slots to be filled, key words as junctions between the slots and rules defining how to reproduce the text.

One of the main features of a text is the unity of its outer and inner forms. Outer form is understood as the sum of language means; inner form is a contextual matter that realizes the author's ideas. Inner form is what has to be understood when perceiving a text.

By the term "text", in this particular paper is meant a study or study-scientific contextual meaningful text which is characterized by integrity and completeness.

As is well understood, such a text has a structure composed of the sum of denotata connected in a whole semantic complex, presenting a model of the situation set by means of the language of the text. A denotatum is the contents of language expression. Based on denotata, lexical meanings of words acquire definiteness and concreteness. "The property of denotata as units having differing amounts of the substituting contents" (Novikov, 1983, p. 94) is a determining point for lexico-semantic compression. The most capacious lexical units with the help of which we do the compression of the text are the denotata that present models of micro-situations in a curtailed form (Novikov, 1983).

The contextual structure of the text is a hierarchical formation. It has a "main object of description" (the topic), a "minor topic", a "sub-minor topic" and a "micro-topic". These units correspond to the denotata in the scheme of the compressed text. The title of the text may be regarded as a maximum compression of the meaning of the text, where the whole model of the situation is kept implicitly.

According to analysis of experimental research we can say that understanding is an oblique analytico-synthetical process based on active processing of the perceived text (Gurina & Sokolova, 2005). The main mechanism of understanding is a mechanism of inner speech. The information we perceive is reproduced in inner speech in a very compressed speech scheme consisting of separate words, each of which becomes a condensed expression of big meaningful groups or "semantic complexes" that can be opened into a certain succession of words (Gurina & Sokolova, 2005). This means that after inner decoding the text turns into a new outer form. The contextual structure (denotative) of the original text serves as the foundation to formulate the idea of a secondary text.

The quality of the mechanism of inner speech which reproduces the information in a compressed way can be used in a frame compression of the contents of a text.

In considering semantic compression we should turn to the scenario types of frames suggested by M. Minsky. "Scenario" is one of the main notions of Minsky's conception. It is understood as a kind of structure of our consciousness.

Scenarios are developed as the result of the interpretation of a text, when key words and ideas in the text build thematic (scenario) structures "extracted" from our memory on the basis of standard, stereotypical meanings (Minsky, 1974).

M. Minsky marks out the following levels of scenario structure: a surface syntactic frame, a surface semantic frame, a thematic frame and a narrative frame (1974).

The levels with which we can compress and present the contents of the text in a compact way are thought to be the following: 1) a surface semantic frame, 2) a thematic frame and 3) a narrative frame.

1. Surface semantic frames are built on denotata. For example, there is the frame chain, which is a nice way to develop logical thought and to learn material on the subject under study. (Figure 1)

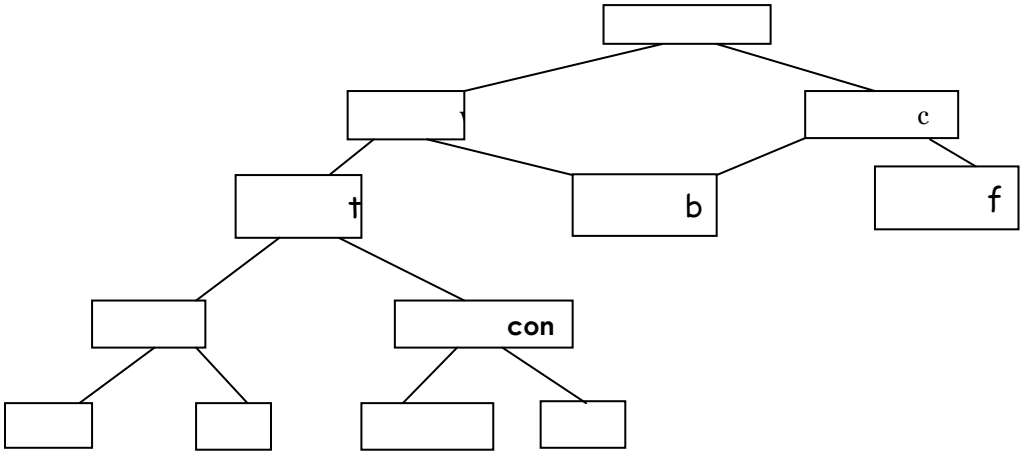

Figure 1.

2. Thematic frames – scenarios are connected with our everyday surroundings, activities, portraits and so on. For example, the frame "to laugh" supposes there is an emotion (joy, elation), that has a reason (a funny or amusing situation) on the one hand and outer characteristics (laugh, gestures) on the other hand. So, the question "Why are you laughing?" that actualizes in the individual's memory the frame "to laugh" also activates its micro-frame "the reason of laughing" which is also explained by background knowledge that "laughing has a reason for it". Thematic frames in general organize our understanding of the world.
3. Narrative frames – "skeleton" forms are usually characteristic of typical stories. Such frames contain information about characters, forms of plots, the development of the action and so on. A typical example of such a frame is the structure of a school composition: introduction, transition to the main part, the main part, transition to the conclusion, and conclusion. Though this structure is primitive enough, it can be varied and filled with different subtopics. For example, while teaching English on the topic of "Travelling" the elaborated frame below can be presented. (Figure 2)

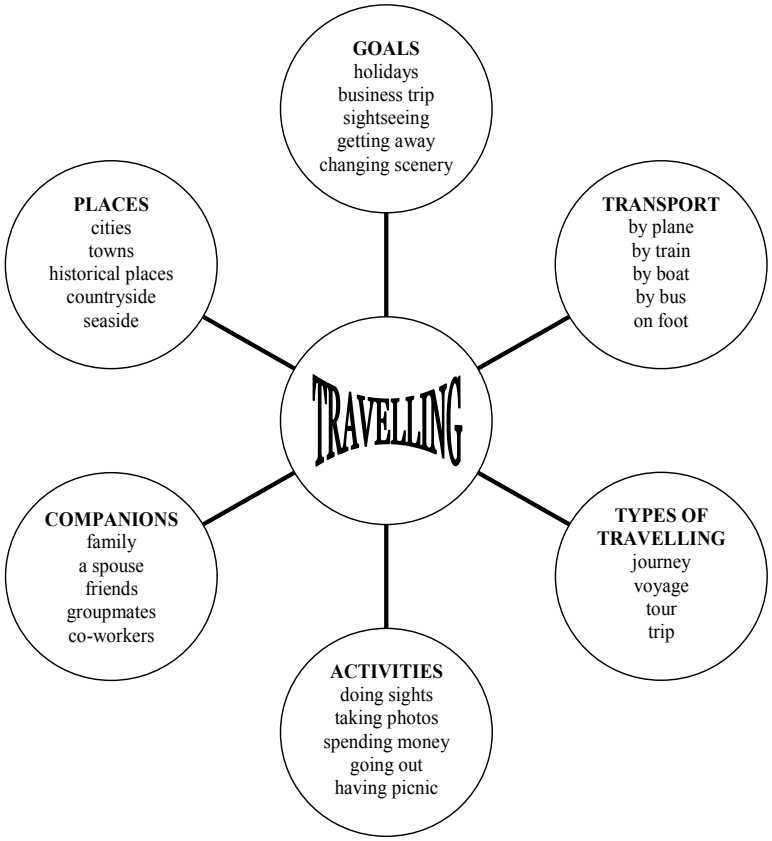

Figure 2.

Frame schematic props such as those presented above took the place of Shatalov's classical prop sketches which used to be especially popular in secondary schools of the USSR in the 1970s.

A frame schematic prop is seen as an abstract image of standard stereotyped situations in symbols. It is a rigid structure, a framework with empty slots that can be reloaded with information many times. Shatalov's sketches were used as static pictures including schemes, graphs and formulas representing a certain paragraph of the text.

Both classical props and frame schemes let us compress a text. The difference lies in method and scale of the compression. A frame scheme compresses the text dozens and hundreds times. The use of frame schemes essentially intensifies the process of teaching.

Conclusion

A frame approach may be considered an effective way of structuring the material of a text. A frame is especially relevant to the process of teaching because with its help we can compress the contents of a text, and semantic compression of the text is one of the best types of analytical-syntactic approach to information in the modern information process.

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Metaphorization of the Concept CRISIS in the American Mass Media

Emma Megrabova & Alisa Grishkevich
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The concept CRISIS reflects the results of human cognition of a fragment of reality which is important in the modern age. Crisis, as an invisible phenomenon, may be understood by means of concrete entities and interpreted in terms of other conceptual spheres. This paper presents the concept CRISIS in the form of a frame. The slot Agent is analyzed through its metaphorical representation, the source domain being at the centre of this research. Crisis is conceptualized as MAN, NATURE, TEST and is perceived as a set of *gestalts*. Holistic images combine perceptual and rational components of the concept CRISIS and reflect the American mentality.

Key words: *mass media, concept, metaphor, image, gestalt, frame*

Introduction

Concepts are ideal entities, formed in human consciousness on the basis of perceptual experience, practical, experimental, theoretical activities and also on the basis of verbal and non-verbal communication (Boldyrev, 2002). "Concepts are the most fundamental constructs in theories of mind" (Laurence & Margolis, 1999, p. 3). According to Jackendoff (1999), "… a concept is spoken of as an entity within one's head, … a product of the imagination that can be conveyed to others only by means of language, gesture, drawing, or some other imperfect means of communication" (p. 305). We will suppose that actualization of the national culture component of the concept CRISIS in the American mass media requires the analysis of metaphorical expressions and their ability to reflect the specific character of the phenomenon "crisis". The material for this study comes from articles from American electronic versions of the periodicals *Time, Newsweek,* and *The New York Times*. The time frame covers the period from 2009 to 2012.

Our research methodology includes several steps. Step one is the analysis of dictionary definitions which may allow us to reveal the main semantic features of the concept CRISIS. Step two is an interpretation of the basic terminological notions used in this presentation: concept, metaphor, frame, *gestalt*. Step three consists of constructing the frame of the concept CRISIS. Step four is devoted to the classification of metaphorical expressions according to their source domain. Step five is aimed at determining the *gestalt* structure of the concept CRISIS which will allow us to show the vision-as-a whole, integral perception of the phenomenon "crisis".

Our research begins with the choice of the keyword – *crisis*. It is known that dictionary definitions of lexical units reflect cognitive structures which are relatively stable in the consciousness of language users. The lexeme *crisis* concentrates the contents of the concept. It can be seen from the definitions in some explanatory dictionaries (*COED*, *RHUD*, *COD*) that *a crisis* is an abrupt, important turning point in something, a decisive stage in a sequence of events which is associated with insecurity, instability and danger. A concept is characterized by the presence of image measurement. Diffusiveness of structure is typical of the concept, which includes various meaningful pieces of information.

A concept has a field structure consisting of a kernel, and interpretative and image layers. The kernel includes features reflecting perceptional and cognitive signs of a reality fragment. The interpretative layer includes interpretation of various conceptual features which are caused by stereotype-standard judgments,

typical of representatives of a certain nation. The image level of the concept is formed by conceptual metaphors or *gestalts*, revealing an image notion about mental phenomena existing in national consciousness. In this paper we focus on the image layer, as, according to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), "Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (p. 3). Metaphors help us in thinking; thanks to them we understand new abstract concepts. The terms "source domain" and "target domain" are used in this paper in reconstructing the concept CRISIS. Lakoff and Johnson (2003) write that the use of metaphors for understanding our experience is one of the most important achievements of human thinking. "The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (p. 5).

One of the ways of organizing our experience into a structural whole is a *gestalt*, which means that our knowledge is not kept as a heap of isolated facts. Initially, *gestalt* theory was essentially formulated at the level of sensory perception, particularly at the level of visualization. It soon became clear, however, that *gestalt* principles were not only relevant to perception but also to other cognitive procedures, such as language processing and the determination of meaning (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p. 1). A *gestalt*, a structure-as-a-whole, consisting of the whole complex of elements, becomes a precondition of an instant interpretation of the perceptible. In this paper, *gestalt* is looked upon as an integral imaginative conceptualization of a reality fragment and it is revealed by literary deciphering, by reading the nominative, verbal and prepositional combinability of lexemes, representing the corresponding concepts (Cherneiko, 1997). Lakoff and Johnson (2003) remark, *"... experiential* gestalts *are multidimensional structured wholes"* (p. 81). There are various structures for representing a concept. One of them is a frame. A frame is interpreted as a hierarchically organized structure of knowledge. When a lexical unit verbalizes a concept, it activizes the corresponding cognitive context or, in other terms, a frame. A frame is characterized by encyclopedic knowledge and information about the referent reflected in the concept. C. Fillmore (1981) states: "By the term 'frame' I have in mind any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any one of them you have to understand the whole structure in which it fits; when one of the things in such a structure is introduced into a text, or into a conversation, all of the others are automatically made available" (p. 111).

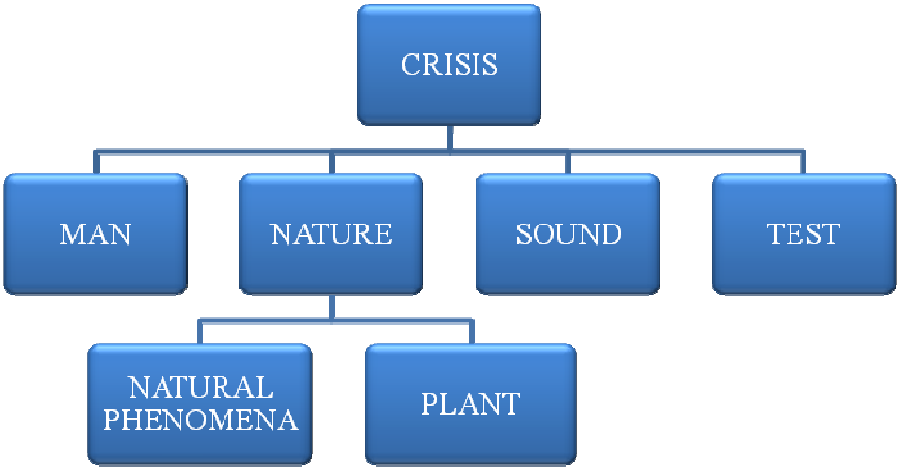
In the process of our investigation we came to the conclusion that situations covered by the concept CRISIS are structured in the following frame: Agent – Action – Object – Result – Place – Time. In this paper, in the focus of our attention there is a top-level slot of the frame – Agent. To show the slot Agent of the frame CRISIS as an energy bearer we unite it with the slot Action. In this case we may single out three structural types of metaphors: a) definition metaphors; b) genitive metaphors; and c) verb metaphors.

a) Definition metaphors show two members of metaphorization, the primary and the secondary objects of metaphorization, in terms of Black's interactionist theory (1962), or we may say that both domains, the source and target, are explicit in Lakoff and Johnson's (2003) terms, thus, the *gestalt* is explicit: a) *As* ***the U. S. financial crisis*** *deepens, Asia has looked on nervously, but with little fear of getting dragged into* ***the maelstrom*** (*Time*, Sept. 22, 2010).

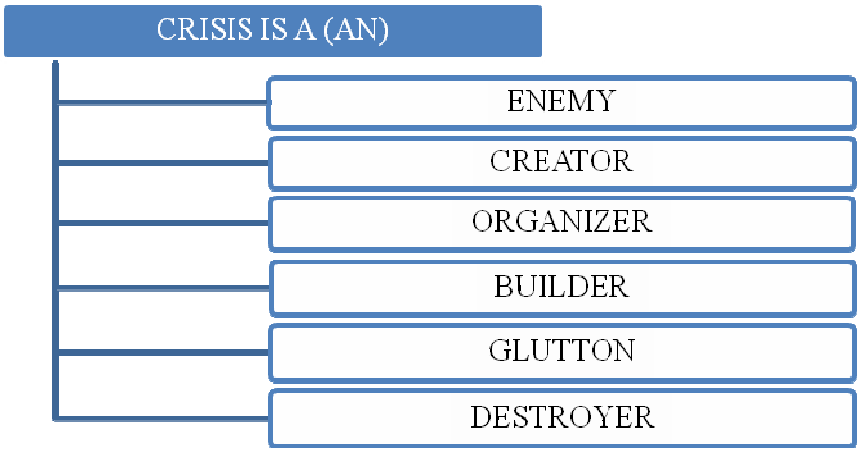
b) In genitive metaphors, a part-of-the whole relationship is reflected; the *gestalt* here is not explicit; the common feature of the two entities is hidden: *Far beyond* ***the thunder*** *and* ***lightning*** *of the Little Rock* ***crisis****...* (*Time*, Sept. 12, 2009).

c) In a verb metaphor, the predicate, that is the common feature of two objects or two domains, is explicitly expressed but the *gestalt*, the "mask" which crisis "puts on" is hidden and has to be deduced from a literary reading of the metaphorical expression (Cherneiko, 1997): *...* ***the crisis*** *that started in the USA* ***engulfs*** *once-booming developing nations* (*Time*, Jan. 16, 2009). The result of the deduction makes it look like CRISIS IS A GLUTTON.

To represent the agent in the complexity of its images we should structure its source domain:

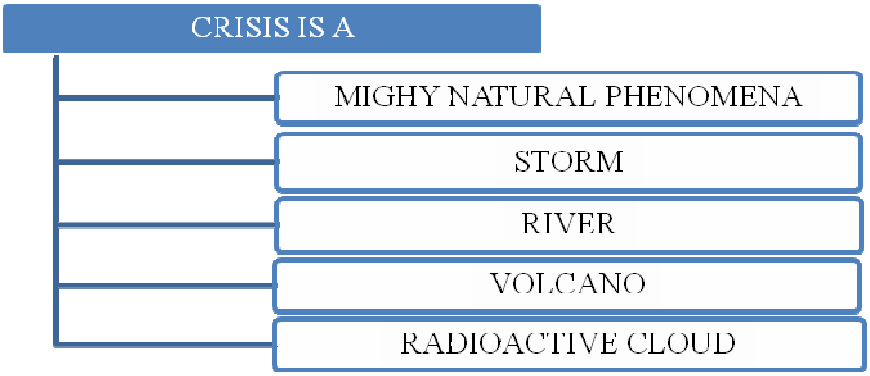


In the process of personification the phenomenon "crisis" becomes similar to a human being:



1) Romania could be ***the next victim of the credit crisis****…* (*The New York Times*, Jan.12, 2012). 2) *In South Korea, the biggest corporate failure — the collapse of the humungous Daewoo Group — happened two years after* ***the onset of the crisis****…* (*Time*, Nov. 30, 2009). 3) ***The crisis has created*** *intense competition…* (*Time*, Mar. 15, 2009). 4) *Financial* ***crises change the rules*** *of the game…* (*Time*, Nov.30, 2009). 5) *"Where were the intellectual agenda-setters when this* ***crisis was building****?"*(*The New York Times*, Mar. 25, 2010). 6) *… the global financial* ***crisis*** *is currently* ***sweeping*** *the globe* (*Newsweek*, Feb. 21, 2009).

Ordinary consciousness produces knowledge based on contracts with the world that surrounds an ordinary person. Thus, images connected with nature are involved into the sphere of the concept CRISIS:



The WORLD CRISIS reveals itself in thunder, lightning and debacle. CRISIS incarnates such strong natural phenomena that human beings cannot control them; they carry danger; they come suddenly and are destructive. Thus, the components of the concept CRISIS are abruptness, impossibility of control, might, danger and destructiveness: 1) *Far beyond the* ***thunder*** *and* ***lightning*** *of the Little Rock crisis…* (*Time*, Sept. 12, 2009). 2) *Nevertheless, the Dubai* ***debacle*** *is just the kind of dangerous unknown that can still arise out of the financial* ***crisis****…* (*Time*, Nov. 30, 2009). 3) *A year after the credit* ***crisis erupted****…* (*The New York Times*,

Jan. 12, 2010). 4) *Analysts and politicians in Russia are increasingly frantic about the political* ***fallout*** *from the country's six-month economic* ***crisis****…* (*Newsweek*, Mar. 15, 2009).

In the realm of nature CRISIS is looked upon as a PLANT: *Were* ***the seeds*** *of the next* ***crisis*** *being* ***planted*** *now?* (*The New York Times*, Jan. 12, 2010). CRISIS in this sentence is also conceptualized as an entity having a beginning and able to develop. The ability to develop not only in time but also in space in all directions is seen in the following extracts: 1) *... the financial* ***crisis spreading*** *to the real economy* (*Financial Times*, Dec. 13, 2011). 2) *As the U. S. financial* ***crisis deepens****…* (*Newsweek*, Feb. 21, 2009).

The *gestalt* CRISIS IS A SOUND allows us to perceive the social event-crisis as a sound: *... the full* ***repercussions*** *of the credit* ***crisis*** *that started in the United States* (*Time*, March. 10, 2012).

The metaphorical representation of CRISIS as a specific kind of examination reflects psychic processes in people's minds in response to contacts with reality: *Dmitry Medvedev, Russia's president, on Sunday called the country's economic* ***crisis a "test*** *of maturity" for its businessmen.* (*Time*, Feb. 15, 2009). In this sentence we can deduce the *gestalt* model CRISIS IS A TEST. After this test, people who do not have the necessary set of qualities, who fail to adapt to changes will be "excluded" from the class of businessmen. In this way the crisis fulfills the function of natural selection.

Crisis in the role of an Agent is a source of energy for action. The object of the frame CRISIS (the top level slot Object) appears in this case as a "patient" to which the energy of the crisis is directed: *The channels of credit crisis, the arteries of the global financial system, have been constricted…* (*The New York Times*, Jan. 12, 2010). In this sentence the financial system, the Object of the frame CRISIS, is metaphorized. The financial system is an organism whereas the SOURCES of CREDIT are ARTERIES, along which MONEY – BLOOD is transported with the aim of providing functioning enterprises. But CRISIS – CHOLESTEROL changes this scheme by constricting "arteries". A big lexico-semantic group denotes the Object of the Crisis: names of continents, countries, financial and banking systems, financial and political institution, banks, companies, economic groups, programs, currencies and people of various social positions*: Now we are heading for another major financial crisis… the entire world is going to feel the pain* (*Time*, Jan. 23, 2011).

The top-level slot Result is also widely metaphorized: 1)… **the cuts** have pushed that country into a total economic **nightmare** (*Time*, Jan. 23, 2011). 2) … fear of one's country's tax, dollars boosting another country fortunes has led to a kind of **paralysis**… (*Newsweek*, Mar. 24, 2009).

Conclusion

Thus, the implicit and irrational vision of the concept CRISIS can be seen: *gestalt* analysis allows us to reveal a sublogical unity of features of the concept CRISIS. CRISIS contains such qualities as changeability, creativity of something evil, abruptness, might, impossibility of control, perceptualness, ability to develop, destructiveness, all-absorbability and ability to select.

As with any concept, the concept CRISIS is a multi-sided phenomenon and this paper is only one step in investigating this mental entity.

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Difficulties in Translating Bibleisms from English into Russian

Svetlana Myasnikova
Vladivostok State University of Economics and Service, Russia

Abstract

The Bible is the symbol of culture in any nation. The study of phraseological units (PUs) of Biblical origin is of great interest due to some peculiarities: on the one hand, Bibleisms have all the characteristics of PUs, on the other, they represent the unique phraseological system of the Bible. Biblical idioms, quotations, proverbs play a significant role in English and Russian languages. The paper centers around difficulties of translating Biblical PUs from English into Russian.

Key words: *Bibleisms, figurativeness, equivalent*

The Bible is one of the most widely read and quoted books in the world. As such, it has become an important literary source for Phraseological Units (PUs) or so called Bibleisms. Thanks to the Bible's literary originality, it serves as the symbolic generalization of legends, fables, and fairy-tales that were formed in the language as moralizing forms or sayings. Bibleisms represent sets of phrases that people use in their everyday life in order to hand down common wisdom. The Bible is an important source of historic, linguistic and cultural research; however only a few works are devoted to studying Bibleisms and as such, there is thus little academic information about them. That is why Bibleisms are of great interest today.

There are difficulties in translating biblical phraseological units. To avoid these difficulties it's necessary to know how to translate biblical words. Not all Bibleisms are translated in the same way. There are some groups of biblical phrases. For each of the group there are certain ways of translation:

I. The meaning and usage of Bibleisms is the same in both the English and Russian languages: daily bread – *хлеб насущный*, the salt of the earth – *соль земли*, by/in the sweat of one's brow – *в поте лица своего*, to turn the other cheek – *подставить другую щеку*, blind leaders of the blinds – *слепые поводыри слепых*. There is no difficulty in translating this group.

II. Bibleisms that became phraseological units only in one of the languages.

1) Some English Bibleisms have no equivalents in the Russian language. The aim of the translator must then be to find the corresponding Russian equivalent. In some cases it can be a translation – explanation, in others – a descriptive translation, in some cases – P.U. This group is the most difficult group for translation.

English Bibleism	Biblical Russian equivalent or word-for-word translation	Possible translation
To hide one's light under a bushel (Matthew 5:15)	держать свет свой под спудом/сосудом	скрывать свои достоинства, способности, быть излишне скромным, не использовать своих возможностей, талантов (зарывать талант в землю)
A (little) cloud no bigger than a man's hand (I Kings 18:44)	небольшое облако, величиною в ладонь человеческую	малый признак грядущих больших событий (чаще несчастий, бед или неприятностей);
Damascus road/road to Damascus (Acts 9)	путь/дорога в Дамаск	переломный момент в чьей-л. жизни; поворотный пункт,
To suffer fools gladly (2 Corinthians 11:19)	охотно терпеть неразумных	не обращать внимания на глупцов, дураков, глупые высказывания и т.д.;
To cast one's bread upon the waters (Ecclesiastes 11:1)	отпускать хлеб свой по водам	делать добро, не ожидая вознаграждения, бескорыстно

2) In the Russian language there are some Bibleisms that did not come into the English language. The aim of the translator is to find the corresponding English equivalent to convey the meaning and figurativeness of Russian expression.

И возвращается ветер на круги своя (Ecclesiastes 1:6)	And the wind returns again according to his circuits
Что-л./это - от лукавого (Matthew 5:37)	it is the work of the devil; it comes straight from the devil
Кто-л. не от мира сего (John 18:36)	Smb. lives in a dream world (in another world) is out of touch with reality
Злоба дня	the topic of the day; a burning question/issue/topic; the latest news
Творить/сотворить себе кумира (Exodus 20:4)	to idolize smb; to make an idol of smb.; to make smb. an icon; to iconize smb.; to put smb. on a pedestal

III. Bibleisms became Phraseological Units in both languages, but there are some discrepancies in their translation:

Semantic discrepancy

English and Russian equivalents demonstrate the discrepancy in meaning. Denotative and connotative aspects of the meaning are different**.**

In the English language:	*In the Russian language:*
Babel (Genesis 11:9) (иногда = the tower of Babel – вавилонская башня)	Вавилон, вавилонское столпотворение, смешение языков
перен. 1. галдеж, шум и гам, разноголосица, суматоха: a babel of sounds/of voices/of talk/of suggestions/of phrases/of criticism: *A perfect babel of tongues was let loose*.	1. русск. - тж. Шум, гам, содом такой, что вся обитель сбежалась. Просто, матушка, как есть вавилонское языков смешение.
2. полная неразбериха, беспорядок, путаница: *what a babel! a perfect babel!; this babel of disciplines; it was a cheerful babel of matters personal, provincial and imperial; it was a complete mess, a Babel*	2. русск. - тж. Уж больно много рассуждали-с. Я слушал. “Ну что... понравилось вам наше “Вавилонское столпотворение”?
3. постройка огромных размеров, здание-гигант (тж. the tower of Babel)	русск. - такого значения нет в этом значении употр. “вавилонская башня”

On the basis of one and the same biblical plot, there have appeared different expressions in both languages. The translator is to know their meanings not to be confused by their similarity.

In the English language:	*In the Russian language:*
Adam (Genesis 1-5)	Адам
the old Adam (Romans 6:6 etc)	ветхий Адам
As old as Adam (разг.) - старо, как мир: The custom is as old as Adam.	русск. - такого значения нет
The curse/penalty of Adam (Genesis 3:16-19)	русск.: проклятие Адама/Адамово проклятие
Not to know smb. from Adam (Eve) (разг.) совершенно не знать кого-л., не знать кого-л. в лицо ; не узнать кого-л.	русск. - такого значения нет
Adam’s ale/wine вода	русск. - такого значения нет
Adam’s apple кадык	адамово яблоко (русск.- тж.)
since Adam/Adam and Eve - с очень давних времен	От (самого) Адама (и Евы), со времен Адама и Евы

Grammatical discrepancy

In the English language:	*In the Russian language:*
To wash one's hands <u>of smb./smth</u>. (Matthew 27:24) (is used with an object)	умывать руки (without an object)
Scapegoat (Leviticus 16:21-22) – Is used not only in connection with people but also in connection with inanimate objects. – Is used attributively: this scapegoat propaganda; used as Gerund: <u>Scapegoating</u> - поиски козла/ов отпущения; сваливание вины на кого-л./что-л.	козел отпущения (about people) в русск. языке такой формы нет
Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings (Psalms 8:2, Matthew 21:16)	– <u>библ</u>: из уст младенцев и грудных детей; – употребляется: <u>устами младенцев глаголет истина</u>
Doubting Thomas (John 20:24-29) is used in plural and the components can be changed: Doubting Ernest; Doubted Thomas; Doubting Thomases	– <u>Фома неверующий/неверный</u> – <u>(только в единств.числе; форма не меняется)</u>
Render therefore unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's; and unto God the things that are God's (Matthew 22:21) – - is used as: <u>to render unto Caesar what is Caesar's; the things that are Caesar's; render unto Caesar.</u>	– <u>Кесарю - кесарево, а Божие - Богу.</u> Часто видоизменяется: – Кесарю - кесарево, слесарю - слесарево ; Богу - богово, Зюганову - зюганово ; Богу - богово, кесарю - кесарево, телевидению - телевидениево.

Contemporary use of Bibleisms

No room at the inn: This expression is taken from the Nativity story where the birth of Jesus Christ is described. In modern English this expression is used in newspaper headings. For example, it is used in the article about prohibition of smoking. *"No room at the inn for smokers. – Нет места в гостинице для курильщиков"*. Here the word "inn" is used in its basic meaning. Sometimes phonetic similarity of the word "inn" with other words is used. One newspaper covered a story about municipal service that had difficulty with a lot of litter in the streets; it put the following headline: *"No room at the bin. – Нет места в мусорном ведре"*. If we compare the use of this idiom in the English and in Russian languages we can see that there are a lot of discrepancies. In the English-Russian dictionary of Bibleisms, this expression means "hard-heartedness, cruelty". It refers to the traits of character, not to a place to stay.

The Bibleism *"The Sabbath was made for man, and not man for the Sabbath. – Суббота для человека, а не человек для субботы"* is very interesting. A stylistic device such as chiasmus is used here. There are some examples of gender substitution, but they are few. For example *"the garment was made for woman not woman for the garment – одежда создана для женщины, а не женщина для одежды"*. In the Russian language the Bibleism *"The Sabbath was made for man, and not man for the Sabbath"* doesn't change.

Bibleisms are used in the Russian and in English languages in headings of newspaper articles and books. For example: S. Maugham *Loaves and Fishes*; M. Allingham *Pearls Before Swine*; S. Hill *Consider the Lillies*; В. Брюсов *Путь в Дамаск*; В. Дудинцев *Не хлебом единым*; А. Каплер *Дóлги наши*. From newspapers – "Doubting Ernest"; "Не содержанием единым"; "Не сотвори себе кумира"; "Врачу, исцелися сам"; "Время собирать камни", etc.

The author of the paper conducted a survey among young people of 20-22 on the topic of using and understanding Bibleisms. The aim of the questionnaire was to get to know people's knowledge of Biblical words and people's attitude towards the use of Biblical words in their speech. The results are shown in the table.

	Positive	Negative	Yes	No	Often	Seldom	Never
1. What is your attitude towards the usage of Biblical words in the Russian language?	**33%**	**67%**					
2. Is it prestigious to use Biblical words in everyday speech?			**9%**	**1%**			
3. Do you often use Biblical words in your speech?					**7%**	**56%**	**37%**
4. Do you often hear Biblical words in the speech of your friends?					**4%**	**74%**	**22%**
5. Do you understand the meaning of Biblical words which are used in books and newspapers?			**9%**	**1%**			

The results show that unfortunately young people are not familiar with a lot of notions of the Bible. And their attitude towards the usage of Biblical words in Russian language is negative. They do not understand the meaning of Biblical words. It might be justified by their youth and inexperience. But if we want to know our culture and our history we should make efforts to read and study the Bible.

The Bible is the symbol of culture in any nation. The study of phraseological units (PUs) of Biblical origin is of great interest due to some peculiarities: on the one hand, Bibleisms have all the characteristics of PUs, on the other, they represent the unique phraseological system of the Bible. Biblical idioms, quotations and proverbs play a significant role in the English and Russian languages. Many expressions have come into these languages from the Bible. They are often used in fiction, in journalistic texts, and in everyday speech. Due to their specific meanings, Bibleisms give different connotations to the text (ironical, humorous and sometimes neutral). It is difficult to translate a Bibleism without knowing its origin. The aim of the translator is to make an adequate translation of the text by understanding the Bible.

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Linguocultural Types LOW CLASS and MIDDLE CLASS in *Portobello* by Ruth Rendell

Anastasia Petrova & Vera Vyalkova
Pacific National University, Russia
Sholom-Aleichem Priamursky State University, Birobidjan, Russia

Abstract

This paper focuses on the linguocultural types “low class” and “middle class” in the novel *Portobello*, by Ruth Rendell, as specific concepts of which the structure includes notional, figurative and value components.

Keywords: *linguocultural type, low class, middle class, social class, concept*

Introduction

Over the last two decades, the relationships between language, culture and identity have become a popular topic in different academic discourses. Many papers have been written on these topics; for example, in Cultural Studies, Gurevich (2003); in Psychology, Akopov and Ivanova (2003); in Sociology, Bock (1980); and in Linguistics, Vereshchagin and Kostomarov (1990), Karasik and Iarmakhova (2006), Karasik (2007).

The urgent problem for linguistic research is the question of linguocultural modeling of language awareness and communicative behavior. In this context, there is a need for an integrated approach to the study of linguistic identity, taking into account the psychological, social, biological and cultural variables, such as gender, nationality, character, education, profession, social status and cultural attitudes, that affect the communication process. Linguocultural type is a generalized picture of people whose behavior and value orientations have an effect on linguistic culture in general and serve as indicators of the ethnic and social originality of a society (Karasik & Iarmakhova, 2006).

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the linguocultural types “low class” and “middle class” in the novel *Portobello*, by Ruth Rendell. The subject of the study is the conceptual, figurative and value characteristics of this linguocultural types as fixed in the language. The object of this study is the linguocultural types “low class” and “middle class”.

The material for the study was the work *Portobello*, by Ruth Rendell. This work is particularly suited to our study, as Ruth Rendell is an expert at describing character and atmosphere. Her work *Portobello* realistically represents different social classes; the images created by the writer are easily recognizable by English-speaking society.

The need for this the research is determined by the following factors: the interest of linguistics in the development of the anthropocentric theory of linguocultural types, the ability of the generalized type of personality within a framework of a certain linguoculture to keep the important information about the actual norms of communication behavior, the importance of learning linguocultural types of the English community in order to understand the dominant themes of culture and to develop intercultural communication.

According to Karasik (2007), linguocultural type represents a variety of linguocultural concepts and consists of notional, figurative and value components. The notional aspect of a concept is the linguistic

fixation of a concept, its name, description, feature structure, definition, and comparative characteristics of this concept in relation to other groups of concepts. The imagery side of a concept is the visual, auditory, tactile and taste characteristics of objects and events, which in one form or another are reflected in our consciousness. The value side of a concept specifies the importance of educational process, both for an individual and for a team. In that way, the academic novelty of this study lies in identifying ways of objectification of the linguocultural concept on the notional, figurative and value levels.

Thus, after analyzing the notional aspect of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class", we can say that the notion of "lower class" contains mostly negative evaluation and has the general marker "working masses". Lower class or working class is the social class of employees who are dependent on physical labor. Working classes are mainly found in industrialized economies and in urban areas of non-industrialized economies.

The notions, appealing to the "middle class" are represented in modern English by the following set of lexemes with the dominant meaning "medium": intermediate, middle-income, middle order. The middle class is the broad group of people in contemporary society who fall socio-economically between the lower class and upper class.

According to Harman (2008), the social structure of the United Kingdom has historically been highly influenced by the concept of social class. Although definitions of social class in the United Kingdom vary and are highly controversial, most are influenced by factors of wealth, occupation and education.

To identify the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class", it is necessary to identify the parameters of demarcation. According to the BBC (2012), the social stratification of Great Britain includes:

1. upper middle class;
2. middle middle class;
3. lower middle class;
4. working class;
5. lower class.

In the novel *Portobello* the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" are categorized according to the different parameters: appearance, clothing, residence, occupation, income, lifestyle, family, behavior, surroundings, and language.

Concerning our research, *Portobello* is a unique novel. The name itself carries great meaning. The Portobello Road is the "road of life" where completely different people meet, representatives of different social classes. We can say that this is the story of three representatives of different social classes: a rich and successful art dealer with an addiction, which causes him trouble and almost completely ruins his life; a hapless petty criminal, Lance; and a mugging victim, Joel, in whose already troubled mind a kind of demon is unleashed by the assault. It is surprising that something initially separates them, and then ties them together. It is money. One has lost money on the Portobello Road, another finds it, and the third wants to arrogate them. The author's nomination of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" is wider than the definitions from dictionaries analyzed and they verbalize several subtypes:

1. an unemployed person of the lower class without property (Lance Piatt);
2. a temporarily unemployed person of the lower middle class, who lives in social housing (Gemma Wilson);
3. an unemployed person with the property of the lower middle class (Gilbert Gibson);
4. an unemployed person of the upper middle class, living on the money of a head of family (Joel Roseman and Wendy Stemmer);
5. a professional worker of the middle class (Ella);
6. a businessman of the upper middle class (Eugene Wren);
7. a tycoon of the upper middle class (Morris Stemmer).

The basic conceptual sign is "a person with an index of possession of some property or not possession of some property, and a person who has a job or does not have a job". The notional-definitional indicators selected are formed from some psychological types of personality and create an ethno-cultural concept, as characterizing the dominant behavior of a particular social group.

The habitations of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" are represented by the basic lexical unit "house", while the lexical units "mansion", "flat", and "bungalow" objectify only a few signs of category. The description of the linguocultural type "house" begins with the location, and then describes the form, size, and then the interior of the house.

1. The house in Chepstow Villas was semidetached, a white stucco Georgian house, as estate agents would have described it, of three floors and a basement. Behind die wall and the gateposts with lions' heads on top of them was a large front garden full of flowering shrubs, some in full bloom. A flight of six stone steps ascended to the front door. Lance noted that to the left of the garage was a side gate, perhaps six feet high. (Rendell, 2009, p. 57)

Eugene's house is in the classical Georgian style with its harmony and symmetry. Here we can find all the elements of any wealthy house of the upper-middle class: a blooming garden, stone steps, and a gate of six feet high, three floors, a basement, a garage, etc.

2. He had never seen anywhere like it. He didn't know places like this existed except on TV, and those he'd never really believed in. When he'd seen them on Gemma's super-TV, he and she sitting side by side on her settee, she'd said to him, "There's no places really like that. They make them look that way to get you to watch". And he'd said, "You don't reckon those Beckhams or Elton John have stuff like that in their places?" "Well, they're billionaires, aren't they?" She'd said. "They don't count." (pp. 57-58)

In the second example, the author describes the relationships of different social classes. Lance and Gemma, who are representatives of the lower class, cannot even imagine that those chic homes and furniture they watch on TV are real. Gemma says that it is not real, and if the Beckhams or Elton John can live a life of luxury, they do not count, as they are billionaires. In her mind, luxury belongs to another planet. When Lance comes to Eugene's house, he compares it to similar places in TV shows, to him Eugene is a billionaire, but his house is an unknown world.

3. So was this guy a billionaire? The room dazzled Lance, the pictures, the furniture, the jugs and pots and statue things, the curtains, yards and yards of them trailing on the carpet, the satin cushions coloured like jewels, the little tables, the clocks, the books done in leather and gold, the crystal that a sunbeam turned to diamonds. He stood and stared, feeling a fool, wishing he hadn't come - then glad he'd come, determined to make the most of it. (p. 58)

In an atmosphere of luxury and wealth at Eugene's home, Lance feels like a child who has not even seen sweets and toys, but only heard about them from fairy tales, and then he suddenly discovers that this is a real story, and for someone it is an ordinary life. Here an overwhelming desire to get everything appears.

In other words, there is a clash of two different social classes. The first is Eugene Wren, who comes from a wealthy family and owns the gallery. His picture of the world is formed from his birth in an atmosphere of wealth and prosperity. The second is Lance, who was born into a different picture of the world where not everyone has a job and an income, where you have only the one pair of shoes, etc. In continuation of our research, we elucidate this conflict of different social classes in detail.

The cultural components "having a job" and "having money" are very significant for the types under consideration. For the nomination of material prosperity of the linguocultural type "middle class" or the absence of material prosperity for the "low class", the author uses the lexical unit "money" in all its variety: large sum, that kind of money, no money, low income, a big allowance, benefit.

The concept "poor" is verbalized with the help of the following linguistic units: being a jobseeker, layabout, single parent, to have no money, need of money, to have a low income, unemployable, being in poverty. For the linguocultural type "low class" these are keywords, and they have a negative connotation.

The following lexical units are semiotic signs, representing the appearance of the linguocultural types: contact lenses, white hair, fluffy hair, curly hair, blonde, long hair, thin, very thin, long shaggy hair, tall, fairish, potato-faced, looked poor, intellectual look, skin and bone, white teeth, frail, pretty, beautiful, piercing eyes, cadaverous face, emaciated body, glamorous, narrow concave chest, no hips, fat.

The semiotic signs representing men's clothing and accessories of the linguocultural types are such lexical units as: brown suede jacket, trousers, real Rolex, dark suit, white shirt, grey tie with some sort of pattern on it in purple, briefcase, old clothes, ragged jeans, jacket with one sleeve torn and the other stained, dressing gown, dark-coloured scarf, sunglasses, old faded T-shirt, trainers, only shoes, black pinstriped suit, blue tie, collarless shirts, second-hand trousers.

Semiotic signs, representing women's clothing and accessories of linguocultural types are the following lexical units: trousers, sweater, too short beige jersey dress, gold jewellery, diamonds, white broderie anglaise, sleeveless yellow dress, silver sandals with four-inch cork wedges, diaphanous maxi-dress with low neck and puff sleeves, pale-pink miniskirt, high black boots, white fur jacket, black satin trouser suit arid.

Class differences of these types dictate lifestyles and behavior. Upper middle class and middle class people spend their free time in theaters, banquets and restaurants; they typically read broadsheet newspapers

rather than tabloids; they are not concerned about finding a job and money; they have a taste for expensive drinks. The lower middle class and lower class spend their time watching television and going on the Internet; they may aimlessly walk along the city streets; they read tabloid newspapers and smoke tobacco; they are concerned about earning a living.

The upper middle class in Britain broadly consists of people who were born into families which have traditionally possessed high incomes, although this group is defined more by family background than by job or income.

In contrast to the upper middle class, the lower class, traditionally consists of people who were born into poor families; however, there may be "the intersection of classes" in a big family, when members of one family will be treated as different social class categories.

Speech is an essential characteristic of social status. The portrayal of the speech of the linguocultural type "middle class" establishes that people of the linguocultural type "middle class" speak with accents which can range from Received Pronunciation to provincial, as well as Estuary English.

4. "Do sit down", said Eugene Wren. "May I know your name?" (p. 58)

Verbal characteristics of the linguocultural types, on the one hand, emphasize the social status of the type, and on the other hand, indicate a high level of education. The characteristic of the type's speech consists of phonetically and grammatically well-formed utterances, the use of high modality and the use of the infinitive.

Speech portraying the linguocultural type "low class" reveals that people of this type often use slang, vulgarisms and obscenities. The grammar of sentences tends to simplification. Proposals are often highly emotional.

5. "Fuck off, you useless old git", he said and added the latest up-to-the-minute insult: "Smoker!" (pp. 195-196)

The main characteristic of the surroundings of the linguocultural types is expressed in the English proverb: "Tell me your company, and I'll tell you your manners".

Conclusion

Modeling of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" in the work *Portobello* by Ruth Rendell makes it possible to simulate the cognitive image of representatives of the low class and middle class of Britain. This study allows us to draw a general conclusion about the significance of the semantic formation of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" in the minds of the British. Besides these types influence the formation of the national English consciousness and communicative behavior. The study of the linguocultural types "low class" and "middle class" from the anthropocentric point of view contributes to the development of the theory of linguocultural types, reveals the priorities of English linguistic culture of the 21st century and is one of the rapidly developing fields of modern linguistics.

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Word Order as a Translation Problem

Galina Rutkovskaya
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Ignorance of the actual division of a sentence accounts for the lion's share of all syntactic errors in translations. While in Russian the rheme is usually placed in the final position, in English this is not easily achievable. The transposition of the ST word order should be treated as a normal device.

Keywords: *word order violations, actual division of the sentence, communicative center, theme, rheme, topic-comment relations*

Introduction

Word choice errors usually lead to violations which are regarded as semantic. Lexical translation errors leading to stylistic inadequacy also occur. However, as a rule, they are caused by using a word belonging to the wrong style or register and, thus, are not difficult to correct. On the other hand, the identification of syntactical errors, which appear to be more extensive and substantial, is not always an easy thing. Moreover, in the overwhelming majority of cases, instances of violated syntax are considered to be stylistic faults, and it is frequently impossible to prove that the violation involves nothing more than a semantic distortion.

When we try to comprehend the process of translation and the difficulties which may arise in this case we usually mean the painful search for the necessary words. Of course, it is not an easy task to find a precise equivalent fully satisfying the context. But along with this we cannot ignore the fact that it is much more difficult to build a syntactical construction in which the exact words will stay in line with the purpose of communication instead of being like a fish out of water.

Here is an example. In the film *Scent of a Woman* the colonel is asking for a watch:

C o l o n e l: You got a watch?
C h a r l i e: Ah, it's 7:20.
Co: I didn't ask you the time. I asked if you had a watch.
Ch: Yeah, in the other room.
Co: Get it.
Ch: Colonel, there's a clock right next to your bed.

A suggested translation of the passage is as follows:

П о л к о в н и к: Часы есть?
Ч а р л и: Сейчас 7:20.
П: Я не спрашиваю, который час, я спрашиваю, есть ли у тебя часы.
Ч: Да, в той комнате.
П: Принеси.
Ч: Полковник, часы в вашей комнате (Buzadzhi, 2007, p. 24).

Though the words used by the translator are quite suitable, a Russian spectator cannot but wonder how Charley's watch happened to be in the colonel's room. How else can the talk exchange "Принеси часы – Часы в вашей комнате" be interpreted? However, viewing the film enables us to distinguish the error: in the final phrase *a clock* (*часы*) – is the rheme (or the comment) rather than the theme (or the topic) of the utterance. Remembering that in the Russian language the actual division of the sentence (or thematic-rhematic articulation) is governed by word order, we could at least translate the line as "Полковник, у вас на тумбочке есть часы".

This may sound hackneyed, but the fact is the lion's share of all syntactic errors in translation is accounted for by ignorance of the actual division of a sentence. This condition is most common among the new entrants to professional translation who fail to develop the habit of noticing rhematic markers typical of the English language and to be able to differentiate word order patterns in the ST and the TT. However, what is most perplexing is the fact that this kind of approach is not uncommon among professional interpreters as well.

Any concrete utterance involves a communicative center representing the most important and fresh information (the so called rheme), on the one hand, and already known information which serves as a background to be taken for granted by the participants in the communicative act (the so called theme), on the other. While in Russian the rheme is usually marked by a certain word order providing the final position for the most valuable information, in English, due to its particular grammatical system, this type of foregrounding is not easily achievable.

Strange as it may seem, instances of illogically organized utterances are not rare in Russian texts. Here are a few examples from the contemporary Russian press:

> Г.Х. Попов не один раз писал и говорил, что его о подготовке «путча» предупредил посол США Джорж Метлок.... Далее из той же записки явствует, что *Бурбулис играл в заговоре одну из ключевых ролей…*

Here the proper names of the American and Russian politicians who staged the coup in the Soviet Union of the early 1990s are connected as parallel subjects each functioning as a communicative center of its own sentence and answering one and the same question "Who did it?". It stands to reason that the name *Бурбулис* should be logically inverted to the final position and the italicized part of the quotation should take the order …*одну из ключевых ролей в заговоре играл Бурбулис.*

Another example which illustrates the violation of the syntactic pattern in Russian is as follows:

> Когда материал был уже готов к печати, пришло сообщение, что *полковник Олег Шеховцев назначен временно руководить приморским МЧС*. В спасательной структуре он служит уже 17 лет.

It should be noted that the body of the preceding information does not at all deal with Colonel Oleg Shekhovtsev (namely, his personal qualities, professional skills and so on); he is not actually "our old acquaintance" as follows from the utterance above. The news story this quotation is sampled from is devoted to personnel changes in the Emergencies Ministry of Primorye. And the first mention of the new interim appointee's name is not made until the postscript.

That is why we have to apply the following reordering transformation to the quotation:

> Когда материал был уже готов к печати, пришло сообщение, что *временно руководить приморским МЧС назначен полковник Олег Шеховцев*. В спасательной структуре он служит уже 17 лет».

One additional example can be given:

> С большим трудом Ельцин был избран Председателем Верховного Совета России, и сразу же была принята декларация о суверенитете России.
> Все союзные республики, воспользовавшись ситуацией, объявили о своем суверенитете.

There cannot be any doubt that the two sentences forming the above text are dissociated from each other. This is because the syntactical organization of the second sentence goes against the logical structure of the whole utterance. It has a different communicative goal and thus needs the following restructuring:

> Воспользовавшись ситуацией, о своем суверенитете объявили все союзные республики.

There are also some Russian translations from English which lack logical order and hence semantic harmony. For example:

> Летом 1979 года несколько друзей из маленького городка в Огайо, снимающие любительский фильм на камеру «Супер 8», стали свидетелями железнодорожной катастрофы. Но вскоре они начинают подозревать, что это не было просто несчастным случаем. *Странные исчезновения и необъяснимые события начинают происходить в городке.* Местный шериф пытается разгадать их тайну. Но его открытие куда более ужасающее, чем все могли себе представить.

Here is the amended version:

> В городке начинают происходить странные исчезновения и необъяснимые события.

Below are some more examples:

Множество вопросов приходило мне в голову, когда я рассматривала фотографии, на которых были изображены советские люди. Интересно, смогу ли я подружиться с советскими ребятами? Не подумают ли они, что я шпионка какая-то или что я боюсь их? Может быть, они вообще не станут со мной разговаривать? Некоторые наши ребята писали мне в письмах, что я очень смелая, раз решилась написать господину Андропову. В общем-то, чтобы написать письмо, особой храбрости не надо, но мне бы хотелось быть действительно смелой на тот случай, если бы я не понравилась советским ребятам. *(Из книги Саманты Смит «Путешествие в Советский Союз». СР Отечественные записки № 12, 2012).*

As we can see the above translation does not provide the necessary logical link between the initial sentence and the rest of the text, representing a series of concrete realizations of the generic notion *множество вопросов*.

The amended version:

Когда я рассматривала фотографии, на которых были изображены советские люди, мне в голову приходило множество вопросов. Интересно, смогу ли я… Не подумают ли они…, etc.

A few other examples would be useful:

В России морских гребешков впервые будут использовать в качестве инструмента для контроля качества воды. Как передаёт Reuters, огромная плантация гребешков расположится по соседству с новым российским нефтеналивным терминалом Козьмино на тихоокеанском побережье. Учёные верят в способности моллюсков накапливать вредные вещества.

Since the communicative centers of the sentences are *морских гребешков* and *огромная плантация гребешков*, the following reordering may be suggested to improve the logical structure of the utterance:

В России в качестве инструмента для контроля качества воды впервые будут использовать морских гребешков. Как передаёт Reuters, по соседству с новым российским нефтеналивным терминалом Козьмино на тихоокеанском побережье расположится огромная плантация гребешков. Учёные верят в способности моллюсков накапливать вредные вещества.
Массовый протест в начале мая завершился столкновениями с полицией. После этого полиция задерживала молодых людей на улицах и в кафе, пытаясь, по всей видимости, не допустить никаких массовых сборов. Задержанные были вскоре отпущены, но чуть позже *12 человек были арестованы по обвинениям, связанным с событиями шестого мая, которые полицейские теперь относят к категории «массовых беспорядков»*. …Как сообщается, *по меньшей мере 160 следователей были привлечены к работе над этим делом.*
Усиливаются опасения, что осенью правительство устроит показательный процесс по «беспорядкам» шестого мая, в котором *Навальный будет представлен главным бунтовщиком*. Однако *наводнение сильно отвлекло внимание от ситуации*. Катастрофа в Крымске вызвала беспрецедентную волну волонтерской помощи».

The amended version is:

Задержанные были вскоре отпущены, но чуть позже по обвинениям, связанным с событиями шестого мая, которые полицейские теперь относят к категории «массовых беспорядков», были арестованы 12 человек. …Как сообщается, к работе над этим делом были привлечены по меньшей мере 160 следователей.
Усиливаются опасения, что осенью правительство устроит показательный процесс по «беспорядкам» шестого мая, в котором *главным бунтовщиком будет представлен Навальный.* Однако *внимание от ситуации сильно отвлекло наводнение*.

The abundance of word order violations in translation is really alarming, the instances being frequently encountered both in print media and in news videos. Here are a few examples:

> All of which is to say that to understand what happened to Vorontsova's village, it's necessary to understand the larger state of affairs in eastern Russia. Since 1992, the population of Russia's easternmost region, Primorye, has shrunk by 352,000 people to less than two million. *Many of the departed are disillusioned youth who flee to Moscow, St. Petersburg or abroad after graduating high school*. A recent poll showed *40 percent of the region's people are looking to pack their luggage and leave*. In order to stop the brain drain, Russian authorities decided to build a better-looking façade on the Asian end of the country. In the past five years, *Moscow has_spent over $20 billion worth of new roads, bridges and buildings in the province in the lead-up to the summit*. (*http://www.foreignpolicy.com/articles/2012/09/07/russia_s_bridge_to_nowhere*)

The official translation:

> Для того чтобы понять, что произошло с деревней Воронцовой, необходимо рассмотреть общую ситуацию, сложившуюся на востоке России. Начиная с 1992 года численность населения самого восточного региона России – Приморья – сократилась на 352 тысячи человек, и сейчас она составляет менее двух миллионов. Многие из покинувших свою родину людей – это разочаровавшаяся молодежь, уезжающая *в Москву, Санкт-Петербург или за границу сразу после окончания высших учебных заведений*. По данным последнего опроса, *40% жителей региона хотели бы оттуда уехать*. Чтобы остановить утечку мозгов, российские власти приняли решение возвести более привлекательный фасад на восточных рубежах страны. За последние пять лет в ходе подготовки к саммиту лидеров АТЭС Москва потратила *более 20 миллиардов долларов на строительство новых дорог, мостов и зданий*.

We suggest the following amended version:

> Для того чтобы понять, что произошло с деревней Воронцовой, необходимо рассмотреть общую ситуацию, сложившуюся на востоке России. Начиная с 1992 года численность населения самого восточного региона России – Приморья – сократилась на 352 тысячи человек, и сейчас она составляет менее двух миллионов. Многие из покинувших свою родину людей – это разочаровавшаяся молодежь, уезжающая *сразу после окончания высших учебных заведений в Москву, Санкт-Петербург или за границу*. По данным последнего опроса, *из Приморья хотели бы уехать 40% жителей региона*. Чтобы остановить утечку мозгов, российские власти приняли решение возвести более привлекательный фасад на восточных рубежах страны. За последние пять лет в ходе подготовки к саммиту лидеров АТЭС Москва потратила *на строительство новых дорог, мостов и зданий более 20 миллиардов долларов*.

One more example:

> In fact, the flow of cheap and good quality cars threatened to devaluate the entire domestic automobile industry. To put an end to the practice, Moscow authorities increased the import tax for the Far East from 5 percent to nearly 30 percent, leaving thousands out of work. *Thousands of angry car dealers flooded the streets and protesters blocked Primorye's highways and railways*. It did not take Russian parliament long to accuse Vladivostok of plotting an "Orange Revolution".

The official translation:

> Приток дешевых и качественных машин поставил под угрозу отечественное автомобилестроение. Чтобы положить этому конец, московские власти увеличили налог на импорт автомобилей для Дальнего Востока с 5% до 30%, оставив без работы многих людей. *Тысячи разъяренных автомобильных дилеров вышли на улицы*

для участия в акциях протеста, а также перекрыли шоссе и железные дороги Приморского края. Российский парламент, недолго думая, обвинил Владивосток в попытке устроить еще одну оранжевую революцию».

The amended version:

Приток дешевых и качественных машин поставил под угрозу отечественное автомобилестроение. Чтобы положить этому конец, московские власти увеличили налог на импорт автомобилей для Дальнего Востока с 5% до 30%, оставив без работы многих людей. *Для участия в акциях протеста с перекрытием шоссе и железных дорог Приморского края на улицы вышли тысячи разъяренных автомобильных дилеров*.

Sometimes failures in rendering topic-comment relations may cause a change in meaning (see the above dialogue). However, in the majority of cases the aftereffects of the distortions are less visible and therefore much more serious. In such cases, the text would seem meaningful, but lacking somewhat in naturalness and logic.

Here is a typical example from a student's translation:

By the turn of the century, however, technology had sprung forward. And by the time my grandmother's children came along in the 1920s, *airplanes were relatively common, radios were in widespread use, and television – and even fax technology – had been invented*. When she sent her sons to war in Europe in the 1940s, *digital computers and nuclear energy were alive in the laboratory and would soon be put to use (PC Magazine, Nov. 4, 97)*.

The translation made by the student:

Однако на рубеже веков технологический процесс пошел ещё дальше. А уже к 20-м годам XX века, когда появились на свет дети моей бабушки (мои родители), *аэропланы были обычным явлением, радио получило широкое распространение, а телевидение – и даже факс – уже были изобретены*. А когда моя бабушка провожала своих сыновей на войну в Европу в 1940-х, *цифровые компьютеры и атомная энергия уже разрабатывались в лабораториях и в скором времени уже вовсю использовались»*.

As we can see, the text describes technological progress and some discoveries and new developments as they mark different epochs. The reader understands that times changed and new things appeared. This is the background area of the narration. And the most impressive spots in the area are the discoveries and technologies themselves (all those airplanes, radio, TV, etc.). The translator, however, neglected the actual division of the sentence and, following the syntactical pattern of the original, decided to fill the most emphatic position in the Russian utterance with the least important elements: *были обычным явлением, получило широкое распространение, были изобретены, разрабатывались*.

As a result, the story about real technological developments appears to be have been replaced by a boring listing of the most interesting and valuable facts with the reference to certain historical periods.

The amended version is as follows:

Однако на рубеже веков технологический процесс пошел ещё дальше. А уже к 20-м годам XX века, когда появились на свет дети моей бабушки (мои родители), *довольно обычным явлением были аэропланы, почти у всех было радио и уже изобрели телевидение и даже факс*. А когда моя бабушка провожала своих сыновей на войну в Европу в 1940-х, *в лабораториях уже разрабатывали цифровые компьютеры и атомные реакторы и не за горами был тот день, когда началось их использование.*

Conclusion

A skilled translator should remember that the word order of an English sentence will, most likely, demand a transposition in the process of translation. Though the ST word order may sometimes be preserved

without detriment to the sense or style of the TT, such instances should be considered the exception rather than the rule and transposition should be treated as a normal device.

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Recurrent Constructions in Political Discourse: Their Translation into Russian

Evgenia Terekhova
Far Eastern Branch, Russian Academy of Sciences, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper discusses the emergence of recurrent constructions, which are so called due to their replicability in political discourse. They are categorized into several types and subtypes, with structural binarity and one marked component being their most pronounced feature. The structural binarity types considered by the paper are characterized by (1) recurrent constructions with a *nominative core* and one marked component determined or determinative; (2) recurrent constructions with a *verbal core* which is typically expressed by infinitives, gerunds and participles; and (3) several types of *composite recurrent constructions*. This paper also focuses on the difficulties of translating these expressions.

Key words: *recurrent constructions, replicability, political discourse, structural binarity, nominative core, verbal core, untranslatables*

The focal issue of our presentation was the constructions we have called *recurrent*, by which we mean a special type of set idiomatic phrases. We argue that the constructions under review are innovatively, situationaly and chronologically related to a currently central event, actually becoming recurrent due to their intensive replicability by mass media. The concept of recurrence also has to do with recurrent constructions functioning in texts that form a certain conventional discourse – in our case it is a political one. Political discourse can be characterized by its vital palpitating *milieu*, which is responsible for active formation of recurrent constructions emerging under the impact of and in close connection with rapidly changing situations and events in a political area. Having found their way into political discourse, free word combinations can cease to be used as free word combinations, as mainstream events "bind their freedom." E.g., a volunteer "*flusher*" – if you look up the marked word "*flusher*", its dictionary meaning is " a man who beats up wild animals or foul in the hunting range," while in a political context its meaning is "a volunteer who drives reluctant voters to ballot station to vote".

Recurrent Constructions (RCs) are typically differentiated by their semantic *binary quality*, the latter being determined by the presence of two components: marked & unmarked. The *marked ones* are usually nontrivial, nonstandard, or expressive components often with a figurative meaning. Structural binarity is expressed in a number of basic types & subtypes: (1) recurrent constructions with a *nominative core* and one marked component either determined or determinative; (2) recurrent constructions with a *verbal core* which is typically expressed by infinitives, gerunds & participles; and (3) several types of *composite recurrent constructions*. Unlike idioms, recurrent constructions can also serve as free expressions in the language, e.g., "power lines." What makes them difficult to translate, however, is their usage in a political discourse, when they lose their "freedom" as the text event "binds" them. This statement can be demonstrated by a recurrent construction "*street money*": *Street money* is a disreputable political practice of dispensing cash to local polls, grass-root community leaders and preachers to get out the vote on Election Day – it is just part of the culture here (Philadelphia). «Уличными деньгами» называют наличные деньги, которые в соответствии с порочной политической практикой раздаются местным избирательным участкам, местному населению и священнослужителям с целью привлечения избирателей в день выборов на голосование – здесь, в Филадельфии, такой подход является частью культурной традиции». The first nominative component in the free word combination "*street money*", when associated with a specific event of a political discourse – election campaign – acquires a different meaning, with the **seme** of "immorality", "inadmissibility" becoming more pronounced. Thus, the entire connotation of the recurrent construction is interpreted as "*dirty unsavory"*

money, which changes hands, but the event remains a cultural tradition in Philadelphia in particular, and in the US in general.

We have worked out the criteria and identified three types and several subtypes of these constructions which are as follows: **(a)** recurrent constructions with a nominative core, (**b)** RC with a verbal core, **(c)** and recurrent composite constructions with various models of formation, e.g., stem composition, stem contraction, composition of stem and personal name (anthroponym), and/or composition of stem and abbreviation.

The reasons for the emergence the recurrent constructions in political discourse can vary. The basic reasons might be as follows:

(1) The need to name a new concept which arises at the peak of a political event, e.g., *resetting of relations*, «перезагрузка отношений»;

(2) Accurate communication or developing of author's thoughts and intentions, if there is a lack of usual lexis and/or free word combinations to embellish on what the author wants to say, e.g., "We can't *put boots on the ground* in Libya – but what about *the fins*?" «Мы не можем направить наземные войска в Ливию – а если морских котиков?»;

(3) The author's desire to be brief but succinct in formulating his/her ideas or conveying information. A newly formed construction can substitute larger pieces of discourse, e.g. *the Daddy Party* and *the Mommy Party* – «партия республиканцев и партия демократов»; and last but not least

(4) From culturological (Telia, 1988, p. 34) and/or aesthetic preferences of the author, e.g., "*the stump speech*" – «выступление кандидата в президенты во время его агитационных поездок по стране».

Borrowings (Proshina, 2002, p. 186) together with other sources, e.g., free word combinations, are one of the reasons recurrent constructions emerge in political discourse. More often than not, such borrowings can be found in modern English political discourse not because there are no constructions to name certain concepts in the English language. The contact we can observe between Russian and English brings about more succinct, vivid, stylistically expressive images, a highly pronounced theme or problem brought into focus by an author, and it can no doubt focus on and draw attention to a mainstream political event. E.g., *to blitz* the Arabs «молниеносным ударом разбить/победить» арабов; или political *extravaganza* - «эта политическая феерия/буффонада».

Finally yet importantly, difficulties related to the translation of recurrent constructions can be explained both linguistically and extralinguistically. Many renowned linguists account for those difficulties with different reasons; first of all by linguistic and culturological specifics of the two languages of translation (Kovshova, 2009, p. 22). Without trying to be original, we consider the process of translation as *actions focused on message transfer from one linguistic and cultural milieu into another, targeted on the sender of the message and his ability to achieve a desired result with the recipient of the same message.* In other words, a professional translator and/or interpreter need to command at least **two languages and cultures**, if he or she wants to be successful in his chosen area, translation.

Many linguists are fond of grouping the linguistic difficulties of translation according to a number of categories, e.g., they conventionally divide them into (1) "apparent" and (2) "non-apparent/implicit" (Ter-Minasova, 1981, p. 122). *Apparent language difficulties* cover the differences in grammatical systems of the languages and differences in phonetics and spelling. *Implicit difficulties* include the extension of the meaning of correlated words or units, their stylistic connotations, lexical and idiomatic distributive restrictions, and the phenomenon of misleading words, the so-called "false friends of a translator." On top of the above-mentioned difficulties of translation we should also keep in mind social and cultural difficulties, namely: culture-specific vocabulary, so-called "untranslatables", misleading or false equivalence as a result of social and cultural impacts, social and cultural connotations, social and cultural context complying with the usual lexis of translation and the translation of personal names (Lvovskaya, 2008, p. 224).

We suggest five interrelated steps, which are mandatory for every translator and/or interpreter when receiving, sending and interpreting a text. E.g. recurrent constructions with a verbal core "to *unite red* and *blue* America", literally can be interpreted as «объединить красную и синюю Америку», while the correct translation is «объединить действия двух партий, демократов и республиканцев». This construction is very instrumental in demonstrating the "work" of an algorithm consisting of five steps while finding a proper translation. What an interpreter or a translator does is:

- *defining denotation* (a reference);
- *defining signification* (significative meaning);
- *revealing new information for the recipient*;

- *making a decision about which part of the text should be verbalized for a targeted audience and which one should not*;
- *bringing to light all figurative, pragmatic, metaphoric and other linguistic and extratextual means*, which contribute to difficulties in translation. E.g., Obama jabbed a playful finger toward her belt buckle, and let lose his inner nerd. "The lithium crystals! Beam me up, Scotty!" «Обама игриво ткнул пальцем в пряжку на ремне платья (своей жены), и будто подросток-киноман воскликнул: «Литиевые кристаллы! Телепортируй меня на корабль, Скотти!» (Terekhova, 2010, p. 176).

Thus, modern English political discourse, as our research shows, uses a great number of recurrent constructions and is the optimal and most receptive *milieu* for their emerging and replicability by the mass media. Due to their chronological and cultural markedness, stylistic expressiveness, figurativeness, and innovativeness, recurrent constructions related to denotative situations or events are uniquely capable, unlike any other word combinations, to convey a "linguistic taste of the epoch."

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The Status of English in Guyana

Olga Titova
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Guyana is the only country in South America where English has the status of official language. It plays the leading role within its community though a great percentage of the Guyanese population speaks Guyanese Creole. The purpose of this paper is to describe the way English appeared and spread in Guyana and to give a general view of its functioning there.

Key words: *English, Guyanese, Creole language*

Introduction

English is by no means a universal language. The spread, status and *lingua franca* function of English are very impressive. David Crystal (1997) states that "the present world status of English is primarily the result of two factors: the expansion of British colonial power, which peaked toward the end of the nineteenth century, and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the twentieth century" (p. 53). No matter what reason led to the appearance of a particular variety of English, the fact is that in today's increasingly globalized world English has overcome all possible borders and become diverse. So many varieties of English have appeared with its expansion and are now used in the world.

Guyana is a small post-colonial country. Its official name is the Cooperative Republic of Guyana. Now it is an independent republic, located in the northern corner of South America, north of Brazil and east of Venezuela. Guyana is the only South American country to have English as its official and principal language. The English language in Guyana is seen as the language for educational, commercial and governmental purposes. The English taught at educational establishments in Guyana and used by the upper class is based on British English, though an English-based Creole language (Guyanese Creole, 2012) is widely spoken by people in Guyana. It is a slightly different system of communication from the standard forms. And the very Guyanese Creole patois, a mixed-language dialect, is of interest to this investigator.

English in Guyana

So, why is English the main language in Guyana? The reason is historical. It is the language of the colonizing power. Before the Spanish, French, Dutch and British ever thought about establishing colonies and fighting over the area now known as Guyana, aboriginal peoples had settled these lands for centuries. The Warrau Indians were thought to have been there before 900 AD, with the Carib and Arawak tribes arriving later (Guyana: A Brief History, 2012). During the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries, the great European colonial powers (the Netherlands, France, and Britain) fought to claim the land for sugarcane plantations. To increase agricultural productivity, the planters turned to the importation of African slaves who rapidly became a key element in the early years of the colonial economy (Guyana, 2012; History of Guyana, 2010). The region changed hands several times until, in 1814, it was formally ceded to Britain. By 1838, total emancipation of slaves had been effected. As ex-slaves left the plantations, labor shortages were created. This led to the introduction of new ethnic groups into the country through indenture, primarily from Portugal, India and China, to work on the plantations. From 1846-1917, almost 250,000 laborers entered Guyana. The largest of these groups came from India and were known locally as East Indians. The introduction of indentured East Indian workers alleviated the labor shortage and added a significant group to Guyana's ethnic mix. East Indians now form the largest segment of modern Guyana's population (Guyana: A Brief History, 2012). Guyana today is an independent English-speaking country in the Caribbean region. Guyana achieved independence from the United Kingdom on 26 May 1966 and became a republic on 23 February 1970.

So, English in Guyana is primarily the result of the expansion of British colonial power. It was brought to this country by British colonists and was given a special place within the community, having the status of the official language of the country and being used as a medium of communication in such domains as the government, the law courts, the media and the education system. Thus, it can be characterized as a postcolonial variety of English.

English in Guyana can be referred to Kachru's model of Englishes. Kachru's well-known "circles model" of Englishes (1986, p. 19) classifies the Englishes spoken around the world based on different ways in which the language has been acquired and is currently used. The current sociolinguistic profile of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles:

- The inner circle refers to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English, where it is the primary language: it includes the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.
- The Outer Circle represents the non-native varieties of English in regions that have passed through extended periods of colonization, and where English plays an important "second language" role in a multilingual setting: it includes Singapore, India, Malawi, and over fifty other territories.
- The expanding circle involves those countries which recognize the importance of English as an international language, though they do not have a history of colonization by members of the inner circle, nor have they given English any special administrative status. It includes China, Japan, Greece, Poland, Russia… In these areas English is taught as a foreign language.

Which of the circles can English in Guyana be referred to: the inner, outer or expanding circle? This is a rather difficult question. David Crystal (1997) states that "a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country. Such a role will be most evident in countries where large numbers of people speak the language as a mother tongue – in the case of English, this would mean the USA, Canada, Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and several Caribbean countries" (pp. 2 - 3). According to Crystal's (1997) data from 1995, English was used as a mother tongue by 700,000 people in Guyana and by 30,000 as a second language in addition to their mother tongue. So, taking into account this fact, the Guyanese variety of English can probably hold a place as a member of the inner circle, which generally refers to countries where English is the primary language.

As has been mentioned above, English, the official language of Guyana, is often spoken with a Caribbean Creole flavor. It can be characterized as an English-lexified language with some influences from Dutch, West African languages, the Arawakan and Carib languages, and to a lesser extent Indian language (Guyanese Creole, 2012). The first African slaves, as they came from different tribes, developed a rudimentary pidgin to communicate with each other. On arrival in Guyana they added some words and expressions drawn from the language of their Dutch masters, and as time passed, this "Dutch-Creole" went through changes and modifications.

As a new generation of slaves was born in the country, Dutch-Creole became the first language of these children, who continued to add new words and expressions to it. As a result, the development of Creolese intensified. When eventually the English took control of Guyana, the slaves added more and more English words and expressions to their vocabulary, and with succeeding generations, the "Dutch-Creole" eventually disappeared. However, some Dutch words remained in the now English-based Creolese, as did some from the French language, acquired when the French briefly occupied Guyana in the late nineteenth century. Some words and expressions from the Indian, Chinese and Portuguese immigrants were also added to the developing Creole language. The Indians contributed words and expressions of kinship and agricultural terms, while the Chinese and Portuguese added names for foods. As more and more contacts were made with the Amerindians, words from their languages became absorbed into this Creolese. The Creolese language, which closely resembles English, remains as a unique Guyanese cultural product which continues to undergo change as new words and expressions from different cultures are added to it (The Development of the Creolese Language, 2012)

The Guyanese continuum has seldom been investigated by Russian linguists, but it is rather familiar to Western readers of creole literature, and has been studied to some extent by Western investigators, such as Donald Winford, Nicole Scott, Kean Gibson, Walter Edwards and others.

Donald Winford in his paper “Re-examining Caribbean English Creole Continua” (1997) writes that the Guyanese continuum “tends to be viewed as typical of the Caribbean as a whole when in fact it is not. Indeed, the Guyanese continuum is unique in that it involves not two but three clearly defined and relatively stable varieties, namely a conservative rural creole, an urban creole, and a local variety of standard English” (p. 235).

Winford (1997) notes that Bickerton popularized the terms “basilect”, “mesolect”, and “acrolect” to refer to these varieties, and these terms have been extended to creole continua in general (pp. 235 - 236).

A phrase like "I told him" may be pronounced differently in various parts of the continuum (Guyanese Creole, 2012):

Utterance	**Represents the speech of**
[ai t□uld h□m]	**acrolect** speech of upper-class speakers
[ai to□ld h□m]	**mesolect** varieties of speech of middle-class speakers
[ai to□l □m]	
[ai t□l □m]	
[a t□l □m]	**mesolect** varieties of lower-middle and urban class speakers
[ai t□l □]	
[a t□l i]	
[mi t□l i]	rural working class
[mi t□l am]	**basilect** speech of illiterate rural laborers.

As for grammar, it is common in Guyanese Creole to repeat adjectives for emphasis (as if saying, very or extremely). For example, “Come now now” translates as “come right now” (Guyanese Creole).

Here are some more example phrases that are taken from Guyana’s newspaper *Kaieteur News* where there is a column in Creole, called “Dem Boys Seh”:

1. *All over de world when police shoot without reason, dem does get charge wid murder.* – All over the world when the police shoot without a reason, they are charged with murder (Dem Boys Seh, 2012a, p. 10).

2. *Dem thiefing, them selling drugs…* – They are stealing, they are selling drugs…(2012a, p. 10).
3. *In fact this is he last chance.* – In fact this is his last chance (Dem Boys She, 2012b, p. 9).
4. De officer who does tek bribe get instant promotion. – The officer who takes bribes gets an instant promotion (2012a, p. 10).
5. *He guh to Linden and de people welcome he not knowing that is like welcoming wood ants.* – He went to Linden and the people welcomed him not knowing that it is like to welcome wood ants [a termite] (2012a, p.10).
6. *Is wha it mean?* – What does it mean (2012b, p. 9)?
7. *Dem boys seh dat there is no better time than Emancipation Day fuh do it.* – Those boys say (people say) that there is no better time than Emancipation Day for doing it (2012b, p. 9).
8. *Politicians know bout that good.* – Politicians know about that well (2012b, p. 9).

Conclusion

To sum up, this paper is an attempt to touch upon a lesser known variety of English, English in Guyana. Having been brought to Guyana by British colonists, it acquired the status of the official language of the country. But along with the standard English, an English-based Creole language, Guyanese Creole, is widely spoken and understood by all Guyanese. It is a slightly different language system, based on the contribution of the English language and languages from other places.

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A Cognitive Approach to the Study of L2 Phonological Transfer

Victoria Zavyalova
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The article seeks to show the necessity of applying the cognitive phonology approach to the study of phonological transfer. Having realized constraints of studying language transfer within contrastive analysis framework, linguists have approached this phenomenon at a cognitive perspective. The cognitive paradigm in L2 phonological transfer research implies understanding individual cognitive abilities of a bilingual, the role of phonology in the process of L2 acquisition, as well as understanding the difference between perception and

production mechanisms at the phonological level, with phonological memory being considered a crucial cognitive instrument in L2 sound system acquisition.

Key words: *phonological transfer, cognitive aspects, second language acquisition*

The phenomenon of phonological transfer has been well studied by linguists who would in most cases relate it to the differences in the phonetic systems of the languages in contact (Juffs, 1990, Flege, Frieda, Nozawa, 1997, Brown, 2000, etc.[1]). It is traditionally defined as an influence of one language phonology on another in terms of both speech perception and production, which manifests itself in retaining a foreign accent. Phonological transfer is considered to be the tightest area of interference since although many adult learners are able to eventually acquire a native-like grammatical accuracy in a foreign language (L2), their L2 speech will most probably be characterized by non-native deviations in phonology. Awareness of the first language (L1) influence on L2 learning gave rise to Lado's Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis according to which the more similar the sound systems of the two languages in contact are, the easier it is for the learner to grasp L2 phonological organization, whereas differences in phonological units will pose major difficulty (negative transfer) (Lado, 1957). The contrastive analysis which suggests writing formal descriptions of the two languages, picking up similarities and differences, and making predictions of difficulty through contrasts, has been the fundamental method of studying the phonological transfer in structural linguistics. With the rise of cognitive linguistics which is seeking "the relationship between human language, the mind and socio-physical (embodied) experience", the new approaches to language study have developed (Evans, 2012). The guiding principle behind cognitive linguistics in general is that "the human language ability is not separate from the rest of cognition, that the storage and retrieval of linguistic data is not significantly different from the storage and retrieval of other knowledge, and that use of language in understanding employs similar cognitive abilities to those used in other non-linguistic tasks" (Mompeán, 2006, vii). Cognitive study of phonological transfer is inherently linked to the study of bilingualism as it is cognition of a bilingual individual that matters. The new cognitive approaches to the problem are characterized by the convergence of the disciplines that contribute to it, including psychology, linguistics, applied linguistics and second language acquisition, and neuroscience.

Comparing the two paradigms - structural and cognitive – linguists sometimes negate the validity of the former. In relation to phonological transfer there is an opinion that "…the prevailing metaphor of transfer of skills is misleading, and that what happens is access to an already existing general cognitive skill" (Walter, 2008, 245). I suggest that there is no conflict between the two approaches of studying the problem. On the contrary, cognitive approach to phonological transfer has been a consistent development of the earlier research instruments: having realized constraints of studying language transfer within contrastive analysis framework, linguists have approached this phenomenon at a cognitive perspective. The cognitive paradigm in L2 phonological transfer research implies understanding individual cognitive abilities of a bilingual, the difference between perception and production mechanisms at the phonological level, and the role of phonology in the process of L2 acquisition, with phonological memory (loop) being considered a crucial cognitive instrument.

Although it is a well accepted fact that phonology studies have always been the flagship in linguistics, phonological work in cognitive linguistics, strange as it may seem, has been "sparse in comparison with the attention paid to other areas of study like semantics or grammar" (ibid). Cognitive phonology treats pronunciation and identification of phonological contrasts as cognitive skills that are related to neurophysiological processes which happen in the human's brain/mind (Lakoff, 1993, Hale, Reiss, 2000, Hulst, 2003, Fraser, 2006, Mompeán, 2006, Nathan, 2008, Burton-Roberts, 2011, etc). Not many researchers in Russia have addressed the issue of phonological transfer from a cognitive perspective so far, so the present article is a small contribution into the problem of phonological transfer from the cognitive phonology perspective.

Neurophysiology of phonological transfer

It must be noted that phonology being cognitive is not fully encapsulated in the mind, there is a system for externalizing the phonological representations (Hulst, 2003). To understand the fundamental properties of sound systems means to grasp the cognitive representations and neurophysiological processes that underlie sound systems. So, what is the sound? Sounds are vibrations registered by our ear. Registered sounds that are associated with language units (phonemes, syllables, words, phrases, etc) are called linguistic

1 See Phonetics and Second Language Acquisition Bibliography (2012)

sounds. There exist limitations for sound perception by the human ear, particularly, for the pitch range (16 - 20 000 Hz), the degree of loudness (0 - 130 dB), and the duration of a signal needed as a minimum period for acoustic contrasts registration (about 50 ms). The neurophysiology of sound perception is indebted to the organ of hearing which has a very complicated structure. Below is a picture of the middle ear and the inner ear.

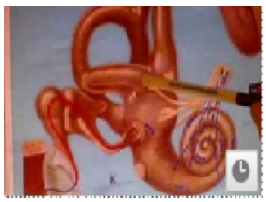

Figure 1. The Middle Ear (Tympanic membrane, Malleus bone, Anvil bone, and Stirrup bone) and the Inner Ear (Cochlea) (Samuel, 2011)

The middle ear transmits sound from the outer ear to the inner ear, from which the signal is transmitted in the form of the nerve impulses through the neural network to the appropriate zone in the brain which registers it as sound perception. Various parts of Basilar membrane in cochlea resonate with vibrations of different frequencies (note that in cochlea vibrations distribute in fluid) depending upon the thickness of the tissue: lower frequencies resonate with thicker tissues, higher frequencies resonate with thinner tissues. Thus, our brain registers multiple acoustic characteristics every single second, in other words, the brain paints the picture of the sound, making a magic transition from sound to sense.

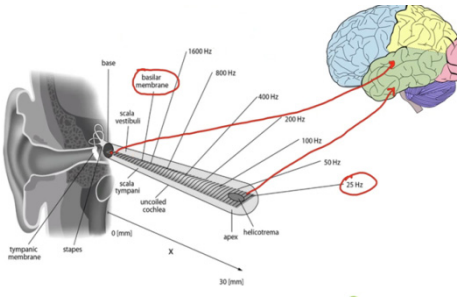

Figure 2. Cochlea –Brain Connection (Samuel, 2011)

The above description refers to the neurophysiology of sound perception in any language. However, the question arises whether the same processes occur in the situation of L2 perception by a bilingual. Talking about phonological transfer in speech perception it is predictable that similar sounds in L1 and L2 can be identified as such by the brain because their acoustic clues are registered in the adjacent areas in cochlea and then sent as nerve impulses to the neighboring zones in the brain: e.g. English [s] in the word *sell* and Russian [s] in the word *сел*. Neurophysiological processing of L2 sounds that are not existent in L1 repertoire might be more complicated: L2 acoustic clue can be transferred as potentially similar to L1 sounds closest in acoustic characteristics: e.g. English [ð] can be interpreted either as [d] or as [z] by the Russian learner. Given the close interrelationship between speech perception and speech production, analogous articulatory modifications of L1 sounds in L2 speech are naturally expected.

Working memory and L2 phonology acquisition

Recent work involving a cognitive approach to L2 phonological transfer stresses the importance of the human ability to recognize and remember phonological elements and their order of occurrence, i.e. the phonological loop, for structuring the new phonological system in the brain of a bilingual in order to develop a sensory-motor integration network connecting the vocal tract and auditory perception. The idea of the phonological loop was first developed by A. Baddeley and G. Hitch (1974) who came up with a more accurate model of short memory and proposed the so-called *Model of working memory* with the phonological loop being one of its most significant elements.

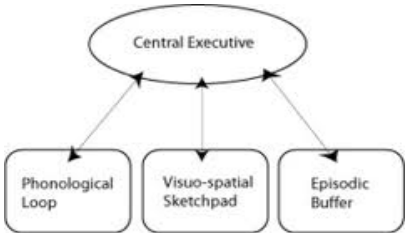

Figure 3. Model of working memory (Baddeley, Hitch 1974)

According to Baddeley (1986), the phonological loop, which consists of two parts, namely, a short-term *phonological store* and *articulatory loop (subvocal rehearsal),* serves to hold the recently heard sound or phonological information.

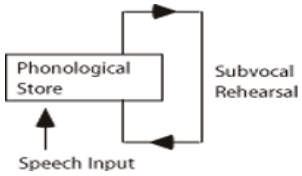

Figure 4. Construct of phonological loop (Baddeley 1986)

But for the phonological loop the traces of the sound would speedily decay and there would be no way to revive the new acoustic information coming into our organs of hearing. The phonological loop holds a speech segment with the duration of about 2 seconds[2], and listeners automatically record it when they hear speech even if they do not actually listen. Phonological working memory allows for learning L1 new words in adults. It is further suggested in A. Baddeley et al (1998) that the phonological loop may predominantly serve in language acquisition, carrying out "a fundamental human capacity to generate a longer lasting representation of a brief and novel speech event—a new word" (158). In general, L2 learning ability can be attributed to variations in phonological memory capacity. One of the key findings in the experiments with the phonological loop and working memory in general which can be relevant to the study of phonological transfer in second language acquisition is that phonological similarity even in one language has an adverse effect on recall of word sequences. Further the issue of acoustic likeness in two languages is described in terms of L2 phonological categorization.

Phonological categorization in L2

In relation to phonological categorization in L2, which I treat as a pre-requisite for a rapid and proper language acquisition, it can be assumed that the seeming acoustic likeness of L1 and L2 sounds (in a broad sense of the word) may be one of the critical factors for the processes of phonological transfer. As humans learn by analogy, the cognitive pronunciation and sound perception skills that have developed in the speaker's native language serve as a fundamental pre-condition for acquiring the sound system of a second language. Secondary phonological categorization in adulthood takes shape of forming L2 phonological oppositions to L1 phonological system in two possible ways, namely – either allophonic complementary distribution (in case L1 and L2 phonological units demonstrate some acoustic similarity), or phonological contrast (in case there is no definite correspondence of particular phonological units in L1 and L2). Thus, at the basilect and, in some cases, at the mesolect levels of L2 acquisition categorization of new sounds leads to the formation of a joint phonological pool in the mind of a bilingual. This joint pool would manifest itself in a noticeable phonetic accent in L2 speech of non-native speakers.

On the one hand, linguo-cognitive mechanisms of secondary phonological categorization in late bilingualism demand a certain degree of acoustic similarity in L1 and L2 necessary for successful L2 acquisition as a kind of preceding sound perception and sound production experience (at an early stage of language acquisition). On the other hand, acoustic similarity breeds acoustic confusion effect or phonological similarity effect which manifests itself in the formation of phonetic accent. Undoubtedly, a true phonological competence in L2 is formed only after L2 phonological units are structured in the opposition to each other within a single language system as phonologically relevant sound contrasts**.**

2 This operational unit in working memory is crucial for the performance of simultaneous interpreting

Conclusion

Cognitive approach to the study of phonological transfer exhibits significant benefits as it incorporates polyparadigmatic methods providing a new perspective on the nature of language contact in the mind of a bilingual. It allows to reveal the relationship between neurophysiological, psychological, linguistic, and other factors that determine the process of language acquisition. Not only differences in the sound systems of the languages in contact but the specificity of phonological categorization in L2 acquisition as well as individual learning abilities including the capacity of the phonological learning memory are of crucial importance in understanding the phenomenon of phonological transfer in late bilingualism. Before the phonological transfer is weakened and the advanced level of L2 phonological competence is achieved, L2 speech of a bilingual can be described as noticeably accented. The study of phonological transfer and speech accent has implications for listener perception and intercultural communication training in view of the growing number of bilinguals around the globe. For example, the de facto diversity and sound variation of World Englishes requires expansion of interlocutors' perception boundaries. Listening comprehension in the multicultural communication context implies a more flexible and sophisticated perception base that needs to contain multiple phonological samples of World Englishes. Thus, educational exposure to the diversity of English accents and promotion of the cognitive interphonology research are a bare necessity today.

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Oiconymy Paremiaization

Yevgenia Zavyortkina
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The results of my research highlight the main tendencies of oiconymy paremiaization in the cultures of Britain and the United States of America. Oiconymy paremias are various kinds of proverbs the main constituent of which are oiconymies, geographic names of settlements. The comparison of the formation processes of oiconymy paremias in British and American cultures reveals the most relevant paremiaization points of this kind. In spite of the fact that the American variant of the English language is based on the English language of Great Britain the main tendencies of oiconymy paremiaization of the above mentioned cultures are quite different.

Key words: *paremia, paremiaization, oiconymy paremia, astionymic paremia, comonymic paremia*

The object of this study is oiconymy paremias in British and American cultures. Oiconymy paremias are all kinds of proverbial statements, one constituent of which is oiconyms, the names of settlements. Oiconyms are characterized as a subclass of the toponymic lexicon of a language system. Most of the toponymic lexicon is nationally painted and is an embodiment of a society's culture (Tomakhin, 1982). The oiconymic lexicon, as an inherent component of toponymy, reveals extraordinary stability and acts as the carrier of specific national colour and ethnic flavour. History and ethnic culture are reflected in the names of settlements. The meaning of the oiconymy is not equal to the meaning of its appellative, a common noun put on the basis of a settlement nomination. Oiconymy meaning is understood as the correlation of a proper name with the subject of a designation, i.e. interdependence of the place name and the settlement indicated, and by the way the settlement's popularity and the socio-historical factor of the oiconymic nomination are also taken into consideration (Zavertkina, 2004). The part of a word meaning which looks back to the extralinguistic substance of a word is referred to as the cultural component of a word meaning (Vereschagin and Kostomarov, 1983). John Mill wrongly considered all proper names to be words deprived of connotation and so without meaning (Goverdovsky, 1979). We believe that socially significant oiconyms, as proper names, being realities of a particular culture, are saturated with their cultural components and their socio-historical connotation.

Oiconymy semantics focuses on linguistic (address) and extralinguistic (historical, ideological, psychological and emotional) information. Extralinguistic oiconymy knowledge concerns information which is received as a result of direct acquaintance with a certain settlement, and also data about the settlement which can be gained from encyclopedic sources. Knowledge of society, connected with the formation of oiconymy and gained from the usage of oiconyms as place names of various kinds of settlements, can be rather varied. Oiconyms, as proper names, include cultural-historical connotations appealing to a person's experience resulting from the education received in a particular culture and promoting adequate perception of paremias in the structure of which there is a particular oiconym.

Oiconymy paremiaization in Britain

Our research has established that the paremia fund of British culture totals 610 oiconymy paremias in the structure of which there are 422 oiconyms. Oiconyms can be subdivided into astionyms, names of urban settlements, and comonyms, names of rural settlements (Podolskaya, 1988). Astionyms include names of cities and towns. A "city" in Britain is a big settlement which has received this title from royal authority and usually has a cathedral. As the honourable title "city" is also appropriated to some small cities (ABBYY, 2012). Comonyms, in turn, include the names of rural settlements, large and small villages and hamlets. A settlement with the status "hamlet" differs from a settlement with the status "village" not only in its size and number of inhabitants, but also by the lack of a church (Hornby, 1988). We classify paremias as astionymic or comonymic depending on the type of oiconym, the constituent of paremia. During the course of this study, it became clear that the names of rural settlements are more subjected to the process of paremiaization than those of urban settlements. In the structure of oiconymy paremias we found 222 comonyms, 212 of them the names of villages, and 10 the names of hamlets. Names of cities have a slightly smaller tendency to paremiaization and in oiconymy paremias they are represented by 200 astionyms, of which 32 are names of cities and 168 are names of towns.

The search for the answer to the question "Why, from a huge set of settlements of a particular society, have some settlements, i.e. their names, come to be reflected in oiconymy paremias, whereas others have not?" led us to an understanding and revelation of paremiaization tendencies of settlement names.

The basic oiconymy paremiaization tendencies of Britain

This study of the paremia fund of British culture revealed five basic tendencies of oiconymy inclusion in the structure of English paremias:

1. The settlement's antiquity. All settlements the names of which underwent the process of paremiaization (422) are of ancient origin. The names of 176 settlements are mentioned for the first time in the *Doomsday Book* in 1086. 136 oiconyms are registered in earlier chronicles and annals, and the names of 110 settlements are met in historical sources of the 12th and 13th centuries.

2. From the point of view of paremiaization, the names of cities (32) were relevant if cities had the following status:

a) the status of *country capital*, so **London** is a component of oiconymy paremias 48 times (34 times independently, and 14 with other oiconyms);
b) the status of *county city*; the names of 13 main cities of various counties are components of oiconymy paremias: **Chester**, **Durham** – 7 times, **Oxford** [+ the status of the home of the oldest university] – 6 times, **Cambridge**, **Nottingham** – 5 times, **Lincoln** [+ the status of cathedral-city] – 4 times, **Coventry**, **Gloucester** [+ the status of city-port], **Norwich** – 3 times, **Carlisle**, **Derby**, **Exeter**, **Worcester** – 2 times;
c) the status of *city-port*; 5 names of city-ports underwent paremiaization: **Bristol** – 14 times, **Hull** – 5 times, **Gloucester** – 3 times, **Plymouth**, **Truro** – 2 times;
d) the status of *cathedral city*; names of 5 cathedral cities are components of oiconymy paremias: **Canterbury** – 6 times, **Lincoln** – 4 times, **Chichester**, **Ripon**, **Salisbury** – 2 times;
e) the status of *industrial city*; 8 names of cities of a similar sort were included in the structure of oiconymy paremias: **Newcastle** (major coal-mining area) – 8 times, **Manchester** [+ the status of mill town], **York** (wool trade centre) – 7 times, **Birmingham** (blade production), **Preston** (textiles) [+ the status of market-town] – 5 times, **Sheffield** (centre of cutlery manufacture) [+ the status of market-town] – 2 times, **Gateshead** (iron production), **Sunderland** (coal-mining, salt-panning) – 1 time;
f) the status of *resort city*; the name of only 1 resort city – **Bath** – was subjected to paremiaization, as part of 2 oiconymy paremias;
g) the status of *city with a royal manor*; 1 name with this status – **Wakefield** is constituent of 2 oiconymy paremias.

3. Names of towns (168) had great value in the process of paremiaization if the towns had the following status:

h) the status of *county town*; 10 names of towns with this status were parts of oiconymy paremias: **Winchester** – 3 times, **Guilford** [+ the status of royal mint], **Lewes** [+ the status of market-town], **Northampton** [+ the status of market-town], **Shrewsbury** [+ the status of market-town], **Stafford**,

Taunton [+ the status of market and fair town] – 2 times, **Dorchester** [+ the status of market-town], **Ipswich** [+ the status of royal mint], **Morpeth** [+ the status of market-town] – 1 time;

i) the status of *town-port*; names of 21 town-ports have been involved in the process of paremiaization: **Dover** - 15 times, **Yarmouth** – 4 times, **Deal**, **Folkestone**, **Shields** – 3 times, **King's Lynn**, **Padstow** – 2 times, the others – 1 time;

j) the status of *market town*; names of 102 settlements having the status of market town are components of oiconymy paremias, 45 oiconyms were subject to paremiaization 2 times and more, for example, **Banbury** – 8 times, **Grantham**, **Hexham** – 7 times, **Halifax** – 5 times, **Berwick**, **Leominster**, **Needham**, **Romford**, **Tewkesbury** – 4 times, etc.

k) the status of *rural town*; 9 names of towns with this status were parts of oiconymy paremias: **Sedgefield** (a great hunting centre) – 4 times, **Glastonbury** – 3 times, **Brentford, Sedgley** – 2 times, the others – 1 time, including **Wandsworth** (with the second largest prison in Britain);

l) the status of *fair town*; names of 21 towns with this status underwent paremiaization: **Congleton** [+ the status of market-town] – 4 times, **Godalming** [+ the status of market-town] – 3 times, **Barnstaple** [+ the status of market-town], **Holt** [+ the status of market-town], **Mitcham**, **Petworth** – 2 times, the others – 1 time;

m) the status of *industrial town*; names of 25 industrial towns are components of oiconymy paremias: **Burford** (wool trade), **Crediton [Kirton]** (wool production) – 3 times, **Bodmin** (tin industry), **Huyton** (coal mining), **Jarrow** (coal mining), **Stockport** (silk production), **Wellington** (wool production), **Witham** (river fish industry) – 2 times, the others – 1 time;

n) the status of *mill town*; 4 names of mill towns were involved in the process of paremiaization: **Cleckheaton**, **Dewsbury** [+ the status of market-town], **Heckmondwike**, **Wigan** [+ the status of market and fair-town];

o) the status of *resort town*; names of 5 resort towns became components of oiconymy paremias: **Malvern** – 4 times, **Scarborough** [+ the status of market, fair-town] – 3 times, **Brighton** [coastal resort], **Cheltenham**, **Epsom** – 1 time;

p) the status of *town with royal manor*; 10 names of towns with the above-mentioned status were parts of oiconymy paremias: **Dunmow** – 9 times, **Dunstable** – 2 times, the others – 1 time;

4. Names of villages (212) were very likely to be subjected to the process of paremiaization if the settlements had the following status:

q) the status of *market village*; names of 6 settlements with the status of market village became components of oiconymy paremias: **Smithfield** - 6 times, **Malpas**, **Wye** - 2 times, **Ashton**, **Birstal**, **Mountsorrel** - 1 time;

r) the status of *fair village*; 5 names of villages with this status were involved in the process of paremiaization: **Elstow**, **Paddington** - 2 times, **Breage**, **Brent**, **Lydford** - 1 time;

s) the status of *fishing port*; names of 3 villages with fishing ports became components of oiconymy paremias: **Boscastle**, **Weybourne** - 2 times, **Polperro** - 1 time;

t) the status of *industrial village*; names of 24 industrial villages underwent paremiaization: **Culmstock** (wool production), **Hope** (quarries) - 2 times, the others - 1 time;

u) the status of *farming village*; names of 153 settlements with the status of farming village were parts of oiconymy paremias: **Gotham** - 7 times, **Tyburn** - 6 times, **Mobberley**, **St. Giles**, **Westminster** - 5 times, **Piddinghoe** - 4 times, **Amberley**, **Battersea**, **Bowdon**, **Harrow on the Hill**, **Ivinghoe**, **Tottenham**, **Wing** - 3 times, **Bocking**, **Castle Rising**, **Kennington**, **Melverly**, **Pelton**, **Roding**, **St. Mary Hoo**, **Teynham**, **Tonge**, **Weobley** - 2 times, the others - 1 time;

v) the status of *dairy village*; 4 names of villages with this status became components of oiconymy paremias: **Stilton** (cheese dairy) - 4 times, **Cotherston** (cheese dairy) - 2 times, **Helsby** (dairy), **Stanton Drew** (dairy) - 1 time;

w) the status of *village with royal manor*; names of 17 settlements with this status were involved in the process of paremiaization: **Chelsea** - 3 times, **Bloxham**, **Highgate**, **Waltham** - 2 times, the others - 1 time.

5. Hamlets (10) were used in paremiaization if they had significance for a certain area or even for all of England; for example, in **Camberwell** there was a leper colony. In **Charterhouse** there were silver and lead mines. In **Wadesmill** the first road in England with protection from attacks by horsemen was constructed, and it was even the first one in the world. In **Burston** a royal manor was established. In **Barnaby**, owing to its geographical position, the longest day and the shortest night in England were observed. **Charing Cross** was

known for the antiquity of its origin. **Pinnock** differed from other settlements by its hilly landscape. **Morvah** was well-known for its fairs. **Wykin** was famous for high quality buttermilk.

So, the names of villages (212) in England were the most often subject to the process of paremiaization. All these villages had an ancient origin and were mainly had the status of farming village (153), industrial village (24) or village with royal manor (17).

Oiconymy paremiaization in the USA

The study showed, that the paremia fund of the American culture, integrating kinds of paremias, includes only 73 oiconymy paremias, using 27oiconyms. The structure of oiconyms in American culture is similar to the oiconymy structure of British culture, except for a small difference, namely, a rural settlement with the status of hamlet in England is called an unincorporated community in the USA - a settlement which does not have status. In the American variant of the English language the word "city" means "big city with local self-management". Unlike England where the status of a city is awarded by royal decree, in the United States the conferment of a status to settlements, including the status of city, is carried out according to laws of each certain state (ABBYY, 2012).

The analysis of the paremia material reveals that names of city settlements are more subjected to the process of paremiaization than those of towns. In the structure of oiconymy paremias, there are 24 oiconyms, among them - 16 names of cities and 8 names of towns. Names of rural settlements possess much smaller predisposition to paremiaization and in oiconymy paremias 3 comonyms are presented, of which 2 comonyms are names of villages and 1 comonym is the name of an unincorporated community. Unlike the settlements of Britain, which have rather ancient origins, American settlements the names of which have gone through the process of paremiaization (27), were founded between the 17th and the 19th centuries. In the 17th century 12 settlements (6 cities and 6 towns) were founded, the names of which became part of oiconymy paremias. In the 18th century, 13 settlements (8 cities, 2 towns, 2 villages and 1 unincorporated community) were founded, oiconyms of which were involved in the process of paremiaization. In the 19th century 2 cities were founded the names of which became oiconymy paremias components.

The basic tendencies of oiconymy paremiaization in US culture

The study revealed the following basic tendencies of oiconymy insertion in the structure of American paremias:

1. Names of cities (16) were greatly subject to the process of paremiaization if the cities had the following status:

a) the status of *country capital*, for example, the oiconym **Washington** became a component of oiconymy paremias 2 times;

b) the status of *state capital*; names of 3 cities with this status were parts of oiconymy paremias: **Boston** [+ the status of city-port (a major U.S. shipping port)] - 19 times, **Richmond** - 2 times, **Albany** [+ the status of city-port (a major port on the **Hudson River**)] - 1 time;

c) the status of *city-port*; 7 names of city-ports, among them **Boston** and **Albany** noted previously, underwent paremiaization: **New York** (trading port) - 15 times, **Baltimore** (a major U.S. seaport), **New Haven** (trading port + home of Yale University), **New Orleans** (a major U.S. port + the largest slave market), **Salem** (one of the most significant seaports in early America) - 1 time;

d) the status of *industrial city*; the structure of oiconymy paremias included 7 names of this type of city: **Cincinnati** (the world's major pork-processing center) - 5 times, **Milwaukee** (brewing center) - 5 times, **Philadelphia** (an important trading center and the center of the textile industry) - 4 times, **Roanoke** (an important transportation hub in western Virginia and chemical industry center) - 2 times, **Chester** (oil production and Mississippi river transportation hub), **Chicago** (a major transportation hub in North America with the world's largest meatpacking facilities), **Dubuque** (timber industry center, boat building, brewing) - 1 time;

2. Names of towns (8) had a basic influence on the process of paremiaization if the towns had the following status:

a) the status of *port-town*; names of two port-towns were involved in the process of paremiaization: **Bristol** (boat building industry), **Plymouth** (a center for rope making, fishing, and the shipping industry) - 1 time;

b) the status of *rural town*; 9 names of towns with this status were part of oiconymy paremias: **Hillsborough** - 2 times, **Ulysses** - 2 times, **Athens**, **Barwick**, **Braintree** - 1 time;

c) the status of *industrial town*; the name of one industrial town, **Charlestown** (dockyards), became an oiconymy paremia component;

3. Names of villages displayed insignificant parameters in the process of paremiaization. The structure of oiconymy paremias included only 2 names of such settlements which had the following status:

a) the status of *farming village*: **Cleveland**;

b) the status of *fair village*: **Makanda** (spring and autumn fairs with live music, arts and crafts shows, food);

4. Irrelevant from the point of view of paremiaization were the names of small settlements which did not have official status, *unincorporated communities*. Only one name of this kind of settlement was a part of oiconymy paremias: **Hackney** (farming).

Therefore, the names of American cities (16) having the status of state capital, the status of city-port and also the status of industrial city were involved in the process of paremiaization more often than other names of American settlements.

Comparison of the oiconymy paremiaization process in British and American cultures

By analyzing the paremia funds of the cultural-language community of Britain and the USA from the point of view of settlements names involving in the process of paremia creation, we come to the following conclusions:

1. One of the most important elements of the paremiaization process in Britain,, the factor of the settlement's antiquity, appeared irrelevant from the point of view of settlement names in the paremiaization process in the USA.

2. Maximum susceptibility to the oiconymy paremiaization process was shown by the names of ancient villages of Britain (212), with the status of farming village, industrial village and also the status of village with royal manor. However, American village names were hardly ever drawn into the process of paremia creation.

3. In American paremia, names of cities (16), having the status of state capital, the status of city-port, and also the status of industrial city appeared the most relevant.

4. Names of towns played an important part in the paremiaization process of both cultures. Names of towns which appeared at a significant rate in the paremia fund of Britain were names of towns with the status of market town - 102, industrial town – 25, fair town – 21 and port-town – 21. In the American paremia fund only the names of towns with the status of rural town left an appreciable trace.

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American TV Commercials as Linguistic Instruments of Monitoring Public Opinion

Anna Zban
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Any TV commercial has about thirty seconds to make an impact on TV viewer. As it has to capture and hold the viewer's attention within a short time frame, it often uses specific techniques, a special choice of words and language structures. Being an appeal to the viewer's senses and emotions, effective political TV advertising is a combination of sound, visual, image and verbal techniques with a strong political message, thus allowing a presidential candidate to perform a dual task – to both convey his major political objectives and create his own attractive political images.

Key words: *political advertising, political image*

Introduction

In the past two decades, political advertising theory and practical aspects of its operation have received much attention in research worldwide (Борисов, 2004; Матвейчев, 2008; Наполитан, 1972; Недяк, 2008; Ольшанский, 2005; Политические коммуникации, 2004; Шейнов, 2005; Bimber & Davis, 2003; Boller, 1984; Jamieson, 1984).

Though researchers in different fields (Горчакова, 2007; Гринберг, 2005; Соловьев, 2001; Шарков, 2005; Нанасюк, 2007; Diamond & Bates, 1984; Егорова-Гантман, 2002) study political advertising, it has no clear and generally accepted definition whatsoever. For our research purposes, we assume that political advertising is a communication – often paid for by a sponsor or a candidate to some governing body during the elections – to the public about anything political.

According to *Campaign$ for $ale: Newsroom Guide for to Political Advertising* (1999), there are two types of political ads (p. 9): express advocacy advertisements, which advocate the election or defeat of a candidate, and issue advocacy advertisements, which promote a set of ideas or policies and are mostly used by political parties, issue advocacy organizations, corporations, unions and individuals. In our research, we focus on express advocacy ads used in election campaigns. Such advertisements are the primary bank of tools for the individuals seeking political office as well as the groups who support them.

As one of our main purposes, we also focus on studying political advertising as a stimulant to voter engagement, tracking how different elements of political ads contribute to the image stability of presidential candidates and evaluating the narrative structures, aesthetic and emotional appeals of political advertising or just individual tastes. The analytical methods we use are a combination of several elements, such as examining political advertisements to determine the type of knowledge conveyed and the balance between issues and image, and positive and negative content. We consider political ads as persuasive constructs of politics, addressing to the public. We analyze the ads trying to understand the aesthetic and emotional appeal to the voters. At present, our analysis is confined to 15 ads in the U.S. presidential elections of 2008 and 2012.

In our research, we give a lot of consideration to the political image of political candidates. Although the concept of political image has been examined by students of political science, sociology, and communication (Егорова-Гантман, 2002; Горчакова, 2007; Панасюк, 2007; *Политическая имиджелогия,* 2006; Почепцов, 2002; Шестопал, 2007; Rowman, 2004), little agreement has been reached concerning the concept. Our analysis of numerous studies on the subject shows that many researchers find the following image characteristics in voter preferences for ideal presidential candidates: honesty, integrity, intelligence, careful analysis in decision-making, reasoned statesmanship and leadership, firmness on issues, and willingness to accept other people's comments or advice.

The channels through which voters receive campaign information, the type of message received, and candidate images are interrelated. Therefore, the research may suggest two interesting conclusions. First, it is the type of message, rather than the amount of information, that affects candidate image perceptions. Second, issue information is related to image perceptions mostly through television and the Internet.

Talking about the Internet, it must be noted that the Internet has already become an essential medium of American politics. Its distinctive role in politics has emerged because it has become instrumental in multiple ways. Political campaigns have begun to use interactive Web sites as a way to communicate directly

with the electorate, publish policy statements, solicit contributions, and organize supporters. According to an opinion by Phil Noble – cited by Steve McGookin (2004) – political consultant and founder of PoliticsOnline.com, "The Internet and politics is like sex. You're constantly experimenting to see what works. If it feels good, you do more of it; if it doesn't, you stop."

However, it must be always remembered that it is easy to go too far, even with the best techniques. Just two examples of political commercials broadcast on TV and placed on the Internet during the recent presidential campaign in the U.S.A. clearly support this warning, as they are quite typical of the techniques used by all presidential candidates.

The first is an ad for Mitt Romney, called *Facts Are Clear*.

> Narrator: President Obama says he's creating jobs. But he's really creating debt. The facts are clear. Obama's four deficits are the four largest in U.S. history. He's adding almost as much debt as all 43 previous presidents combined. And over 30 cents of every dollar Obama spends is borrowed – much of it from countries like China. He's not just wasting money. He's borrowing it, and then wasting it. We can't afford four more years.
> Mitt Romney: I'm Mitt Romney. I approve this message.

The voter sees black and white pictures of Obama. The text is followed by a fast-forward of previous presidents, ending with George Washington on the dollar bill. Feelings of loneliness and hopelessness are created. Moving numerals on a debt counter mount past $10 trillion and are obviously meant to raise in the viewers some instinctive fear for the future. At the mention of China, the screen with the dollar bill is bathed in red as the Chinese flag is shown. The picture is complete: there is no future for America if Obama is elected again. The background music is depressing, even funereal. The voice of the narrator is firm and leaves no doubt about the conclusion. The text of the message is organized through contradictory statements and is full of "convincing" figures, supported by the vital ideas: "creating jobs", "existing debts", "deficit", and "borrowing from other countries". The candidate voicing these facts seems reasonable and thinking about the good not only of the country but also of every citizen.

Seeing the ad, very few undecided voters will try to check the information received. However, they should do so. Blaming Obama for $4 trillion-plus annual budget deficits is too much. The deficit had already reached $1.2 trillion under President Bush's last budget when Obama was inaugurated in 2009, according to the Congressional Budget Office. Moreover, the three deficits are attributed in part to the costs of the Afghan and Iraq wars begun under President Bush. Then, the ad mentions the amount of federal debt that has doubled during Obama's term, but it has increased by only 80%, according to the Treasury. The ad is clearly aimed at those voters who do not have a deep understanding of economic terms and see no difference between public and federal debt, and the advertiser is using this lack of knowledge to his advantage. In addition, there is a certain juggling with figures relating to the amount the U.S. has borrowed from China. So, we see that the candidate is trying to achieve his purpose by cheating throughout the ad and thus sowing distrust in among smart voters.

The second ad to be analyzed is a commercial for Barack Obama entitled *The Question.*

> Barack Obama: I'm Barack Obama and I approve this message.
> Announcer: He keeps saying it.
> Mitt Romney: This president cannot tell us that you're better off today than when he took office.
> Announcer: Well, here's where we were in 2008.
> TV broadcasts: Worst financial collapse since the Great Depression. American workers were laid off in numbers not seen in over three decades.
> Announcer: And here's where we are today: 30 months of private-sector job growth, creating 4.6 million new jobs. We're not there yet. But the real question is: Whose plan is better for you? The president's plan asks millionaires to pay a little more to help invest in a strong middle class, clean energy, and cut the deficit. Mitt Romney's plan? A new $250,000 tax break for multimillionaires. Roll back regulations on the banks that cratered the economy. And raise taxes on the middle class.
> Bill Clinton: They want to go back to the same old policies that got us in trouble in the first place.
> Obama: We're not going back, we are moving forward.

Announcer: Forward.

This campaign ad for President Obama compares his economic record favorably to what he inherited from the previous administration and contrasts his economic plan with the Republican alternative. Throughout the ad statistical data contrasting the plans of two candidates on major issues is shown. The ad begins with Romney making his charge. To exemplify the past and the present, the scenes from Wall Street during the financial collapse, workers exiting a subway and a pleasant suburban street are shown. Then the topical question of choosing the future is posed. The answer is evident – on the screen Barack Obama is thinking hard. The last line of hope. The contrast switches to the wealthy, shown in front of beautiful mansions and jumbo jets, and the middle class, seen first greeting Obama and later at home, with a warning of a $2,000 tax increase under Romney. At the end, Clinton and Obama are seen giving their speeches at the Democratic convention. The last phrases – the logical conclusion of what the viewer has seen – will be long remembered.

This ad affirms that Obama has made things better and Romney would make things worse. The announcer is convincing both in his tone and in citing "pleasant" statistics from Obama's record. The pictures shown surely support the idea well. The phrases are short and the numbers are striking. The image of an honest, reasonable, and profound politician is thus created – a man of action, a man of his word.

The ad is well made, but with a few things still hidden from the ordinary voter. Thus, in making the claim that the president has overseen "4.6 million new jobs", the ad focuses only on the private sector. If public employee layoffs are included, job growth will be much lower. Then, the ad's assertion that Obama would have the wealthy "pay a little more" depends on the definition of this "little." The top income tax rate would return to 39.6% from 35%. Moreover, the allegation that Romney would cut multimillionaires' taxes by $250,000 and raise taxes by $2,000 on the middle class is based on a study by the Tax Policy Center, a non-partisan think tank. A smart voter – or at least one who is not lazy in getting exact information – could possibly notice these "subtle inaccuracies" and adjust the candidate's image to the conclusions derived.

Our analysis is far from being complete and but some conclusions can be made even at this point.

In many ways, political commercials are like miniature movies. As in the movies, great care is taken to make certain each detail of production – accurate selection of scenes to be shown, lightning, editing the texts, music – work together to convey a particular mood.

At the movies, we want to enter the world the filmmakers have created, to suspend our disbelief, be caught up in the story, and be sure of the "happy end". However, political ads need to be approached more cautiously. They are not fictional stories but expressions of political opinion. Just as music, editing and the extent of truthfulness help convey mood in movies, in ads they reinforce the impression the makers want you to have.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we would like to argue that in trying to reach their political goals, politicians often miss one important point: they can "oversalt the food" for their voters and the effect on their image can become too expensive, both literally and figuratively. They address real, topical issues, employ arsenals of creative ideas, use a wealth of knowledge, and …end up losing points on their image scale and risking their chances of being elected. The recently finished presidential campaign is a striking example of this. According to the estimates of experts, up to 80% of political ads are taken as extremely negative, falsifying facts and hardly contributing to creating positive candidate images. Candidates have their work cut out for them. As early as April 2012, 2 in 5 (38.3%) respondents to Burst Media "had had enough" of the 2012 presidential election process and "dreaded the coming months".

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The Concept BUSH in Australian and New Zealand Cultures

Evgeniia Zhenevskaia
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

BUSH is a key concept of Australian and New Zealand cultures. The aim of this research is to detect common and peculiar characteristics of the concept BUSH and to determine similarities and differences in the meaning of set expressions with the key lexeme “bush” in both cultures.

Key words: *concept, conceptual features, set expression, worldview*

Introduction

Concept research is a very timely issue nowadays and it is widely conducted in cognitive science, but still there is no common definition of a concept in linguistics.

According to John Locke (1689), a concept is a general idea, or something conceived in the mind. There are other definitions given by such outstanding Russian scholars as Y. S. Stepanov, V. N. Telia, N. D. Arutjunona, E. S. Kubrjakova and many others. For example, Yuriy S. Stepanov (1997) states that concept is a part of culture presented in the mental world of a person.

We share this point of view and think that CONCEPT is an idea which is formed in the nation's mind under certain non-linguistic cultural circumstances. So we think that the concept BUSH is a key concept of the cultures of Australian and New Zealand which form their national worldview. The aim of our research is to detect similarities and differences of this concept in the two cultures.

In this study, we have analyzed dictionary definitions and set expressions and analyzed the contextual usage and meaning of the key lexeme BUSH in Australian and New Zealand Englishes.

In our study we used the following dictionaries: Macquarie Dictionary: Australia's National Dictionary Online Dictionary (MAND) (2013), New Zealand Oxford Dictionary (NZOD) (2005), The Reed Dictionary of New Zealand Slang (NZSD) (McGill, 2003) and Māori Dictionary Online (MD) (2013). By analyzing the dictionary definitions we discovered some conceptual features of the concept BUSH.

Though it is very difficult to state with certainty similar characteristics of different national concepts, it is necessary to start from the features which are more or less common to Australian and to New Zealand cultures.

The conceptual characteristic "*Wood*" is found in both cultures. Moreover, it is evident that one of the meanings of "bush" is "a forest." The main difference is its natural state. In NZ culture "bush" is presented as a thick forest, "bush block" and the Australian "bush" is like a sparse wood of eucalypts, wattles, gum trees and various small shrubs. The reasons for these differences are obvious: geographical position and climate. Let us have a look at the following examples:

The Australian bush is one of the most beautiful and natural wonders of Australia. Bush described a **wooded area** halfway **between a bush and forest**, dry soils and low nitrogen, above all, no grass, **shrubs and bushes thick to thin**, under a eucalyptus canopy scarce. The best season to visit is April and October. (*Daily Telegraph*, 2011)	Experienced trampers can venture deeper into the **forest,** especially in the high plateau and ranges, but make sure you are well prepared. **New Zealand bush** is very **dense** in its natural state and we don't want you getting lost! (*NZ Herald*, 2010)

As you can see, the conceptual feature "Wood" is enhanced by the surrounding lexemes and expressions in the sentence: Australian bush (*wooded area, between a bush and forest, shrubs and bushes thick to thin*) and NZ bush (*forest, New Zealand bush, dense*). So bush means a forest in both cultures, only types of woods differ.

The next common conceptual feature is "*Self-taught and quick-witted*". It is necessary to acknowledge that this feature is proved by some set expressions with a key lexeme, found in Australian and New Zealand dictionaries: *bush carpentry, bush lawyer, bush nurse, bush justice, bush champagne, bush furniture, bush refrigerator, bush shower*.

Let us analyze one the above-mentioned expressions. According to the Australian and New Zealand dictionaries *bush carpenter is* an *untrained or rough-and ready carpenter, a rough amateur carpenter* (NZOD, MAND).

Let us analyze the example below. It is taken from a very famous book *The Darling River* written by famous Australian balladeer Henry Lawson. Here the author describes a boat which has been repaired several times by different untrained carpenters. All of them had their own ideas of how to do it.

The boat we were on was built and repaired above deck after the different ideas of many **bush carpenters**, of whom the last seemed by his work to have regarded the original plan with a contempt only equaled by his disgust at the work of the last	Судно, на котором мы плыли, строилось и перестраивалось по всей палубе согласно различным соображениям многих плотников-самоучек, из которых последний, казалось, судя по его работе, рассматривал первоначальный

carpenter but one. The wheel was boxed in, mostly with round sapling-sticks fastened to the frame with bunches of nails and spikes of all shapes and sizes, most of them bent. The general result was decidedly picturesque in its irregularity, but dangerous to the mental welfare of any passenger who was foolish enough to try to comprehend the design; for **it seemed as though every carpenter had taken the opportunity to work in a little abstract idea of his own**. (Lawson, 1905, p. 56)	план с такой же небрежностью, как и предпоследний плотник. Штурвал представлял собой конструкцию из круглых палок молодых деревьев, прикрепленных к раме множеством гвоздей разной формы и размера, большая часть которых была изогнута. Общий результат был, несомненно, живописен по своей неоднородности, но и опасен для психического здоровья любого пассажира, который имел глупость пытаться понять этот дизайн; т.к. как будто бы каждый плотник пользовался случаем применить свое собственное абстрактное мышление.

In this example the conceptual feature "*Self-taught and quick-witted*" is seen clearly. However, no language is static. It develops. In the following example we will see that one more meaning of the expression *bush carpenter* appears:

Australian	New Zealand
Urban Bush Carpenters focus on building a sustainable future in an old fashion way. Their aim is to encourage the way of bush carpentry. (*Daily Telegraph*, 2011)	Maropea is a historic hut. It is representative of the style of huts often built by the **bush carpenters** in the New Zealand Forest Service. Some huts had their own little peculiarities making them unique, such as Top Maropea. (*NZ Herald*, 2012)

Here is another meaning of the expression "Bush carpenter". Now it has acquired the meaning "*a rather professional carpenter who just builds something in the old-fashioned way.*" So, this is a new understanding of the expression which has developed over recent years, though this meaning has not been recorded in dictionaries yet.

Some set expressions helped us to detect one more common conceptual feature "*Feral Nature*". This feature is represented by the following set expressions recorded in dictionaries: *to go bush*, *bush block*, *bush regeneration*, *bush rock*, *bush paddock*.

These set expressions are also found in poetical and mass media discourse. We find the conceptual feature "*Feral Nature*" in the following examples:

Australian	New Zealand
The ones who came with nothing But the clothes upon their back Who faced the rugged wilderness In bush blocks up the track. (Glasby, 2011, p. 103)	It's also an off-road **bush-basher** that'll beat most terrain into submission - albeit one you wouldn't hose out afterwards. (*NZ Herald*, 2012)

The first example refers to poor settlers who roamed in the bush blocks. The meaning "*Feral Nature*" is represented by the set expression "bush blocks" which contains the key word. There is also the lexeme *wilderness* which maintains this idea.

The example in the right is taken from the *NZ Herald* newspaper. It shows the same idea of wilderness and harshness. The expression "*bush-bash"* means to go through the bush blocks. Here an off-road car is compared with a bush-basher (usually it is a woodman who cuts the forest) which can "*beat most terrain into submission"* or, rather, it can go through the woods. So it can be driven even in the wild forest. We should note that the above expression was used in an indirect, metaphorical sense.

So through the image of the bush is used in Australian and New Zealand society to explain other spheres of people's lives. The analysis of the concept BUSH enables us to explore specific characteristics of Australian and New Zealand mentality and worldview.

Now we turn to specific features of the concept BUSH which differ in Australian and New Zealand cultures. According to the *NZ Oxford Dictionary*, BUSH means *Indigenous Forest.* So in this definition we can detect the conceptual feature "*Native Forest*". This feature is really specific to New Zealand culture. It is not just any forest but an ***indigenous*** one. This is shown in the following context:

> What is "the bush"? In New Zealand, it is the **native forest**, which once covered most of the land. Dense and dark, it was alive with birds, insects and lizards, but sometimes impenetrable to humans. … Today, **we value** the surviving stands for their beauty, and as a habitat for unique species. [15]

In this example the conceptual feature "*Native Forest*" can be seen clearly. Here the author speaks about it with great reverence, paying attention to its native beauty.

As for Australian English there is also a peculiar conceptual feature "*Outback, remote areas"*. This feature is revealed in the expressions: *Bush Brotherhood, Bush Church Aid Society, Bush Nursing Association, bush pilot* and *bush week.* It is clear in the following example:

> I live in the **bush** where the air is much cleaner
> And the hassles of traffic are **far, far away**
> I live in the bush where the trees are much greener
> But living out here, there's a price I must pay
> **I can't get a signal, no mobile reception**
> **I can't get the mail unless I'm in town**
> **I can't see a doctor, I can't see a dentist**
> They've all moved **away** and it's getting me down. (Glasby, 2011, p. 145)

As we can see, the above-mentioned characteristic is expressed by the lack of modern innovations (*mobile reception, mail*), lack of services (*to get a signal, to see a doctor, to see a dentist*) and remoteness from civilization (*far, far away)*. We should to admit that this feature still remains in the modern world.

Another Australian conceptual feature "***Rural***" is represented by the word combinations *bush burn, bush faller, bush farm, bush saw, bush-sickness, bush work* and *bush ape*. The Australian "bush" is very often used in the sense of "countryside" in opposition to the city. In this example there is such an opposition:

> What is the thing we dream of
> When we dream about the **bush**?
> Do we dream of open spaces
> Far removed from **city** push? (Glasby, 2011, p. 58)

The next conceptual feature "***Folklore***" is represented in the set expressions: *brushmen of the bush, bush ballad, bush band, bush beat, bush dance, bush poetry*, which are recorded in dictionaries. Here is an example:

> So here's to the poets, the **Bush Balladeers**
> Who gave us these treasures to hold
> Who told us the tales of the first pioneers
> With words much more precious than gold. (Glasby, 2011, p. 88)

It is well-known that folklore is represented by ballads, songs, paintings, dances etc. The history of Australia foundation, the period colonization and many other historical facts are expressed in folklore. In this case, the concept BUSH is a key word.

Conclusion

To sum up we can say that the concept BUSH is a very complicated mental formation. It has several conceptual features. This concept has some common features in Australian and in New Zealand cultures, but has some specific characteristics in each of those cultures, as well. Also, we should note that in Australian and New Zealand Englishes a new meaning has developed for a set expression with this key lexeme. Of course, this process can lead to the formation of new conceptual features. Moreover, both Australian and New Zealand society use the image of the bush to explain other spheres of people's lives and uses it in a metaphorical sense.

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TECHNOLOGY-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Beginner Level EFL DDL Using a Parallel Web-Based Concordancer

Kiyomi Chujo, Kathryn Oghigian & Chikako Nishigaki
Nihon University, Japan
Waseda University, Japan
Chiba University, Japan

Abstract

The use of corpus-based DDL (data-driven learning) in second language classrooms is expanding, but how effective is this approach for beginner level EFL? Using a new, free, web-based Japanese-English parallel concordance tool, a Japanese-English newspaper corpus and a guided, pair-based, student-centered four-step process, this paper reports beginner level EFL student gains and collects student feedback from a semester course in grammar basics. This tool, WebParaNews, is available to the public.

Keywords: *DDL, data-driven learning, corpus-based, concordancer, WebParaNews*

Introduction

Corpus linguistics has been used for the last few decades as a tool for lexicographers, translators and researchers but now corpus-based DDL, or data-driven learning, is being used more and more in the L2 classroom, usually at the intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. Few studies have used DDL at the beginner level, perhaps, as Boulton (2008) suggests, because "current research encourages the belief that DDL is only useful for advanced learners in a computer laboratory" (p. 38). There are various issues that must be addressed when using DDL with lower level proficiency students, and it has been found that using a parallel rather than monolingual corpus, having students work collaboratively in pairs, and providing carefully constructed guidelines for searches creates an effective environment (Chujo & Oghigian, 2012).

At Nihon University in Japan, we have been using DDL to teach English to beginner level engineering students for six years. In 2005, the first four-week pilot study was aimed at teaching vocabulary to beginner level students using a CALL program. The specific vocabulary taught was identified in a previous study as appearing in TOEIC tests but not taught in Japanese junior or senior high schools (Chujo, 2003). Students responded enthusiastically, so in the next year the program was expanded to one semester and included grammar (primarily noun phrases (NPs) and verb phrases (VPs)), which were identified in another study as appearing in TOEIC but not in Japanese school textbooks (Uchibori, Chujo & Hasegawa, 2006). This vocabulary and grammar is relevant because Japanese students and employees typically take TOEIC tests to measure English proficiency. By beginner level, we mean students who score 70 out of 100 on the TOEIC Bridge Test. This is similar to the TOEIC 300-350 range. The goals were vocabulary and grammar for communication; and the students used a parallel corpus tool, a bilingual newspaper corpus and carefully constructed worksheets.

In each year since 2006, the program has been run for two semesters. Minor pedagogical modifications have been made each year, and we continued to receive positive feedback from students, who made gains each year in identifying and producing NPs and VPs. In 2010, we introduced paper-based DDL to compare gains with computer-based DDL, and in 2011, we measured gains using a combination of paper and computer-based DDL. In this study, we have introduced a web-based concordancing tool and are investigating how this tool may impact learning.

Previously, the only available parallel corpus tool was ParaConc (Barlow, 2004), which is CD-ROM-based commercial software. A free, readily available and easy to use tool for students (and teachers) to use both in and out of the classroom called WebParaNews was developed (Anthony, Chujo & Oghigian, 2011). It was built on the AntWebConc-Bilingual server framework and runs on any standard browser, such as Internet Explorer, Firefox, or Opera. It works for Windows, Mac and Linux and has been designed to be used with any two languages. The corpus used was a parallel Japanese-English newspaper corpus (Utiyama & Isahara, 2003).

2012: WebParaNews Case Study

The 2012 case study was a continuation of the previous studies, but the variables were the new concordancing tool and web-based tasks using this tool. The participants were the same type of participant, but a new group of 15 freshmen engineering students. They were beginner level, with an average TOEIC score of 350. All other variables remained the same, that is: the same goal, the same syllabus, the same environment, and the same procedure. We measured student gains with pre- and post- tests and asked for student feedback.

The goal of the study was to improve basic communication, as measured through student gains in identifying and producing NPs. The syllabus is shown in Table 1. Students began with lexical-based concepts, such as identifying word classes and derivations, then learned various NPs. Students used the vocabulary taught in each previous vocabulary lesson as the DDL search terms in the subsequent lesson, thus, vocabulary was spiraled through the curriculum. Grammatical structures were grouped by category (type of NP), and the vocabulary was grouped by topic, such as business, personnel, meetings, marketing, and transportation.

Table 1. DDL Syllabus

Week	Spring Semester	
	Grammar	Vocabulary
1	Pretest	Vocabulary [1]: Business
2	Word Classes	Vocabulary [2]: Personnel 1
3	Derivations and Inflections	Vocabulary [3]: Personnel 2
4	Non-Count Nouns	Vocabulary [4]: Meetings
5	NP: Art + Adj + N	Vocabulary [5]: Marketing
. . .	. . .	. . .
9	NP followed by *to*-infinitives	Vocabulary [9]: Daily Life
10	NP followed by *who*, *which*, *that*	Vocabulary [10]: Transportation
11	Various NPs	
12	Post-test	

Each 90 minute class was held in a CALL classroom. Students began by studying 20 new words with a CALL program, lasting for 30 minutes. This CALL program was developed in 2007 based on the TOEIC vocabulary study mentioned earlier (Chujo, 2003). The DDL portion of the lesson was for 60 minutes and was divided into four steps. In Step 1, students explored six of the 20 words in a specific grammar context with DDL using WebParaNews. A sample of a guided exercise is shown in Figure 1. Students, working in pairs, typed in *lawyer *ing* with sampled hits set at "5." They observed in the search results that the noun *lawyer* was followed by present participles such as *acting*, *representing*, and *working*. Students wrote down the NPs on a worksheet (see Figure 2).The students were given five additional similar tasks, completing a total of six tasks per class. In Step 2, the teacher explained the grammar so students could confirm or correct the hypotheses they made through the inductive DDL tasks. In Step 3, they did practice and consolidation as homework. Finally, in Step 4, they did production practice. Because class time is limited and there is only so much homework we can assign, we have been looking at ways to increase production during class time. One of the reasons we developed the web-based concordancer was to be able to shift some of the concordancing work to homework so more production could be done in class.

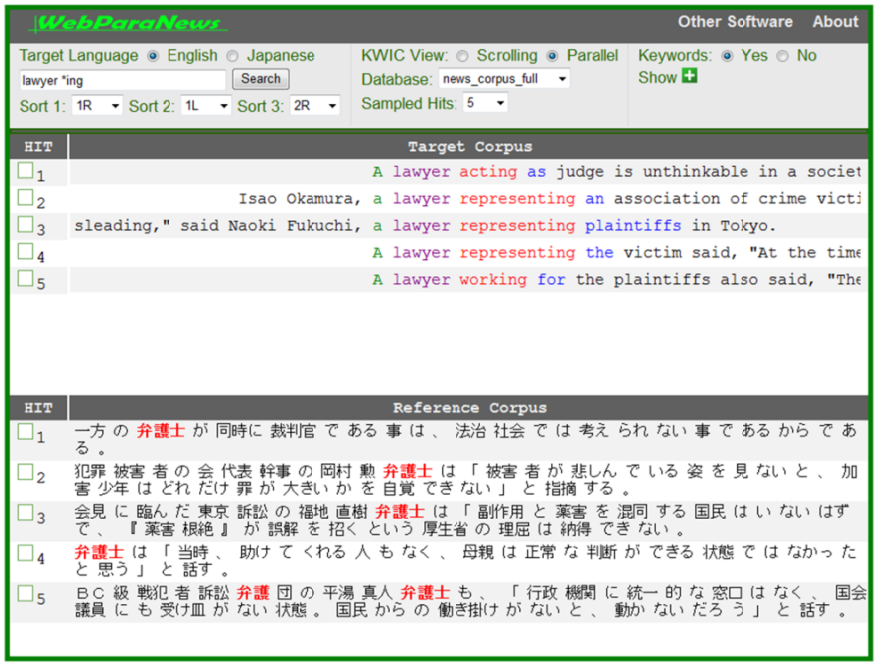

Figure 1. A screen shot for *lawyer *ing* using WebParaNews

Unit 6 Noun Phrase followed by -ing

1) lawyer *ing を Search (Hits 5)しよう。lawyer の前後の説明部分を書き出しましょう。

	限定詞	名詞	後置修飾語句（説明部分）
1	a	lawyer	acting as judge
2		lawyer	
3		lawyer	
4		lawyer	
5		lawyer	

Figure 2. Sample of a Guided Student Worksheet for Identifying NPs

A pre- and post-test were given on the first and last day of the semester, respectively. The same test was used for the pre- and post-test but the order of the questions was different and the students were not given the answers at any time. The test had 45 questions and took about 30 minutes to complete. There were three types of NP questions: (1) identifying an NP using higher level (TOEIC) vocabulary; (2) understanding a complex (TOEIC-type) NP; and (3) producing a simple NP using easy (high frequency) vocabulary. Each question consisted of three NP patterns: (1) article + adjective + noun, (2) noun + prepositional phrase, and (3) noun + to/ -ing/ -ed.

We looked at the score difference between the three types of NP questions and applied the Wilcoxon test. The students made gains in identifying NPs and TOEIC-type NPs with a difference significant at the 1% level, but in producing NPs at the 5% level. The reason might be that we added concordance search tasks in the follow-up homework and decreased tasks for producing NP type tasks. It may be that the concordance *search* tasks at home are effective for identifying TOEIC-type noun phrases, although the decreased number of *writing* tasks for homework may have undermined student gains in production.

Table 2. Student Scores (%) for the Three Types of NP Questions

	Pre-test Mean (SD)	**Post-test Mean (SD)**	**Gain**
NP1: Identifying NP	46.2 (20.2)	81.8 (13.2)	35.6**

NP2: TOEIC-type NP	45.3 (9.8)	61.3 (8.8)	16.0**
NP3: Producing NP	57.6 (21.9)	66.7 (20.9)	9.1*

** p < .01 *p < .05

Table 3 shows the student feedback regarding WebParaNews. We can see that students rated the tool quite highly for accessibility, intuitive use and screen design. Speed got a reasonable mean and very few students experienced problems. These results are quite different from the feedback we received from previous students using Paraconc. Paraconc required new settings each time it was used, it sometimes garbled Japanese characters, and because it was designed for researchers, not language learners, it was difficult for students initially to learn to use. Also, for copyright reasons it could only be used in tightly controlled classrooms. Because WebParaNews is free and online, it is accessible anywhere, so we were able to assign DDL-based homework.

Table 3. Student Responses to WebParaNews

Feature: 1 (strongly disagree) - 5 (strongly agree)	**Mean**	**SD**
Easy to access	4.5	0.9
Intuitive	4.0	0.8
Screen design	4.0	0.9
Speed	3.6	1.1
Experience problems	1.9	1.1

Conclusion

DDL can be effective at the beginner level in teaching basic grammar such as noun phrases when used in conjunction with a parallel corpus, collaborative pair work and guided worksheets. Students in this study showed significant gains using WebParaNews and responded positively to this new parallel web-based concordance and web-based tasks. We have made the parallel website available to the public with a bilingual newspaper corpus from http://www.antlab.waseda.ac.jp/webparanews/.

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Going Paperless: Students' Reactions to Using Google Docs in a University Writing Course

Scott Aubrey
Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan

Abstract

This paper reports on how 44 Japanese student participants reacted to using Google Docs as the sole writing program during a semester-long EFL course at a university in Japan. The synchronous and asynchronous features of Google Docs were used in collaborative writing activities and teacher and peer review processes. Responses to a 15-item questionnaire illustrate that overall students reacted very positively towards the use of Google Docs. Based on the results of this action research, it is argued that technology can enhance timely, continuous feedback that students receive, improve students' writing productivity, and revitalize the writing review process.

Keywords: *Google Docs, writing, EFL, technology*

Introduction

Since the onset of computers and the Internet, writing has shifted from a solitary pen-and-paper activity to a more collaborative, interactive mode of communication. Computer-mediated communication such as email-exchanges, web-page authoring, and synchronous chat programs are beginning to change the nature of how writing is taught and learned (Brodahl, Hadjerrouit, & Hansen, 2011). Recent literature shows us that technology has affected almost every facet of writing from feedback and the review process to the productivity of students' output. Liu and Sadler (2003) investigated the effectiveness of technology in the writing revision process of two groups of students and found that the technology-enhanced peer review group made significantly more revisions than the traditional paper-based group. Firth and Mersureur (2010) report on how EFL departments at Japanese universities are using computer-mediated-learning to re-think homework submissions, submission of grades, self-assessments, peer-assessments and collaborative writing. Relevant to this paper is the popularity of Google Docs, an online synchronous writing program, which has been shown to promote awareness of the revision process (Kim, 2010), enhance learning through collaborative writing (Speath & Black, 2012) and identify the type of corrections students make during writing tasks (Kessler, Bikowski, & Boggs, 2012). It is the opinion of this author that web-based collaborative learning programs, such as Google Docs, can enhance the teaching and learning experience in writing classrooms.

Problems Identified with Teaching Writing

The research reported in this paper was carried out at a multicultural, bilingual university in Japan. Two intact intermediate level English classes were chosen to participate in this study. Students at the intermediate level generally have a TOEFL paper-based score between 420 and 460. The curriculum of this intermediate EFL course is influenced by the fact that many Japanese EFL students continue at university to write academic essays in English in their major courses. Therefore, one main objective for the intermediate level English course is to teach students how to express their opinions in writing in a well-structured, coherent way.

In previous courses, a mixture of assessed and non-assessed writing was done in class and for homework. Non-assessed writing included pen-and-paper free writing and grammar based writing activities. Assessed writing involved both a peer and teacher review process whereby students received feedback and edited their papers at several stages before submitting a final draft of their paragraph or essay to the teacher for marking. Generally, assessed writing was completed individually, using Microsoft Word, and hardcopies were printed and exchanged between students and the teacher in the review processes. Three major problems were observed with this approach:

1. *Motivation*. Students did not put in sufficient effort to complete writing tasks. Many papers were hastily written just before submission deadlines, free-writing activities yielded little text, and students rarely made significant changes to their writing after receiving feedback.
2. *Collaboration*. In contrast to speaking, listening and reading activities, writing was practiced individually. Students never collectively produced writing as a group, and as a result, there were few opportunities to learn from each other.

3. *Revision process*. The peer review and teacher review process was not facilitating the kind of feedback required for students to improve their writing. The quality of feedback during the peer review varied and it was difficult for the teacher to monitor.

Google Docs

To solve these problems, the teacher/researcher decided to implement Google Docs as the sole writing tool in the classroom. Google Docs is a free web-based collaborative writing program. One of its unique features is that it allows for synchronous editing of documents by more than one user; that is, a document can be shared with users who can then simultaneously edit the content. Therefore, it allows for the teacher to monitor writing and give real-time feedback to students. In addition, there is a chat function that can be used by the teacher to explain comments and make the revision process more interactive. Documents are saved automatically so there is no need to save to an external source such as a USB. This study aims to investigate the following research questions:

What are students' attitudes towards using Google Docs in the writing classroom?

Methodology

Forty-four students from two intact intermediate-level classes and one teacher participated in the study during one semester. During the first two weeks of the semester, several teacher-led activities were done with the purpose of exploring the functions of Google Docs with students. Over the next 12 weeks, Google Docs was used exclusively for in-class and out-of-class writing assignments. Specifically, activities using Google Docs can be categorized into three types: collaborative writing, peer review, and teacher review.

During the last week of the course, students were given a 15-item online questionnaire, which was designed to measure their attitudes towards using Google Docs during the course. The first 11 items were in statement form and students were to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with each statement on a 5-point Likert scale. The remaining four items were open-ended. All questionnaire items are given below:

1. Because we used *Google Docs* in our class, the writing classes were more interesting.
2. I would rather use *Google Docs* for writing than MS Word.
3. Using *Google Docs* was convenient and saved me time.
4. I think the activities we did using *Google Docs* were interesting.
5. I think more professors should use *Google Docs* in their courses.
6. I plan to continue to use *Google Docs* after this semester.
7. I have become a better writer because we used *Google Docs* in the classroom.
8. I would recommend *Google Docs* to my friends who are students.
9. I like how my teacher can comment on my *Google Doc* document at anytime.
10. I like the feature of sharing a *Google Docs* document with my teacher.
11. I liked how other students could comment on my *Google Docs* document.
12. What was your favorite *Google Docs* activity?
13. Was there anything about *Google Docs* that you <u>didn't like</u>? If yes, please describe what you <u>didn't like</u> about *Google Docs*.
14. Before this semester, had you ever used *Google Docs*? If yes, how did you use *Google Docs*?
15. If you have any other opinions about *Google Docs*, please write them below.

Discussion and Results

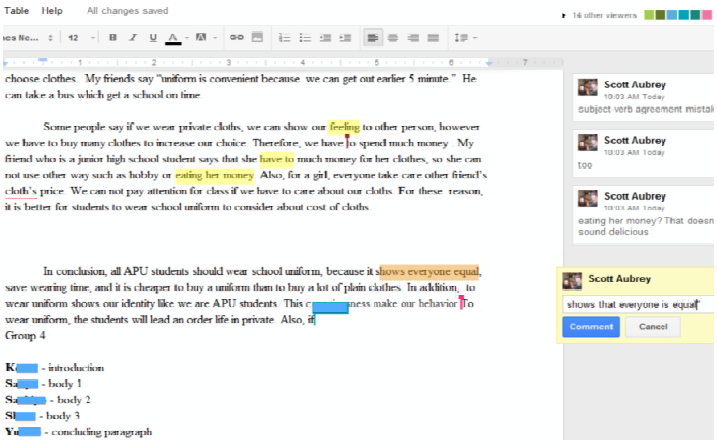
Forty-three out of 44 students participating in the study reported never having used Google Docs before. Therefore, results are mostly from first-time users of the program.

Collaborative writing

The main type of in-class collaborative writing task involved all students editing the same document to collectively produce a persuasive essay. The teacher split the class into groups of five. Each student in a group was assigned a writing role: introduction, body paragraph 1, body paragraph 2, counterargument, or conclusion. The teacher then shared a Google Docs document with all students and assigned each group an essay topic. Next, the teacher explained that the goal of the task was for each group to complete a 600-700-word essay in 25 minutes. As students were writing, the teacher would monitor each group's progress by

scrolling up and down the document giving real-time feedback as students make linguistic and structural errors. During the last five minutes of the task, when groups had almost finished their essays, the teacher instructed each student to look at the comments made by the teacher and revise their writing. Figure 1 shows a screen capture of what the teacher saw during this activity.

Figure 1. Collaborative Writing Task

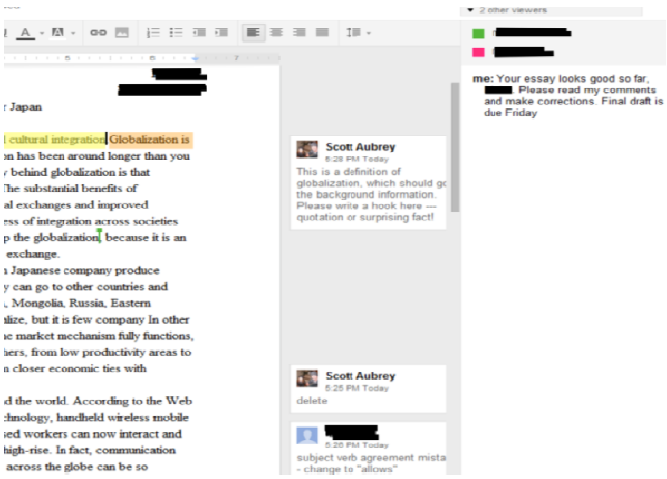


The open-ended comment portion of the questionnaire indicated that students found this kind of collaborative writing activity motivating and a useful learning activity. One student commented that "watching other students write gave me useful ideas"; another student wrote "I could learn from the mistakes that other students made and the teacher corrected", which is evidence that students benefited from co-construction of the essay. The usefulness of real-time feedback during this task was repeatedly referenced: "I could get comments immediately from the teacher so it was good for my learning". Comments indicated that real-time feedback made possible by the synchronous editing feature of Google Docs pushed students to attend immediately to their mistakes.

Peer review

After students had written the first draft of their essay, Google Docs was used to facilitate an in-class peer review process. Each student shared their essay with the teacher and another student in the class. The peer-reviewer was given 25 minutes to read the essay and comment on both the structure and language. During the last 10 minutes of the review, the author was instructed to look at comments made and revise their errors by looking at highlighted words or sentences and their respective comments. During this time, the teacher monitored the quality of the peer-reviewers' comments and gave advice to the peer-reviewer using the chat function. If needed, the teacher commented on the essay. Figure 2 shows a screen capture during the peer review process.

Figure 2. Peer Review Task

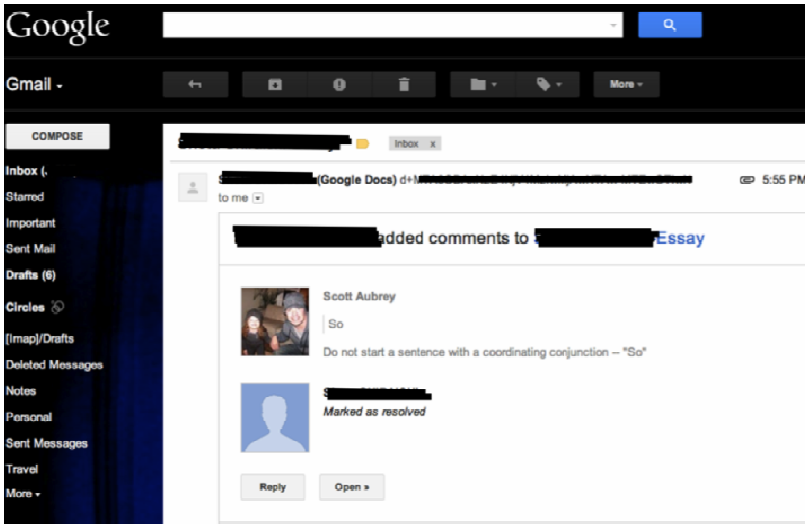


Questionnaire responses indicate that this was a valuable learning activity not only for the author, who was given feedback, but also for the peer-reviewer. One student commented, "The teacher told me how to give good feedback". This comment and other similar comments illustrates that through teacher involvement in the peer review process, students are able to learn how to give quality feedback. However, there were also some comments that shed light on the minimal value authors gave to student-generated feedback: "I like the feedback from classmates but they are not experts. I can only trust my teacher will give good comments." As can be seen in the teacher review process, teacher comments tend to be much more valued by student authors.

Teacher review

Students overwhelmingly indicated that participation in the teacher review process, whether synchronous or asynchronous, was most motivating and beneficial to their writing. The teacher review was the final phase of the essay-writing process before students submitted their final draft for grading. The teacher told student they had a week to revise their essay based on teacher feedback. During this time, students shared their essay with the teacher. The teacher then provided asynchronous feedback to students after class by highlighting and commenting on linguistic and structural errors. Once the teacher makes a comment in Google Docs, an email is immediately send to the student's email account, which requests the student to make a revision. After the student attends to the error, the student clicks on the "resolve" button in the comment box. This removes the highlight from the text and sends an email, which notifies the teacher that the error has been revised. This process continues for a week until the student submits the final draft of the essay. Figure 3 shows a screen capture of the email a teacher receives once a student has resolved an error.

Figure 3.Email notification of resolved error



Students reported that the teacher review process was convenient, encouraged them to attend to their errors, and caused them to revise their first draft significantly. Several comments alluded to the efficiency and timeliness of the feedback provided by the teacher through Google Docs: "The teacher could check my essay without printing paper and I could see his comments right away". "Saved me time", "Quickly", "Immediately", and "Right away" were phases contained throughout students' questionnaire responses. One student eloquently hinted at the teacher review process being changed from a discrete, one-time opportunity for the teacher to comment to a more continuous dialogue between teacher and student: "The teacher didn't just check my essay once. He commented then I revised. Then he did it again. It was like I was having a conversation."

Summary of Results

Overall, students reacted very positively to the use of Google Docs in the classroom. Table 1 shows a breakdown of the responses from the 11 statement-like items on the questionnaire.

Table 1. Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards Google Docs (11 items)

Untrue	Somewhat Untrue	Neutral	Somewhat True	True
1%	2%	12%	28%	57%

Despite the very positive attitudes overall to the use of Google Docs, 18% of students indicated that there were some features of Google Docs that they did not like. Negative comments were mainly focused on the learning curve associated with a new technology, such as "in the beginning, I didn't know how to use it" and "I was confused at the start but it was good in the end". One student commented that, "I don't have Internet at home, so I couldn't do my homework", indicating that there are serious drawbacks if students do not have easy access to the Internet.

Conclusion

This study offers some insights into how Google Docs can be used successfully in the writing classroom to solve motivation, collaboration and revision problems. Participants have shown that they have overwhelmingly positive attitudes towards using Google Docs in a variety of activities, especially when it comes to teacher feedback. Like using any technology in the classroom, how students react will greatly depend on how teachers use the technology. In the case of this research, the teacher spent a great deal of time outside of class commenting on students' writing and generating a dialogue via Google Docs during the teacher review stage; this invariably affected how students oriented themselves to this writing program. When using a new technology like Google Docs, it is essential that teachers spend a significant amount of time adequately training students on how to use the different features before implementing the types of activities used here. Furthermore, rather than expecting Google Docs alone magically to solve all the problems involved in the teaching of writing, teachers need to examine how the synchronous and asynchronous editing features of Google Docs can complement the goals and objectives of their writing courses and design writing tasks accordingly.

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A Campus-Wide Online Community for English Exchange: Methods and Results

Magda Kitano
Bunkyo University, Japan

Abstract

This paper describes an original campus-wide online community where college students share opinions about popular culture in English. This forum provides a sheltered and supportive environment for students to experiment with communicating in English, and acts as a platform for interlanguage development. Methods utilized in implementing the forum and attaining student participation are presented, and the linguistic and communicative benefits are discussed.

Keywords: *CALL, Technology and Multimedia, Teaching Methods, extensive writing*

Introduction

Second language acquisition theory views interaction as important in developing an interlanguage and thus gaining communicative competence. Long's interaction hypothesis (1983) and Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis (1985) particularly emphasize the importance of using the language with others in communication. The sociocultural perspective goes a step further, considering speaking and thinking to be "tightly interwoven" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 47). However, it is always a challenge to find ways of encouraging students in an EFL situation to communicate in a second language with their peers, even as a classroom exercise. And as classroom time is limited, it would be optimal to find a communicative activity that students can continue together outside of the classroom. This paper introduces an online forum community where students exchange opinions about popular culture with their peers. In mimicking customer review forums found on major online sites, students are able to utilize their English skills in writing, which so often are neglected in communicative activities.

Situation

In a school of international studies, I am lucky enough to be able to work with incoming freshmen who are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to improve their English abilities. The students are interested in professions that deal with the international tourism industry, global issues, and in international NPOs. Some are in an English teacher training program. Not only do these students see that English will be necessary to them in the future, but on the whole students who are interested in entering a program with such an international emphasis tend to have a general interest in the English language itself. Yet although this is a wonderful place to start out, many of the students in my program have not been given a basic foundation of English upon which to build. After at least six years of English instruction, many still have problems in constructing simple sentences and in understanding even slow, clearly spoken English.

To bring English from the grammar lessons that students had been experiencing to a language that is actually spoken, we try to inundate students with opportunities to speak English on campus and to experience it abroad. We start out with as many as four English classes in the first year. One of those provides structured conversational practice, and the students spend most of the classroom time exchanging information about each other. Two of the classes are computer assisted, where students are given access to interactive English lessons that they can utilize in their own time as much as they wish. In addition to courses, there is an English-only lounge called the Language Garden, where students can chat with their peers and English instructors, as well as read from a collection of books and graded readers and watch English language movies. Study abroad programs are also very popular, and a third of the second year students participates in three-month exchange programs.

While this is a good start, I was looking to add more opportunities for using English on campus. Not all students take advantage of the opportunities now available, and it is often difficult to find chances to use English when not in an English speaking environment. I was also interested in finding opportunities for writing, which aside from a few academic papers and elective courses seemed to be lacking for many of the students.

The Forum

For this new program I chose to create a forum where students would exchange opinions on popular culture such as movies and music. I wanted it to resemble vendor and information sites which welcome

customer reviews. The popularity of such sites, as can be witnessed by the number of customer reviews that can be found there, indicated to me that this is a genuinely enjoyable activity. If students found an interest in exchanging opinions on a forum in English, they would have more opportunities to write in English for the purpose of communication.

There are many options available for creating online forums for closed groups, and of those I chose to create a site using Drupal. Drupal is a database-powered content management system that displays its contents through HTML templates (Townsend, 2010). As freeware, it can be downloaded from the Drupal Association (http://drupal.org/) and customized to fit your needs. There are several books available that take beginners through the process step-by-step (Beighley & Bellamy, 2011; Townsend, 2010; Tomlinson, 2010). I chose this approach because not only did I feel that I would be able to set it up without professional programming skills, but also because it offered administration of user accounts and security. It would also result in a forum free of advertisements or other distractions that can be found on public free sites.

In the resulting site, which I named Media Reviews (www.magdakitano.com/bunkyo/), a student decides a title he or she wishes to discuss on the forum. The title can be in the categories of movies, books, comics, *anime*, music, and recently, restaurants. The student first checks to see if another student has already brought the title up for discussion. If so, the student reads through the description of the title and other students' comments, then adds his or her own comment on the title. If the title has not yet been created, the student starts a new thread by inputting the title and a short description. This description is something that would normally be provided by the vendor or site. But on Media Reviews, the first student to start a thread writes a brief summary or description. Once the summary is written, the student saves the thread, then adds his or her comment separately, just as others do. The result is a page with a short description of the title followed by the reviews and opinions of students who have an interest in it.

Results

I opened this forum for general student usage at the beginning of the 2012 school year, and introduced it to my classes. I required participation to some degree, in the form of assignments, in three of my classes. The amount of required participation depended on the content of the course. In all three cases, I followed the pattern of requiring a certain number of submissions to the site, then allowing students to continue participating if they wished.

I was happy to see students utilizing the forum more than I had expected. After a sporadic start, once they became accustomed to how it worked, I saw participation increase throughout the semester. Not only would they add new threads of their own, but I noticed them browsing through the submissions of others in free time before class, sometimes adding comments of their own. Towards the end of the semester several students approached me and asked for a new category. Although restaurants are not a type of media, they wished to exchange opinions about local restaurants in a similar manner. I saw immediate participation in that category after adding it to the forum.

One trend that I noticed concerned the comments students added to the media titles. I had envisioned reviews of the titles, but the comment function evolved into discussions between the students. For example, concerning the movie *In Her Shoes*, one student comments that she really likes Cameron Diaz, but had not known about this movie and would like to see it. In this way, students had started to discuss the titles amongst themselves rather than stick to a purely "review" format.

At the end of the first semester I conducted an informal questionnaire with classes for which I had required participation. Of 31 respondents, 9 (29%) replied that they participated more than was required by the class, 12 (38%) participated only as much as was required, and 10 (32%) did not participate as much as required. Concerning ease of use, 9 (29%) responded that they had no problems at all in using the forum, 16 (52%) found it to be "fine", 4 (13%) said it was a little difficult to use, and 2 (6%) very difficult to use. Concerning enjoyment, 4 (13%) answered "very enjoyable," 21 (68%) found it enjoyable, 6 (19%) chose "can't say," 1 (3%) chose "a lot of trouble," and no students chose "unpleasant." As to the degree to which students found this forum to increase their English skills, 4 (13%) found it to be very useful, 21 (68%) useful, 6 (19%) couldn't say, and none chose "not useful" or "detrimental." Although it was just an informal questionnaire, I found much more enthusiasm for the forum than I had expected, especially since on the whole many students tend not to complete even assignments that are central to their grades.

Discussion

Any activity or resource will not attain its goals if it is not actually utilized by the students. In this light, it is important to find an activity that students find enjoyable. The recent popularity of sites where visitors can submit their own opinions on products, news articles, and other subjects shows that this is an activity that can be enjoyable for people. With Media Reviews, I created a sheltered environment where students can exchange opinions in a similar way, yet free in the knowledge that other users are also students in the same school and also writing in their second language.

The most important aspect of SLA being addressed is that students are provided with chances to develop their interlanguage. Away from the classroom, students build on English they have already learned in order to communicate with peers about their interests. While spoken English is often concentrated on for communication, writing is often left for academic assignments. With Media Reviews, students are given a chance to use the written word to communicate.

Resembling real-life sites, Media Reviews can also lead to continued English usage in the future. Sharing opinions with people around the world is now common through sites that welcome reviews and opinions. Developing an interest in and familiarity with this kind of site could lead to participation in such sites even after graduation, resulting in continued growth in the language. In students' future careers, in-house communications may also take similar forms, such as at companies using Lotus software products. So, this type of written participation in opinion exchange may be important experience for students' future English usage.

Conclusion

Trends on the Internet change at a fast pace, but they can be an indicator of what people genuinely enjoy doing. If these activities can be imitated and scaled down to the size of a university community, they can become enjoyable English language activities to be shared with peers. The more enjoyable an activity is, the more students will participate. And in participating, they are using and developing both their English abilities and their confidence.

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Technology-enhanced Interaction in Language Learning

Dina Maksimova
Private teacher, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The present paper stresses the significance of real person-to-person communication for effective language learning. Taking into consideration the fact that the generation of digital natives needs a specialized learning environment, we dwell upon the general concept of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL) and give a concise classification of Internet resources that can be used either within and outside the English language classroom to promote interaction between

learners. The aim of this research is to trace the principles and fundamentals for systematic application of technology in the process of language learning.

Key words: *CALL, TELL, digital natives, interaction, IT*

Introduction

The current development of technology has created an absolutely new type of society. As a result of technological changes our education faces a new challenge. The challenge to catch up with the rapid pace of modern society is seen especially vividly in the area of the second language learning. Knowledge of a second language has become a basic competence the acquisition of which is absolutely essential for personal and professional development.

Arguing that the main function of a language is interaction, we stress the necessity of making this the subject of language teaching and learning.

Occupying the cutting edge of technology Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL) proves to be both effective and efficient in encouraging and motivating students. The application of technology inside the English language classroom, and in the framework of the modern concept of "education everywhere," enhances natural language acquisition and promotes interaction. Viewed as a system of techniques, technology can become a core component of modern education making language learning a lifelong process and creating learning addiction as an indispensable trait of the character of a conscious learner.

The modern situation in the world of technology gives the English teacher and the learner of English a number of chances and opportunities in the sphere of applying IT for educational purposes. The topicality of the current research project can be shown from the point of view of IT cognitive potential. It is a notorious fact that computers (as a type of IT) create addiction. Since the learning-addiction is more and more frequently seen as a goal of the educational process, we may hope that the application of IT can be a good means for creating learning-addiction.

Since the aim of this research project is to trace the principles for the strategic application of IT for the purposes of the English language teaching and learning, we have a number of practical tasks and theoretical issues to cover. Among them are the following:

1) a review of main terms and a brief insight into the history of the question;
2) reflections on personal and professional experience of applying IT for educational purposes in view of the classification principles of the basic types of modern Internet resources that can be used for educational purposes.

Step by step review of the above-mentioned issues shows the necessity of carrying out more detailed analysis of IT and Internet resources in terms of and by means of Internet technology designed for real human communication. We have also come to the preliminary conclusion that the world of technology can be best investigated by means of technology and can be fully represented in the world of technology (http://teell.wordpress.com/). Here we present the fundamentals of this research and its main principles.

Basic terms and the history of the question

It is well known that basic terminology can give a very clear idea of the main tendencies in the development of this branch of knowledge. The evolution of the application of technology for educational purposes can be traced through the abbreviations that represent the approaches used for these practices: CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction), CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and TELL (Technology-enhanced Language Learning.).

The first use of computers for educational purposes dates back to the 1960s and 70s (the PLATO project, the TICCIT project). These projects tended to be large-scale, implying the work of larger-scale teams. During the same period of time the term "Computer Assisted Language Instruction" was gradually replaced by the term "Computer Assisted Language learning". It can be easily understood that this "rebranding" took place due to the shift from a computer-centered to a learner-centered approach.

Davies (2010) states: "CALL's origins can be traced back to early experiments in the 1960s. Up until the late 1970s, CALL projects were confined mainly to universities, where computer programs were developed on mainframe computers" (p. 261).

According to Levy (1997), "Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) may be defined as the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (p. 1).

It should be pointed out that a similar shift of accent can be traced in IT as well. Initially, the main purpose of computers was performing calculations; later, the development of technology brought about a

change towards the use of computers for data storage and processing (which can be compared with learner-centered knowledge-based instruction). The latest stage in the development of computer science we are facing now is large scale development in the sphere of information and its distribution. Nowadays computers, as well as a wide range of IT gadgets, are used to promote communication and other types of interaction. Thus we can see "Technology-enhanced Language Learning" as a quite logical stage in the development of IT applications for educational purposes. It is evident here that the accent has shifted from computer itself towards it function in real communication. Thus the use of computers for educational purposes becomes a reflection of everyday life in the sphere of professional activity.

IT for educational purposes

Having used IT for educational purposes, I came to the conclusion that it cannot be effective unless both the teacher and the student have a clear purpose in their minds. Before setting a goal for any activity it is important to remember that since everyone is different in character and nature people's educational goals cannot be the same. Nearly everyone can be divided into two large categories: those who want to achieve success and those who are eager to avoid problems. If we, as teachers, can divide all our students into these two categories (which can become subject to further sub-categorization depending on the aim of the researcher), we can easily see that technology can be effectively used for both large groups of students.

It should also be pointed out here that the application of technology can only become meaningful and effective if the teacher sees it as a powerful aid to making learning more enjoyable and effective for his/her students.

My own experience of applying IT in the English language classroom shows that almost any type of activity involving technology can be used to promote real person-to-person interaction.

I have roughly divided my experience of using IT into three main categories all of which can be effectively used to promote interaction.

The use of informational resources and reference materials is perhaps the category which is used by all teachers. Here I include the use of audio, and video materials, as well as various types of graphic materials that can be used both in their paper or electronic versions. It is impossible to imagine the life of a modern teacher or student without these materials. But it is really important not only to use the materials but also to promote interaction based on their application, as interaction through language is the final and ultimate aim of any process of learning. It is also important to mention here that interaction between the author of the material and those who use it can be rather favorable for all sides of the interaction process.

The use of online services. This type of activity includes the use of online crossword-, puzzle-, and quiz-makers by students and teachers alike. This category can also include the use of multiple services provided by Google, Google-maps, Google-docs and Google-tests among them. The use of these modern technologies not only enhances interaction, but can also help your students to develop computer literacy.

The use of off-line computer programs is perhaps the initial stage of applying technology in class. Numerous word processors and multimedia programs have now become an indispensible part of English lessons. Presenting the results of students' work made with the help of off-line programs and online services can be a very motivating experience.

Conclusion

The consideration of modern Internet resources and this review of the specialized literature leads us to the conclusion that TELL, as the search for and study of use of IT in language teaching and learning, should be strategic in its theoretical basis, spontaneous with respect to its practical application and relevant in its essence for the teacher and student alike. Modern technology not only provides teachers with various materials and techniques to be applied in class but also gives us a fighting chance to represent our work in the universe on the World Wide Web (http://teell.wordpress.com).

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Using Web Resources in EFL Teacher Training and Development

Natalya Maximova
Far Eastern State University for the Humanities, Khabarovsk, Russia

Abstract

In our increasingly interconnected society the ability of students to use so-called digital skills and social media tools effectively plays a greater role each day. Teachers worldwide are reconsidering their curricula so as to integrate the use of new technologies into their daily teaching practice. The purpose of this paper is to share the experiences of using the Internet and social media tools in a special training course designed for EFL pre-service and in-service teachers who are involved in acquiring such professional skills as: searching, evaluating, and sharing information relevant to EFL teaching; producing online texts, including blog entries for various learning and teaching purposes; using images to supplement and enhance text communication and taking part in online professional networks.

Keywords: *Web 1.0, Web 2.0 resources, EFL, teacher training and development, digital literacies*

Introduction

No one can deny that the Internet has altered the way we perceive the world and the notions of time and space altogether. Reality is often substituted by virtual reality; geographical borders disappear under the limitless horizons of communication and contact the Internet allows. According to statistics, 43 million hours are spent on Facebook globally every day**.** Another shocking figure is 412.3 years. This is the time you will spend if you sit down to watch YouTube (Singer, 2009). The second generation of Web tools, i.e. social networks with their multiple services (e-mail, instant messaging, chat, blogging, etc.) inevitably brings us closer together so that we can share experiences, documents, and suggestions. These services, provided by innumerable digital devices, are second nature to many of our students. Young people born after the 80s are now called "digital natives". Their teachers, being mostly "digital immigrants", say in many questionnaires that they are familiar with the new generation of Web resources but use them in the classroom quite rarely. In this context, the necessity for in-service and pre-service teachers to master the use of a new generation of computer technologies and tame them has become pressing.

In this paper I will share my experience of using various Web resources in teaching a specialized course to pre-service EFL teachers at the Far Eastern University for the Humanities (Khabarovsk, Russia). Having been involved in EFL teacher education for more than 35 years, I have tried many different methods and materials aimed at improving the quality of EFL teaching and learning, but the potential of Internet-based resources, which has become evident in recent years, is so great that it has made me reconsider the approaches that I had been using. At the end of the 90s I became a participant in the International Visitor program sponsored by the U.S. Department of State and, during my visit, I attended the annual TESOL convention in Orlando, Florida with hundreds of most valuable presentations made by participants from around the world. One of the most inspiring presentations for me was made by Dave Sperling, an ESL teacher and creator of the famous ESL cybercafé (www.eslcafe.com). I bought his book *The Internet Guide* (Sperling, 1997), which has about a thousand links in almost all areas connected with EFL/ESL teaching and learning, and together with my students started to explore the potential of Web resources. It became very clear that using the Internet effectively may dramatically improve the process of foreign language teaching and learning because it makes the process ALIVE. An acronym where "A" stands for **A**uthenticity (unlimited access to authentic materials, communication and publishing), "L" means **L**iteracy (developing reading, writing, communication, research and publishing skills), "I" means **I**nteraction (the key to acquiring fluency; the Internet provides stimulus and opportunity for interaction), "V" stands for **V**itality (a flexible, modern medium which provides opportunity for meaningful, relevant work), "E" means **E**mpowerment (mastery allows teachers and students to become lifelong learners) (Warschauer, Shetzer & Meloni, 2002, p.7).

It is important to emphasize that the basic pedagogical principles for incorporating Web resources into ELT, formulated by the authors of the book *Internet for English Teaching* at the end of the 90s, are still relevant now. They are:

- students' active and creative mastery of new technologies when setting language learning goals (digital skills are promoted parallel with language skills);

- autonomous lifelong learning (by using online resources students learn to choose from a wide range of learning objects available according to their needs and interests);
- collaborative learning (online learning experience provide conditions for various kinds of project work in a non-threatening environment and takes students beyond Web surfing and chatting);
- cross-cultural learning (the Internet enhances the importance of effective cross-cultural communication);
- critical learning (the enormous amount of information available in the Internet makes critical learning skills more important than before).

Warschauer, Shetzer & Meloni, 2002, p. 86.

Basic ideas and teaching guidelines for how to use Web resources effectively were later developed and described in numerous publications and online courses. One such online course that I attended myself was an innovative distance course "Integrating the Internet in the English Language Classroom" designed by Michael Krauss, another CALL guru who works in Portland, Oregon and teaches English at Lewis and Clark College of Liberal Arts. Since that time, I have been learning with Michael Krauss, because each year he updates his materials and makes them more and more interesting to use. The information and activities that the course contains teach students to find, save, evaluate and create Web resources that allow them to:

- synthesize language and thinking skills;
- motivate students with rich content and meaningful communication;
- appropriate their materials for culture, age and language ability of students;
- make them relevant to curriculum and students' lives;
- create a tangible product with evaluation and feedback. (http://legacy.lclark.edu/~kraus/usia/)

The focus of the first course designed by Michael Krauss was on six Web-based learning activity formats: Hotlist, Scrapbook, Treasure Hunt, Subject Sampler, Culture Capsule and WebQuest (http://legacy.lclark.edu/~usia/syllabus1b.html#day5). Designing their own activities based on the samples given in the course, my students were practicing integrating Web resources to teach both language skills (vocabulary, grammar, phonetics), communication skills (speaking, reading, writing, listening) and cross-cultural skills. Working individually and in groups the students were acquiring the so called digital literacies in their four main areas: language, information, connections, and design (Hockly, 2012).

As was already mentioned, in recent years the Internet has changed with the rapid spread of participatory tools and sites that facilitate social networking, interactive game playing, collaborative writing and editing. Unlike the first generation of Web resources (Web 1.0), which were mostly static and one-way, second generation resources (Web 2.0) provide people with "voice", encourage collaboration and allow for the sharing of data and experiences in a non-threatening environment. These characteristics of Web 2.0 resources have changed the role of teachers and students in all spheres of teaching and learning, including the sphere of EFL teacher training and development. Of many existing Web 2.0 resources, for the goals of my course on integrating the Internet into EFL teaching/learning process, I chose Blogger as of one of the most popular and easy-to-use Web resources. In the very first class of my course I introduce the students to my blog www.itineft.blogspot.com where I put the assignments for students to complete. This year the assignments have been grouped into six sections: the Role of Web-resources in FLT; Evaluation and Gathering Web-based Materials for FLT; Learning FL with Microsoft Word; Integrating Web-Resources in the FL Classroom; Designing Web-based Projects; Using Web 2.0 Tools in FLT. Besides assignments, each section contains links to various additional web resources, enabling students to have a fuller picture of the issue under discussion. For example, this year, using such a Web resource as www.slideshare.net I introduced my students to the most recent PowerPoint presentation made by M. Krauss in Panama in August of 2012 named "ELT + IT: CALL for a Balance". In the same first class my students created their own Blogger accounts, chose a name for the blog and started their first post on how often they use Web resources and for which purposes. I also encourage them to analyze their experiences of using the Internet in their current learning of two foreign languages: what advantages and pitfalls they observe. By sharing their experiences with their peers students are creating their own personal learner-centered Web-based environment and become more aware of their learning process. Such an environment provides more independence but demands more responsibility.

As I have already mentioned, in recent years more and more traditional computer assisted language learning activities are carried out in the new networked environment and become net-based language learning activities (Kern and Warschauer, 2000). Besides the above-mentioned collaboration tools, such as Blogger,

there are hundreds of other Web 2.0 tools that are used for educational purposes nowadays. In this article I will mention only those that my students and I have been exploring this year. Among them are:

Google Docs allows two or more users to work collaboratively on documents and presentations that have been uploaded to the Google work space. By using this tool you can invite someone to edit or contribute to your document – multiple people can join in and make changes, with revisions showing exactly who made the changes and when. An onscreen chat window allows users to discuss the additions and changes they are making.

Google Earth: Using a 3D model of the world, students can grab, spin and zoom down into any place on Earth. By combining a Google search with satellite images, maps, and terrain, students and teachers have the opportunity to travel and share their impressions.

EduBlogs. Using this resource teachers can facilitate discussions; replace paper newsletters; get students blogging; post videos, podcasts and documents and create a class publication.

YouTube contains a wealth of great learning materials for the classroom. There is even a special education-focused channel for teachers and students.

TED-Ed is a site which contains numerous videos organized by subject and can help you to teach any content.

Skype is a great tool for keeping in touch with educators and students in your native and other countries.

Wikispaces allows you to share lessons, media and other materials online with your students, or let them collaborate to build their own educational wiki.

Pinterest makes it possible to pin any image you find interesting on this site, but many teachers are using it as a place to collect great lesson plans, projects, and inspirational materials.

Schoology allows teachers to manage lessons, engage students, share content, and connect with other educators.

ePals enables you to connect with anyone, anywhere. ePals focuses on students, helping them to learn languages and understand cultures different from their own.

One of the recent Web 2.0 tools that is gaining more and more popularity in the US nowadays is Glogster (www.glogster.com, www.edu.glogster.com) which provides a platform for students to combine text, images, video, and audio to create an interactive Web-based poster. This Web-tool requires students to merge the left and right sides of the brain as they seek to communicate and evaluate both information and meaning. The visual, audio, and textual capacity of Glogster not only will appeal to digital learners, it has the potential to support the visual literacy skills that are becoming more and more essential for the 21st century learners. U.S. teachers who use Glogster in place of traditional poster assignments mention the versatility of this poster-creation tool when it is partnered with solid teaching pedagogy and teacher creativity (teachers' responses to Glogster available at https://www.schooltube.com). As with other Web 2.0 tools, teachers are trying this tool out in a variety of ways. Especially helpful to new Glogster users is Traci Blazosky's Glogster Tutorial Page (2013).

Pre-service and in-service teachers interested in self-study and professional development can be directed to various Web-based professional communities of EFL teachers. One of them is EFL Classroom 2.0 (www.community.eflclassroom.com) founded by David Deubelbeiss. This virtual classroom provides: help for teachers (course book, elementary lessons, stories, grammar, flashcards, etc); help for learners (language lab, listening texts, practice page, daily lessons, etc); reading tips (readers, EFL 2.0 blogs, EFL 2.0 ebooks); videos (EFL 2.0 video, top video, Kids Karaoke); teacher development materials (teacher training courses, TEFL Training, resources, TED Talks).

Hundreds of useful links and http://daily-english-activities.blogspot.com/2008/08/sitemap.html activities for EFL learners and teachers can be found on the Learning Technology Blog for English Teachers made by Nik Peachey (http://nikpeachey.blogspot.com). The blog also introduces a number of Peachey's recent articles and books. Among them: *Social Networks and the Web 2.0 Revolution* (parts1 and 2) (https://vialogues.com/vialogues/play/3796), *Web 2.0 Tools for EFL and ESL Teachers* (http://myenglishpages.com/blog/nik-peachey-web-20-efl-esl-teachers/). *Of great value for EFL* teachers is Larry Ferlazzo's English Website (http://larryferlazzo.edublogs.org/) with nearly 8,000 categorized links. More materials and tips for distance education are provided by the Russian resource www.elearningpro.ru – a community of professionals supporting the idea of e-learning including foreign language e-learning.

Having used various Web 2.0-based resources and activities with my pre-service EFL teachers for the last two years, I asked for their feedback. It was positive. Students enjoyed learning in a different way. They

found blog tasks interesting and thought-provoking. They liked the fact that all the materials were at hand. They could choose between different alternative tasks, consult and discuss problems with their teacher and peers outside the traditional classroom. They were glad to be given a chance to explore the Web 2.0 tools they had never used before and they were positive about continuing to use them in future. As for the negative reactions, they were mostly connected with lack of time to explore new resources and reluctance to describe them in the written form.

Conclusion

The experience of Web-based EFL teacher training and development shows that what really counts is sound pedagogy and not computers and web tools themselves. Future success will require teachers' attention to the integration of teaching/learning goals and activity/task design in the new digitally mediated realities. Teachers need to know how Web resources can constrain as well as how to enhance the students' language use and know when it is better not to computerize a particular activity. The growing complexity of decisions involved in foreign language teaching and learning highlights the importance of more effectively integrating the new technologies in both pre-service and in-service teacher education. Flexibility will be a primary requirement for both teachers and researchers as they continue to explore language teaching and learning in a new, networked contexts.

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Multimedia Assisted Teaching to Enhance ESL Reading Skills

Geeta Satish Raut
Gayatri College of Education University of Pune, Maharashtra, India

Abstract

The English language is a mean of global communication and a major vehicle of trans-cultural interaction, even among non-English speaking countries. The author, as a part of her Ph.D. studies, has observed that students from rural and tribal area of Maharashtra State in India have adapted very effectively with multimedia assisted English language teaching. The multimedia assisted techniques helped the author to create an interactive and exploratory classroom experience. The method provided the benefits of blending together the use of text, sound, animation, graphics and video. A multimedia tutoring environment leads to meaningful learning and enhances ESL reading skills.

Key words: *multimedia, ESL, reading skill, exploratory animation*

Introduction

In any country the process of education changes according to the needs of society. The only way to nurture talent and creativity in a society is to offer meaningful education. Technological and scientific

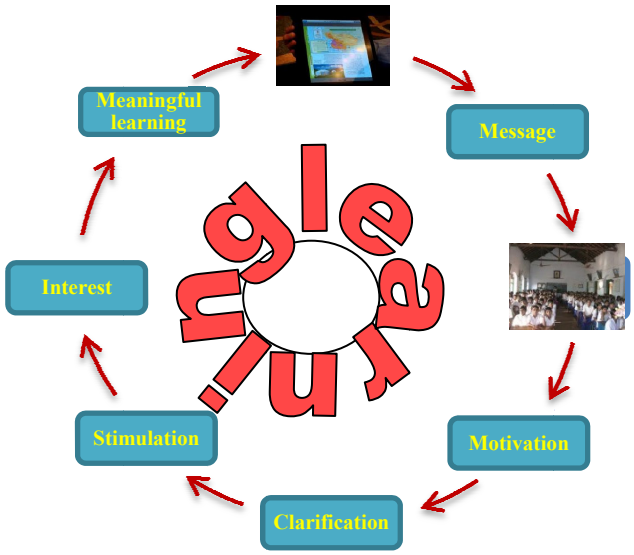
developments and theories of psychology are continually bringing new trends in education. National Policy emphasizes a satisfactory quality of education to all children.

Innovative teaching techniques and strategies contribute a great deal to the quality of transacted curriculum. If the curriculum is based on the regional needs and student-centric, then the teacher needs to be competent to adopt and develop new innovative practices in the classroom.

Use of Multimedia Devices in Teaching / Learning English

The use of multimedia techniques empowers teachers to create interactive and exploratory classroom experiences. Hartley asserted that multimedia attracts interest, clarifies and coordinates accurate concepts, and makes learning more effective and meaningful.

Model of Multimedia Learning Process



Benefits of Multimedia Learning

It creates a channel between the English learner and things that are worth learning.[2]

It provides the teacher with the benefits of blending together the use of text, sound, dynamic animation, graphics and video to provide a multimedia tutoring environment.

Adopting different strategies helps students to become more flexible in their mental processing and creates a multisensory learning environment. It brings the teacher and the learner closer in the teaching-learning process.[2]

Importance of English Language Learning

The English language is a means of global communication and a major vehicle of trans-cultural interaction, even among non-English speaking countries. English is the gateway to opportunities.[3] English, as an international language, plays a vital role in communication and in the development of students.

The author, as a part of her Ph.D. studies, has observed that students from a rural and tribal area of Maharashtra State in India have acquired English skills very effectively with multimedia assisted English language teaching. The general objectives of teaching English are to enable the learner to understand the four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

English Reading Skills

The use of multimedia devices in teaching English helps a lot in developing the four skills of English language. To acquire proficiency in any language one should use it meaningfully. Simple mastery of rules and meaning is not enough. The learner must listen carefully, speak fluently, and read and write correctly. Reading is the most basic and universally practiced skill and needs careful attention.[1]

Definition of Reading

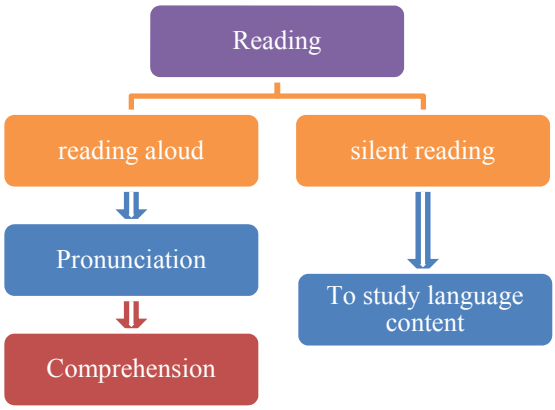
According to Gray (1967) reading is “a form of experience” and good reading habits promote self-education, which helps in the modification of personality. White (1983, p. 87) suggests that “we read in order

to obtain information which is presented in written form." It is generally defined as a process that helps to decode and identify the words in print.

This skill enables a reader:

- To read the written form as meaningful language.
- To read anything written, with fluency.
- To interact mentally with the message.

Types of Reading



The purpose of author's research is to develop reading aloud and silent reading, to improve pronunciation and fluency in speech. Reading involves active participation of the reader in understanding the message the writer has conveyed through the written text. Reading aloud helps in correcting pronunciation and fluency in speaking; on the other hand, silent reading extracts the required information as efficiently as possible by looking at the written text.[4] So, to develop this skill, the teacher should use different strategies to overcome the reading difficulties of the students. Along with the reading methods like the alphabetic method, phonic method, word method and story method, teachers must use a multimedia assisted English language teaching method. It enhances reading skills in the English language along with developing ease in understanding a very different culture. With this method students adapted themselves easily to the 21st century globalized world education system.

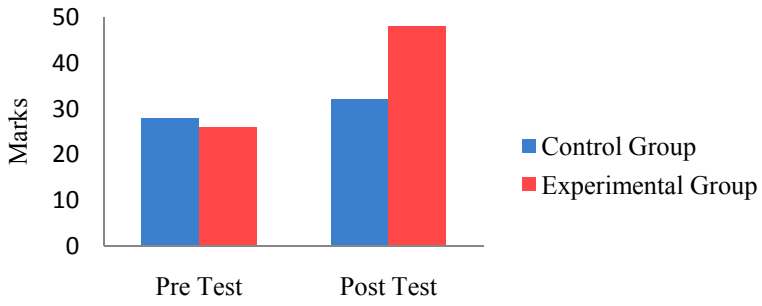
Theory Base

Piaget and David Ausubel, who were both cognitive psychologists, stated that language development is an aspect of cognitive development and hence reflects cognitive progress (Sinclair 1971). Speaking provides the vocabulary and sentence patterns for reading. Pearson and Fielding (1983) link listening skills to reading skills. As does reading, listening involves and develops skills in phonology, syntax and knowledge of text structure, all of which seem to be controlled by the same set of cognitive processes. So in David Ausuble's (2007) meaningful learning theory of multimedia learning, the learners actively construct knowledge and are involved in meaningful learning processes. Visual images and pictures keep learners busy. Verbal skills deal with words and sentences. It motivates, clarifies and creates interest in learning.

Observations and results of the research showed that the students from rural area benefited from modern technology-assisted language teaching. The multimedia assisted techniques helped the author to create interactive and exploratory classroom experiences. The author made two groups of students and used an experimental method. Experimental treatment was given to the experimental group and a traditional method to the control group. The results are stated in table and graph format:

Maximum Marks of the Students

Test	Control group	Experimental group
Pre-test	28	26
Post-test	32	48



This shows that visual images and dynamic animation with sound became more popular and effective in learning foreign language. They enhance ESL reading skills.

Conclusion

UNICEF has also collaborated with central and state governments and NGOs to support joyful learning initiatives.[5] Language being a skill-dominant subject, it is hoped that if the teacher uses innovative methods in the classroom and emphasizes learning, achieving mastery in a skill is possible and learning will became joyful. Increased self-confidence and interest in learning will lead them to success.

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TEACHING METHODS

Achievement Testing: International Repercussions

Robert Black
Gimcheon University, ROK

Abstract

International rankings come from a series of tests administered by the Programme for International Student Assessment and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study. These tests focus on a very narrow portion of national student bodies and the rankings do not receive balance from the many other factors that demand attention when comparing international systems of education. The intent of this study is to examine the many factors associated with international achievement testing. This paper will be an informative and methodical approach to the subject matter as a tool for better understanding the role played by international achievement tests.

Keywords: *International Academic Rankings, PISA, TIMMS, Economic Competitiveness, higher education, immigration, 1,000 Point Scale, Top Scorers*

How do we rank international education systems?

International rankings come from a series of tests administered the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) called the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012). Another test is the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) operated by The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, or IEA, an association of research institutions and governments (Institute of Education Sciences, 2011).

TIMSS and PISA appear to examine different sides of student learning and therefore different findings may come from them. In general terms, TIMSS seeks to find out what students know and PISA attempts to discover what students can do with their knowledge.

TIMSS gathers data from samples of the student population at two levels: 4^{th} and 8^{th} grade. Development of the tests of student learning outcomes for each student population begins with an analysis of science curriculum guides and textbooks from many countries to identify priority topics for the tests. An international panel of specialists that deal with science curricula then produces a framework to guide test development. The framework has a content dimension that indicates the proportions of test questions required for each of the areas of science, and a performance expectations dimension for what was involved in answering the items. TIMSS also contains a perspectives dimension that included science-related details about the individual student and their other classroom and school contexts as well as multiple choice, short answer and free response items. A teacher questionnaire asks about qualifications, levels taught, approaches to planning and the use of textbooks and other resources, and views on current curricular issues. A student questionnaire seeks information about demographic details, how students spent time, attitudes to science, and expectations. It seems suspect that a major portion of our international ranking system uses subjective information in the form of questionnaires (Institute of Education Sciences, 2011).

For the PISA testing, all students take pencil-and-paper tests, with assessments lasting a total of two hours for each student (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012). Test items are a mixture of multiple-choice items and questions requiring students to construct their own responses. The items are organized in groups based on a passages setting out a real-life situation. A total of about seven hours of test items is covered, with different students taking different combinations of test items. Students answer a background questionnaire, which takes 20-30 minutes to complete, providing information about themselves and their homes. School principals are given a 20-minute questionnaire about their schools (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012).

Do these rankings influence education policy?

International achievement testing seems to have an effect on international education policy in many ways. It may provide perspective to national policy makers on how best to train competitive citizens. The scrutiny placed on the educational process of a given country may drive each participating nation to excellence while evaluating the weaknesses of a nation's educational system could benefit a nation by showing areas requiring improvement. The international community often makes comparisons of student achievement, and it has been observed that the international community places high importance on rankings and measurements as we trend toward a more global economy.

Economic Competitiveness

One of two Swiss-based organizations that rank nations on global competitiveness, the Institute for Management Development, ranked the United States at number two behind Hong Kong (IMD Business School, 2012). The other, The World Economic Forum, ranked the U.S. very high as well at fourth (World Economic Forum, 2010). The WEF examines 12 categories they refer to as the pillars of competitiveness, only one of which is education. While it is obvious that this paper is focused on education specifically, it seems that education is the foundation for all success. Should not a proper measurement of international academic ranking be balanced with a nation's global competitiveness? It seems that there is little correlation between a nation's academic ranking and its competitiveness globally. Highly ranked America at fourth or first, depending on which report you read, stands far above many countries that rank at the top academically, such as Korea at number 22 on the global competitiveness list and Finland at 7th.

In spite of an apparent inability to predict the future of economic trends with accuracy, we begin to see that test-score rankings may very well be a poor basis for ranking a nation. There are many variables to take into consideration, such as outsourcing to access lower-wage employees, incentives for innovation, national tax rates, health-care and retirement costs, natural resources and even exchange rates. If we balance these numbers with the results of both the IMD and WEF global competitive rankings, other nations, such as America appear to come out in the lead. That the United States, one of the world's top economic performing countries, was found to have school attainments that are only middling casts fundamental doubts about the value of and the apparently flawed approach these international assessments take. Could it be that the academic ranking of nations based solely on achievement testing may be inaccurate?

Higher Education as a Factor

We may also assume that a lower academic ranking would show itself in the form of shortages of available scientists, mathematicians and engineers in the workforce, but this is not true. America has a large group of students every year with credentials suited for entering the scientific and engineering fields. There are even surpluses as Andrew Hacker and Claudia Dreifus (2010), an academic and a journalist, report that America produced more than 100,000 doctoral degrees between 2005 and 2009 and that in the same period; there were just 16,000 new professorships. In Canada, where the number of Ph.D. graduates has only grown modestly, universities awarded 4,800 doctorate degrees in 2007. However, they hired just 2,600 new professors for faculty positions. Only a few third world countries, such as Brazil or China, appear to be short of Ph.D.s (Hacker & Dreifus, 2010). Could it be that when companies claim to hire from outside the country it is for financial reasons and not because of a lack of qualified candidates for employment?

The 1,000-Point Scale

Can we really boil the fate of a nation down to how well eight and fifteen year-olds bubble in answer sheets? The international community and the media channels that report on these numbers seem to look at the achievement test scores and begin to sound alarms about a given nation's rise or decline. The reality of the numbers presented in both the PISA and the TIMMS achievement tests are that the top performer, Singapore, and the United States for example, differ by only an average of 66 points in both categories. In addition, highly ranked South Korea on average only has a 44-point lead over the US. Both the PISA and TIMSS ranking systems are on a 1000-point scale. If we balance these numbers with the results of both the IMD and WEF global competitive rankings, America looks to come out in the lead. Does the reality that the United States, one of the world's top economic performing countries, was found to have school attainments that are only middling cast doubt on the value of international academic ranking based primarily on achievement testing when dealing with such a small margin of separation?

Immigration

According to the U.S. Census Bureau's 2009 American Community Survey, the US immigrant population was 38,517,234, or 12.5 percent of the total U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

Immigration may bring a diluting of test scores to education systems. For instance, nearly one in five people living in the United States speaks a language at home other than English, according to new Census data that illustrate the wide-ranging effects of immigration (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). The number of immigrants nationwide reached an all-time high of 37.5 million in 2006, this appears to effect incomes and education averages across the country. Immigration adds to the statistic of students without high school diplomas, with almost half of those being comprised of immigrants from Latin America (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011.)

The 2010 U.S. Census Bureau report entitled *Foreign-born Population by Area of Birth, Citizenship Status, and Year of Entry: 2010* shows an estimated 40 million people in America are from Mexico and Latin America. About 47 percent of adult immigrants from Latin America lacked a high school diploma, compared with 16 percent of Asian immigrants and 13 percent of people born in the U.S. We should note that many of these immigrants are hard-working and valuable members of society in spite of their lack of academic attainment. However, it is safe to say that these numbers effect America's scores on achievement testing (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). All across the developing world, we are witnessing the movement of people from nation to nation. Some may be seeking prosperity; others may be escaping unimaginable realities. The well-know realities of aging populations in Korea and Japan are also to be considered as foreign workers seep in to fill gaps in the work forces of those two nations. We may begin to see a similar reality arise in China as the well-documented one-child policy takes its toll on the work force of that nation. Does immigration have a profound effect on the usefulness of international standardized testing as a means of ranking nations academically?

Number of Top Scorers

The results of the TIMMS and PISA achievement tests are based on average score comparisons and do not seem to be useful: even considering that these tests indicate some potential for future accomplishment, average scoring students are not the future leaders in the fields of science and math. Those roles are more likely to fall to students who score above average.

An obvious issue arises when viewing these figures. We need to keep in mind that average test scores may not solidly relate to anything important to a nation's economy. On the other hand, historically, Japanese students have always performed well, but the economy sank because of what Watkins (2011) refers to as the asset price bubble that burst in 1990 and has yet to recover and match what it once was, in spite of Japan's relatively high scores, fifth in TIMMS and fourth in the PISA.

As mentioned, comparing nations on average scores seems to be a rather weak and inaccurate approach to ranking nations academically. A vivid analogy would be to say that ranking nations based on the PISA and TIMSS is like ranking runners based on the average of their shoe sizes or ranking a high school football team based on how fast the average player could run a 40-yard dash.

One ranking that is likely to have much more of an actual impact on the global competitiveness of a nation is found when we examine the number of high performers a nation produces. The TIMSS numbers shows the U. S. to have a much higher proportion of above average scorers than the international average (Institute of Education Sciences, 2011). The OECD numbers show that if we take the number of highest-scoring students in science, the United States has 25% of all high-scoring students of the 58 nations taking part in the assessment. Among the participant nations, fourth and fifth, respectively, ranked Japan accounted for 13% of the highest scorers, Korea 5%, Taipei 3%, Finland 1%, and Hong Kong 1% (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012).

The picture painted when examining the number of high-scoring students is rather contradictory to the overly cited national average comparisons we see in the news. This means that 70,000 American students tested above average compared to about 2,000 from New Zealand and Sweden. Japan was second with about 33,000 top performers.

Are the top performing students produced by a nation's education system the people who might end up creating leading edge technology in the future? Who cares if Singapore, with about the same population as the Washington Metro Area, and Hong Kong, with about twice that number, score high? The picture emerging from this highest-scorer comparison is far different from what is shown by the frequently cited national average comparisons.

Conclusion

As language teachers, how do these finding effect us? What should we do with this information? The particular portion of this research that connects with language instruction is the finding in the area of immigration. It may well be that many who are reading this study find themselves instructing English in a foreign context or instructing immigrants to their own homeland. If the current trends in immigration continue, we may see demand for such employment increase. In addition, the pressure that nations receive because of the PISA and TIMMS findings may continue to increase national demands for language instruction. While the PISA and TIMMS rankings do not appear to be perfect, they are still the standard for ranking nations academically. As language teachers, are we ready for the challenges the results of these test may bring?

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Journal Writing: A Tool to Enhance EFL Students' Writing-Related Metacognitive Knowledge

Walaiporn Chaya
Srinakharinwirot University, Thailand

Abstract

Journal writing is an effective tool used for many purposes. It has been used to provide resourceful and insightful data from research across disciplines. It can also be used as a means to raise awareness of learners' leaning process. This paper reports on the use of journal writing as a tool to enhance Thai EFL students' writing-related metacognitive knowledge in three aspects; person, task and strategy knowledge. The results reveal that students' metacognitive knowledge of the writing process increased over the period of time when they were writing journals.

Key words: *metacognitive knowledge, journal writing, writing performance, English as a Foreign Language*

Introduction

Writing is a vital skill for the academic success of English language learners, both in ESL and EFL contexts. ESL/EFL learners are required to perform writing tasks in a variety of academic settings: writing in a composition course, summary writing, writing term papers, writing journals and reflection papers, writing research articles and so forth. Therefore, these students are expected to develop the ability to write effectively through practice in formal writing instruction to cope with the demand of academic requirements (Chinnawong, 2002). However, writing in English for ESL/EFL students has been regarded as the most difficult skill, since the writers need to do holistic writing tasks, i.e. tasks with a generic purpose and expected audience (Kroll, 2003). In addition, writing is a complex cognitive process including planning, translating and rewriting, and skilled writing requires the writer to have the ability to actively engage metacognitive knowledge related to the writing process (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower & Hayes, 1981). Graham and Harris (2000) also state that writing requires extensive self-regulation and attention control, and skilled writers see writing as a flexible, goal-directed activity that is grounded by the knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies for planning, producing and revising a text.

From the metacognitive point of view, skilled writers use the knowledge-transforming model of writing which entails metacognitive activities of the following kinds: goal-directing, planning, audience consideration, problem-solving and evaluating. In contrast, unskilled writers employ an easily acquired writing strategy called "knowledge-telling." In other words, they write what they know about a topic without much prior planning and metacognitive-like guidance (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Bereiter and Scardamalia have further indicated that skilled writing requires a writer's appropriate knowledge that is "coded in ways that make it accessible" and "cognitive resources for bringing this knowledge into use at the right time in the proper relation to the resource demand of the tasks" (p. 43).

It appears that skilled writers perceive knowledge about themselves as writers and the demand of the writing tasks, and they engage in metacognitive activity to manage or regulate their own cognitive writing process. Skilled writers, according to Bereiter and Scardamalia, are the ones who possess metacognitive knowledge and cognitive monitoring (Flavell, 1979, 1987) either of Brown's (1987) metacognitive strategies or self-regulation (Graham & Harris, 2000). An examination of students' metacognitive knowledge about writing will help both instructors and learners to have a better understanding of the writing process. Furthermore, the findings might reveal some pedagogical implications that instructors can employ to encourage students to become skilled writers.

Review of Related Literature

Most simply, metacognition is "thinking about thinking" or "knowing about knowing." Flavell (1979) divides metacognition into two main categories: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experience. Metacognitive Knowledge (MK), the focus of this study, based on Flavell's perspective, refers to acquired world knowledge about cognitive processes, knowledge that can be used to control (p. 21). Flavell also describes metacognitive knowledge in terms of person, task, and strategy knowledge.

Person knowledge refers to general knowledge about how human beings learn and process information, as well as individual knowledge of one's own learning process. Person knowledge also includes the beliefs about oneself as a thinker or learner, and what she/he believes about other people's thinking processes (Flavell, 1987, p. 22). For example, a person might believe that in a revision stage, he or she takes longer to revise than his or her classmates. That is to say, the one who possesses the person knowledge perceives himself as a good or poor writer and knows his or her own writing process.

Task knowledge involves knowledge about the demands, goals and nature of the proposed learning task that is available to a person. Task knowledge guides the individual in the management of a task, and provides information about the degree of success that is likely to be produced. An example of task knowledge related to writing is a person knowing how much he or she knows about the type of essay he or she will write.

The third sub-category, strategy knowledge, concerns the type of knowledge that learners have about both cognitive and metacognitive strategies that can help them fulfill cognitive tasks effectively, as well as knowledge about when and where to use such strategies (Flavell, 1979, p. 709). An example of strategy knowledge in writing might be that a writer makes an outline when writing the first draft of an essay and rereads to check the outline to see whether his or her essay is well-developed and coherent.

Flavell's dimensions of metacognitive knowledge have been examined in the context of second language learning by Wenden (1987). In Wenden's work (1987, 1995, 1998, 1999) metacognitive knowledge

refers to a prerequisite portion of a learner's acquired knowledge base. Wenden also classifies metacognitive knowledge into person, task and strategy knowledge. In Wenden's conceptualization, person knowledge involves cognitive and affective factors that facilitate or inhibit second language acquisition (SLA). These factors include age, language aptitude, motivation, intelligence, personality and cognitive styles. Task knowledge concerns knowledge about the procedures for completing the learning task successfully. This includes what learners know about the purpose of task and how it will serve their language learning needs, such as to improve their writing skills, expand their vocabulary, and develop fluency in oral communication. Wenden describes strategy knowledge as the types of language learning strategies the learner has plus the evaluation of the effectiveness of these strategies. More specifically, strategy knowledge includes knowledge about cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as conditional knowledge about when and where to use such strategies appropriately and successfully to achieve learning goals, and to understand how best to approach language learning (pp. 574-580). Wenden also points out that metacognitive knowledge is a prerequisite to the deployment of the self-regulation leading to successful learning outcomes.

Based on the literature reviewed above, very few studies have been done to investigate the extent to which metacognitive knowledge may influence the EFL writing approach, e.g. the writing processes and strategies students engage in in performing the writing task. One of the ways to enhance students' metacognitive knowledge is to teach them to reflect upon their language learning process regularly by writing a reflective journal. This study uses the Flavellian model and Wenden's conceptualization as a theoretical framework to examine whether journal writing helps to heighten EFL student writers' metacognitive knowledge of writing.

Research Questions

This study aimed to seek answer for the following research questions:

1. to investigate whether journal writing helps to heighten EFL student writers' metacognitive knowledge of writing over time;
2. to examine the extent EFL student writers are aware of metacogntive knowledge within the writing process;
3. to investigate how journal writing might help EFL student writers heighten their metacognitive awareness within the writing process;
4. to find out how EFL student writers' metacognitive knowledge about writing has been constructed, through journal writing.

Research Methodology

Participants

The participants were 39 third-year students selected purposively from all third-year English majors who were taking the composition course, a compulsory course for English major students, in which they took into account a broader range of writing tasks and practiced writing different types of essay.

Data Collection

The data of this study were self-reports from the pre- and post Self-Assessment Metacongitive Knowledge Questionnaire (SAMKQ) and the contents of students' journal entries. The Self-Assessment Metacongitive Knowledge Questionnaire (SAMKQ), with the background questionnaire, was administered as a pre-questionnaire to obtain students' MK perceived before studying in the composition course. Through the whole semester, the students were taught to write four types of essay: narrative, descriptive, cause and effect, and argumentative. The teaching procedures combined process and the genre-based approaches to teaching writing.

The students were assigned to write a weekly journal to reflect on their own thinking about each writing class, for 12 weeks. Therefore, after 12 weeks, there were 468 journal entries from 39 students.

Data Analysis

First, descriptive statistical procedures for the quantitative data were carried out to determine the overall Mean (*M*) and Standard Deviation (*SD*) of responses for the entire pre- and post-SAMKQ with regard to three main categories: person, task and strategy knowledge. The results revealed the level of MK in writing student writers perceived before studying and the actual MK they had after completing the composition

course. The significant difference between the total mean of self-reports from the pre- and post-SAMKQ of student writers then was calculated. The results revealed the change or growth in MK before and after the writing course. For qualitative data**,** the content analysis of journals was conducted with reference to the three main classifications of the MK. The emergent themes of the content analyses supplemented the statistical results and demonstrated how the journal writing fostered student writers' MK, and how MK was constructed over the period of time.

Results of the Study

The level of perception of MK related to writing before and after taking the writing course is illustrated in Table 1 in terms of overall mean scores, standard deviation and the comparison of the mean scores using paired t-tests.

Table 1

The Overall Mean, Standard Deviation, and the Mean Differences of Writing-Related Metacognitive Knowledge of English Majors before and after Taking the Writing Course

Students N=36	Before the Writing Course		After the Writing Course		t-value	P
	M	*D*	*M*	*SD*		
Third-Year English Majors	3.43	0.29	3.66	0.37	-4.397	0.000*

As shown in Table 1, the overall mean score of metacognitive knowledge (related to writing) before taking the writing course is higher than the overall mean score of MK after the writing course. The observed difference in the overall means of metacognitive knowledge possessed by the students before and after the writing course is statistically different ($t = -4.397$; $p < 0.05$).

Table 2 shows the mean scores, standard deviation, the scale value, and the mean differences of writing-related metacognitve knowledge of English majors before and after taking the writing course, in accordance with three main variables of MK: person, task and person knowledge.

Table 2

Mean, Standard Deviation, and the Mean Differences of Person Knowledge, Task Knowledge, and Strategy Knowledge of English Majors before and after Taking the Writing Course

Writing-Related Metacongitive Knowledge	Before the Writing Course N = 36			After the Writing Course N = 36			t-value two-tailed	p
	M	*SD*	Level	*M*	*SD*	Level		
Person Knowledge	3.36	0.29	M	3.61	0.29	H	-5.342	0.000*
Task Knowledge	3.47	0.41	M	3.68	0.46	H	-2.837	0.004*
Strategic Knowledge	3.43	0.32	M	3.67	0.45	H	-3.372	0.001*

As shown in Table 2, the mean scores of three main variables attributed by the students before and after studying the writing course are in the moderate level. To elaborate, before taking the writing course, the students exhibited moderate levels of person, task and strategy knowledge (the mean scores were 3.36, 3.47, and 3.43 respectively); whereas, at the end of the writing course, the three main variables of MK are at a high level (the mean scores were 3.61, 3.68, and 3.67). The highest level of metacognitive knowledge is task knowledge. Significant differences at the 0.05 level ($p < 0.05$) were found within all three main variables before and after the writing course.

Qualitative Results

The analysis of results from the students' journal entries revealed how MK was acquired and how an awareness of MK was raised through journal writing.

Person Knowledge

The results revealed that, overall, students became more aware of the cognitive process underlying their writing. In their early entries, most students mentioned their own problems and difficulties writing in English, such as poor grammar, lack of ideas, worry about a new type of essay, organizing the ideas, and presenting ideas logically. However, these weaknesses gradually became less problematic toward the end of the course.

Task Knowledge

The results revealed that the students perceived task knowledge most. Many students seemed to have knowledge about types of essay, characteristics of a good essay, and components of introduction, conclusion and body paragraphs. Also, some students realized that they acquired new task knowledge. They could explain the sequence of each type of essay very clearly and knew how to develop that type of an essay effectively (Task classification). However, some students reported that they lacked knowledge of task purpose and audience expectations. (This was reflected in their essays.)

Strategy Knowledge

The results showed that the students did not mention much information about strategies, particularly in the early journals, but many students reported the use of strategies to fulfill the goal of writing. A few students reported the use of planning in the pre-writing stage, but they did what the teacher assigned them to do. It appeared that the students lacked knowledge of self-monitoring, and their approach to writing was a knowledge-telling one. Most of them were concerned with their grammar mistakes and how to correct them to improve their writing. However, in their latter entries, students showed more profound understanding about appropriate strategies required to produce effective writing. They began to set goals for writing each type of essay. More importantly, they saw the importance of planning their writing, particularly gathering the ideas for the first draft. They planned for the content and ideas before writing the first draft; most of them followed the ideas they put in the outline or the Plan-Think Sheet provided by the teacher. They could also evaluate themselves as to whether they met the requirements of a good essay by looking back on the criteria of each type of essay. The following extracts from the first and second week show a student's plan for a narrative essay.

Discussion and Conclusion

An examination of students' responses to the 60-item SAMKQ showed that Thai EFL students majoring in English possessed a wide range of metacognitive knowledge related to writing before and after learning in the writing class, and there were changes and growth in the level of MK in many aspects. The results of the content analysis of journal entries suggest that when students have time to reflect on their own writing process after class, they think about the nature of the writing task as well as the factors that help them to achieve the writing goal. They also think of factors that hinder their successful completion of the writing task. Therefore, writing a journal is an aid to the process of reflection that can be one of the factors that facilitate students' achievement of writing tasks.

In addition, journal writing enabled students to acquire metacognitive knowledge of EFL writing in three dimensions: person, task, and strategy knowledge. When they could make their own choice and had control over their writing task, they showed their willingness to complete the task and put effort into achieving their goal. This corroborates Ruan's study (2005). Ruan found that the strategic knowledge of L2 student writers was heightened when they were able to choose their own writing topic and task procedure to produce a good essay. In addition, person knowledge was noticeable in EFL students' perception. The person knowledge, particularly self-efficacy, confidence, and positive attitude were reconstructed in their writing as they revealed that they tended to write a good essay to meet high standards of writing performance.

A growth of task knowledge was also evidenced in third-year English majors' journal writing. They were more aware of the nature of the writing task. They reported that they set the purpose, demonstrated a sense of audience, stated the thesis statement clearly, used supporting details and developed their ideas logically in their second draft of each type of essay: narrative, descriptive, cause and effect and argumentative. This suggested that students perceived the nature of each type of essay task as they attempted to regulate their cognitive process to identify their own writing problems and find solutions to problems leading to better

writing performance (Kasper, 1999). This approach of a problem-solving process is a knowledge-transforming model of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987).

The results suggest that engaging students in self-reflection enhanced the students' writing-related metacognitive knowledge and lead to more effective writing performance for EFL student writers. Metacognitive knowledge of person, task, and strategy could be enhanced through consistent tasks that aim to develop self-control of the writers' writing.

Conclusion

To sum up, the present study investigates the development of writing-related metacognitive knowledge of third-year English major students at Srinakharinwirot University who participated in writing instruction in which MK was fostered through journal writing. The results discussed above suggest that by engaging students in self-reflection through continued journal writing, metacognitive knowledge can be enhanced. The level of MK reported in the post-SAMKQ was higher than that in the pre-SAMKQ. MK was constructed in students in three dimensions: Person, Task and Strategy Knowledge. The results support the claims of Devine (1993), Hallback (2000) and Ruan (2005) that journal writing can be a useful reflective tool that helps learners to reflect on their own learning process and learning strategies. The MK of person, task and strategy could be enhanced through consistent tasks that aim to develop self-control of writing in student writers.

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Adapting Task-based Course Materials for the CEFR-J: A Teacher's Reflection

Gary Cook
Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University, Japan

Abstract

Recently various Japanese language institutions, such as the Bunkyo English Communication Center (BECC) in Hiroshima, have been pushing for the implementation of a Japanese adaptation of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). The adapted CEFR-J is proposed as a reference document for those involved in various language learning communities in Japan.

This teacher's reflection looks briefly at part of the process of the implementation of the BECC-writing can-do statements for an existing task-based curriculum, and offers comments from members within its community.

Key words: *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, CEFR-J, can-do statements, language-learning community, curriculum implementation*

Introduction

The different members of a language learning community may all have vested interests in one common item; the language curriculum. Their investments depend on the position each person has in the community. To give two examples, a Director of Studies will be concerned about their curriculum having clear academic aims and a teacher will have concerns regarding the preparation of materials for those aims to be met. In this paper a curriculum is defined as "a system which combines various courses within a program and makes them coherent in order to reach designated objectives" (Nagai, 2010, p. 87).

The Bunkyo English Communication Center (BECC) Sophomore English (SE) curriculum, which the author currently coordinates, consists of task-based course materials developed in-house by teachers for its second year non-language majors on the General English (GE) program. The three units – *Orientation*, *Food and Health*, and *Lifestyles and Culture,* consisting of 29 lessons, were either revised or created in the 2011-2012 academic year to correspond with the Waystage level (A2) of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). This level correlates with what most EFL textbooks would term a pre-intermediate level, according to North, Ortega and Sheehan (2001). Included at the beginning and end of each lesson were can-do statements, in English and Japanese, which Figueras describes as "empirically developed and validated reference level descriptors" (2012, p. 479). These descriptors of language ability are at the core of the CEFR and this teacher's reflection.

In the first general meeting of the 2012-2013 academic year a directive was given by BECC management to align our curricula, including Freshman English (FE), with the CEFR-J. This version of the CEFR, realized in 2012, was created specifically for the Japanese context. One reason why the creation of the CEFR-J was considered necessary is the heavy concentration of various English language learner populations in Japan being ≤ A2 level (including a staggering 96% of High School graduates from one prefecture) as reported in Negishi, Takada and Tono (2012). This was seen to necessitate branching of the original CEFR levels and the addition of a pre-A1 category (see table 1 below adapted from the CEFR-J website).

Table 1. Branching of the CEFR-J levels

	CEFR level	**CEFR-J** level
		Pre-A1
Basic User	A1 A2	A1.1, A1.2, A1.3 A2.1, A2.2
Independent User	B1 B2	B1.1, B1.2 B2.1, B2.2
Proficient User	C1 C2	C1 C2

CEFR-based framework for ELT in Japan- CEFR-J (http://www.tufs.ac.jp/ts/personal/tonolab/cefr-j/english/index-e.html)

Although the BECC does not have a specific test to ascertain the CEFR levels of its students, judging from FE and SE cohort in-house entrance test scores it may be assumed that the vast majority of our 1st and 2nd

year students would also be categorized ≤ A2 level. This, along with other reasons stated by management, which included a lack of an existing *central organizing principle* and unclear (or non-existent) *objectives* for lesson materials - two core components that define a curriculum, gave support to aligning our curriculum with this language reference tool. The BECC director sums up managements reasoning for implementation of the CEFR-J below:

> The CEFR-J provides us with an organizing principle for the BECC curriculum, accountability for what students are learning for University management and the Ministry of Education, and it fits in with the direction high schools are going. C. Foale (Personal Communication, October 25th, 2012).

The body of this text discusses a major part of the process for our curriculum alignment- writing can-do statements. For reports on other institutions that have attempted to adapt their curricula with the addition of can-do statements see Nagai (2010), Krause-Ono (2010) and Sargent & Winward-Stuart (2010).

Discussion

The first stage of the CEFR-J alignment process for SE committee members was aligning the current SE curriculum can-do statements to their closest CEFR-J can-do umbrella statements and thereby seeing the level(s) of our lesson handouts. This was a messy process due to two factors. Firstly, we found that the existing can-do statements were poorly written, in most cases being either vague or difficult to assess e.g.

- I can say which products I purchase and why
- I can use comparatives and superlatives correctly
- I can work well with my team members when practicing our advertisement role-play
- I can understand and use "pretty" (meaning nakanaka) e.g. She's pretty smart!

Secondly, within the 3 units CEFR-J reference levels varied greatly from Pre-A1 to B1.1 e.g.

- I can say the alphabet
- I can talk about my dreams or what I would do in imaginary situations

What became apparent from this first stage was that the original writing of SE can-do statements lacked a validation procedure and our lesson materials would need to be revised to ensure tasks reflected an even progression of difficulty within an acceptable range. After reporting back to management in May the following was decided:

- SE curriculum levels were set at A2.1 – A2.2 (over the course of two 15-week semesters)
- Workshops needed to be conducted on writing can-do statements for teaching staff
- Internal and external validation of statements was necessary

Fergus O'Dwyer, coordinator of the Framework & Language Portfolio Special Interest Group (FLP SIG) in Japan, and BECC FE coordinator Annie Semmelroth conducted our workshops in June and October 2012 respectively. A brief summary of the content of our workshops follows.

Initially, five requirements of can-do statements were highlighted from North (2000):

- Positiveness (worded in terms of what learners can do)
- Definitiveness (describing concrete tasks or degrees of skill)
- Clarity (non-jargon ridden)
- Brevity (captures essential elements in less than 25 words)
- Independence (not reliant on other statements)

Next, a three-step process adapted from Green (2012) asked us to identify:

1. Task (Spoken Production/Spoken Interaction/Reading/ Writing/Listening)
2. Performance (what are we asking the learners to do)
3. Context and Criterion (in what circumstances and how well)

A few task examples taken from our lessons were completed in groups and, once it was thought that all were on the same page with writing can-dos, teachers were assigned an equal number of lessons from either the FE or SE curricula. In an attempt to increase the validity of our statements we were encouraged to work with a partner. Some pairs chose to work separately and meet later to check each other's statements. Others, such as the author, worked with their partner to write them. One advantage of the latter method was the fruitful exchange of ideas and pedagogical reflection that emerged from creating can-do statements for tasks. In some cases it highlighted the importance of clear task instructions and consequently we revised these to be more transparent to students. In a comparable situation when creating tasks from can-do descriptors Negishi et al. noted similar critical reflection benefits that "helped us deepen our insight into language learning and teaching" (2012, p. 150).

One disadvantage of our method was the time taken – at least one hour for each lesson's statements, which equated to approximately 15 working hours out of an already busy schedule. What appeared to be a straightforward process at times turned into a frustrating dialogue when trying to accurately describe tasks by producing clear, concise descriptors. I concur with my can-do writing partner's comment that "they are a nuisance to write but once they are finished I think they'll be useful for teachers and students" L. Lehde (Personal Communication, October 24th, 2012). Indeed writing these statements took time and patience; however, it is hoped future profits outweigh the costs of our labour. The following are five benefits of including can-dos at the beginning of lessons that I have found from my teaching practice. Can-do statements:

1. settle students non-lesson related chatter down.
2. start students thinking about the topic of the lesson, which may help them with activating relevant schemata.
3. provide a quick check for students to self-assess their English capabilities related to the goals of that lesson.
4. give an opportunity for teachers to monitor and note how their students rate themselves with regard to task capabilities.
5. encourage the teacher to cover all the learning points for that lesson.

Furthermore, Nagai & O'Dwyer have noted studies by O'Dwyer (2010), Sato (2010) and Collet & Sullivan (2010) saw "great successes in improving learners' ability to learn" (2011, p. 150) as a result of the self-regulatory process facilitated by can-do statements. At the BECC with revised validated statements forthcoming we hope for clearer lesson aims that will help us better organize our curricula, benefitting our whole language learning community.

A task with completed can-do statements taken from the SE Advertising lesson (*Lifestyles and Culture* unit) is discussed below.

Task 1. 	**Talking about products/services** • Write answers to the three questions below for yourself • Ask and answer the same questions with two classmates e.g. What soft drink do you usually buy? Coca Cola. Reason: Because I like the taste	
Name:	**Product/Service**	**Reason**
1. What shampoo do you usually buy?		
2. Which phone company do you use?		
3. What soft drink do you usually buy?		

Figure 1. Task 1 from Advertising in the SE *Lifestyles & Culture* unit

Original can-do statement:
I can say which products I usually buy and why.

Revised can-do statements (draft):
I can write which products and services of personal relevance I purchase and provide reasons why using simple language.
I can ask and answer simple questions about products and services of personal relevance I purchase provided I can use prepared speech.

What can be noted from the revisions above is a more detailed description of what learners are asked to do. This entails the inclusion of both written and spoken interaction tasks, and language that attempts to illustrate conditions (prepared speech) and criteria (of personal relevance/simple). These revised can-do statements were then checked by our FE coordinator who suggested we change *of personal relevance* to *everyday* with the reasoning that an item of personal relevance is more subject to variation dependant on a person's occupation/interests.

Revised can-do statements (final):
I can write which everyday products and services I purchase and provide reasons why using simple language.
I can ask and answer simple questions about everyday products and services I purchase provided I can use prepared speech.

The final statements above are not likely to be introduced into the advertising lesson in their current form. The complete revision of can-do statements (including the FE curriculum) is now in its external validation stage. This entails checking by a noted CEFR-J specialist, Professor Naoyuki Naganuma, from Tokyo University of Foreign Studies. After this, the can-dos along with the curriculum will once again be revised as outlined by the BECC's assistant director below:

> Future steps include pegging each validated statement under its closest umbrella can-do statement in the CEFR-J grid, and then adapting the wording of that can-do to meet our learning context. The adapted CEFR-J statements will become the new communicative language proficiency goals of the GE curriculum. Finally we will make a plan to align our curriculum more closely to the CEFR-J by observing what CEFR-J can-dos are missing from our curriculum, and what tasks lay outside of our target CEFR-J bands. J. Bower (Personal Communication, November 20, 2012).

Our project is currently on target for completion by February 2012.

Conclusion

The alignment of the BECC curricula to the CEFR-J certainly has its merits. It provides us with a central organizing principle for our curricula and it promises clear objectives for lesson tasks in the form of can-do statements. Furthermore, collaborating with colleagues on curriculum related matters has spurned rich and productive pedagogical conversations. However, the writing of valid can-do statements for an existing task-based curriculum is a time-consuming and messy process with the added cost of feeling frustrated while trying to articulate these concise descriptors accurately. Whether our language learning community will reap any benefits is yet to be seen. Future research about student perceptions of can-do statements as a language-learning tool would now seem prudent and is forthcoming from this author.

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Strategies for Developing Students' Oral Proficiency in a Foreign Language

Yelena Gorodetskaya & Natalya Rogovaya
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

As far as the ability to function adequately in foreign countries is an important goal for most foreign language learners, it is necessary for language teachers to identify effective strategies for teaching oral skills in the classroom which will maximize opportunities for development of useful levels of speaking proficiency. Some examples of exercises for oral practice intended for novice, intermediate and advanced level students are given in this paper.

Key words: *oral proficiency, oral practice activities, role-plays, conversation cards*

Introduction

In recent years, much of the discussion relating to proficiency-oriented foreign language teaching and testing has focused on the development of students' oral skills. The emphasis on speaking proficiency can be attributed to a variety of factors, one of which is that many foreign language students continue to list speaking abilities as one of their primary goals of study, either because they would derive some personal satisfaction from being able to speak a second language or because they feel it would be useful in pursuing other interests and career goals. It is also evident that oral proficiency in a foreign language can be an important asset for anyone seeking employment in business and industry in the 21st century.

This emphasis on oral proficiency does not and should not mean that other skill areas ought to be neglected in the language curriculum. However, because the ability to function adequately in speaking

continues to be an important goal for most foreign language students, it is necessary for language teachers to identify some effective strategies for teaching oral skills in the classroom that will maximize the opportunities for the development of useful levels of oral proficiency.

In designing contextualized oral practice activities, it is important to adhere to certain principles such as those suggested by Slager (1976).

These principles are as follows:

1. The situation depicted in an oral practice activity should be relevant and immediately useful to the learner.
2. The context should reflect the level of sophistication of students and their knowledge of the world.
3. The language is, at all times, natural, reflecting the conditions of elicitation of certain types of structures in natural language use.
4. Answers required of students should have truth value in that students are not asked to say in the language classroom something they would not want to say in a genuine communicative situation.
5. Characters used in stories, dialogues, or other short contexts are realistic in that they have some personality and relate to the learners' experience in some way.
6. Practice activities are based on other sociolinguistic norms.
7. The language sample on which the practice is based should be short enough so that students have little difficulty remembering it, but long enough to provide necessary context.

With these principles in mind, let us examine a few example exercise types that are pre-communitive in nature, constituting structured or monitored practice suitable for building oral proficiency in the novice and intermediate ranges.

In designing oral activities teachers should remember that sequencing activities for practice should be based on integrating lesson materials into a single theme, context or general situation, instead of jumping from one context or topic to another. Unfortunately, the latter practice is the norm in many language classes in which course materials are not contextually or thematically organized.

It is worth mentioning that students should be encouraged to express their own meaning as early as possible in the course of instruction.

The following types of activities represent some of the formats that are most conducive to personalized practice.

Personalized Questions

In this most familiar format for personalization, students answer questions directed to them as individuals, using the vocabulary and structures they have been learning and practicing in other drill sequences. Questions are normally open-ended, but enough guidance is provided to help shy or reluctant students to express their point of view in the second language. Personalized questions can be addressed to individuals within a whole-class instruction format or used by students in pairs or small groups to interview one another. If the latter format is used, follow-up activities are useful for several reasons: 1) they encourage students working in small groups to be task-oriented; 2) they show students that their answers are of interest to others and are worth remembering; 3) they allow students to transform answers to a third person, helping them to develop the ability to narrate or report facts, feelings or preferences – language functions that are featured at the Intermediate level and beyond. The idea of this activity was borrowed from *Canadian Modern Language Review* (1982), but the questions were adapted to the real situation of our students.

Example 1 (Intermediate/Advanced)
Context: *Predictions about the Future*
Grammar Topic: *Future Tense*
Student Task: *Personal Predictions. Answer the following questions orally*:

1. What will you have done before you're 50 years old?
2. Will you have learned another foreign language before leaving university? Which one, or (if you're an optimist) which ones?
3. What countries will you have visited before reaching the age of 45?
4. Will you be married before 2015? Why or why not?

Example 2 (Advanced / Superior)
Context: *Issues for Debate (various controversial topics)*
Student Task: *Personalized questions that ask students to give an opinion, support it, argue with others who oppose it, etc., are appropriate for learners at the Advanced level. Here are some personal viewpoint questions that can lead to debates and extensive discussions*:

1. Should grades be eliminated?
2. Is euthanasia justified?
3. Should foreign students in Russia be allowed to work to finance their studies? Etc.

This type of personalized question is a whole-group activity in which students practice the function of supporting and defending opinions actively and purposefully, using appropriate target-language formulas.

Personalized Completion

In this type of format, students complete a series of sentences, restore an incomplete paragraph or think of multiple possibilities for developing the ideas suggested by the teacher.

Example 3 (Advanced / Superior)
Context: *Energy Issues*
Grammar Topic: *Conditional Sentences*
Student Task: *Student at the Advanced level practice hypothesizing and supporting opinions relating to energy issues in the following situation*.
Imagine that the following events are to happen one day, or that you're discussing what you would have done if they had happened in the past. Complete the following sentences according to your own opinion. Then compare your answers to those of your classmates.

1. If there is a serious accident at the nuclear plant in my area...
2. If solar energy becomes very popular…
3. If all the coal reserves in the world were suddenly depleted…
4. If we had never paid attention to the danger of pollution…

Sentence Builders

By using elements of sentences provided in columns, students make their own statements, choosing whichever elements they wish to use in order to express personal meaning. The guidance and structure inherent in sentence-building activities make them especially useful for novice learners. Students can feel successful at expressing quite a number of ideas and original statements within a very limited grammatical and lexical corpus, as the following example illustrates:

Example 4 (Beginner)
Context: *Weekend plans*
Student Task:
1. List the activities you could do this weekend (Example: I could go to the movies).
Weekend activities:

- to play basketball
- to eat in a restaurant
- to leave home
- to ride a bike
- to go to the movies, etc.

2. Identify the activities you are not able to do and explain the reason whenever possible.
Reasons:

- I'm not free.
- I'm lazy.
- My mother (brother, sister) is ill.
- My parents don't want that.
- I'm helping at home.

Personalized True / False Statements

Also known as "agree / disagree", this adaption of the true/false format allows students to react to controversial statements on a particular topic by stating simply whether they agree or disagree and modifying any statement with which they disagree to make it congruent with their own views. Besides encouraging students to process each statement for meaning, this task allows them to respond in terms of the truth value the statement holds for them personally. Here are a few example statements relating to university life that illustrate this format.

Example 5 (Beginner / Intermediate /Advanced)
Context: *University Students' Life*
Student Task: *Students are asked to agree or disagree with the following statements*:

1. In general, students are never tired.
2. The teacher works a lot, but the students work harder.
3. Students are never interested in community problems.

Another example of active communicative interaction among students may be **Group Decision-Making Activity.**

Example 6 (Advanced)
Context: *Picture Story*
Objective: *To create an original story by synthesizing the contributions of all group members*
Functions: *Telling and listening to stories, recounting events, hypothesizing*
Student Task: *The teacher chooses from magazines several pictures that depict people in odd situations or show several people in some type of conversation. The more "interesting" the situation (or the more ambiguous), the better. The teacher mounts the picture on construction paper and affixes a sheet of lined paper to the back.*

The teacher then distributes the pictures to groups of three to five students, one picture to a group. The students look at the picture and brainstorm for a few minutes to create as many possible questions as the picture can provoke. A group leader may be chosen to write down the questions on the lined sheet or the picture and written task can be passed from student to student as each thinks of a question to ask.

Once the groups have had a chance to generate their set of questions, the teacher collects them (as well as the pictures to which they are attached) and redistributes them, each one to a different group. Group members can read the questions associated with their new picture and agree on a story that will answer all of the questions asked. They must recount their story in the past tense, making sure that the narrative is coherent and complete enough to answer all the questions. A group leader can be responsible for writing the story down as it unfolds, sharing it later with the rest of the class.

There are two other activities that have been particularly popular among classroom teachers. These are (1) interviews and conversation cards and (2) situational role-plays.

Interviews and Conversation Cards (Beginner through Superior)

In this type of activity, students usually interview one another in pairs: one student asks questions provided either in the text or by the teacher (through indirect translation cues or direct dialogue) while a second student answers according to his or her own preferences. Students then change roles, with the second student asking questions and the first student answering them. Teachers often have students take brief notes on their partners' responses or invite several students to report back interesting answers at the end of the interview. Alice C. Ommaggio (1981) suggested the following activity as an extremely flexible format: one can use cards with target language questions of a very simple nature for Beginner-level learners; one can provide native-language cues for Intermediate learners and above, including questions on virtually any topic in any time frame; or one can adapt the personalized questions discussed earlier for practice at the Advanced and Superior levels, incorporating controversial topics and issues that require students to support and defend their opinions.

Example 7 (Beginner / Intermediate)
Context: *University Life. Biographical Information*

Student Task: *The questions are in the native language, requiring students to formulate the questions in their own words in the target language*.

Card 1. *Ask your partner*:

- what town he/she is from,
- if he/she lives in the University dorm,
- if he/she prefers to study in the library or in the dorm,
- if he/she likes to eat at the University cafeteria.

This particular interview technique has been used very successfully at all levels of instruction, and students have repeatedly mentioned this activity format in very positive terms in course evaluations at the end of the semester.

Situational Role-plays

In role-plays, a situation is presented to a small group of students who may prepare their parts, if necessary, and then act them out for the rest of the class or record them on videotape for playback later.

Role-plays can be used effectively at virtually any proficiency level. For students at the Beginner level highly structured role-play cards can be designed, with vocabulary hints or partial dialogues supplied, based either on material already covered in class or on the simplest survival situations. Intermediate learners can practice role-plays designed around typical situations, such as those used in the oral proficiency interview discussed earlier. At the higher levels of proficiency, the role-play can introduce a conflict situation in which someone must persuade someone else to act in a certain way, or talk his or her way out of trouble, or make a complaint.

Role-plays such as these can be derived from lesson themes and structured around a few grammar points or they can be more open-ended. To succeed in helping students build proficiency, teachers should be careful to present role-play situations that are at an appropriate level of difficulty for students.

One of the hallmarks of language users in the Intermediate range and beyond is what they can create with language. In order to develop their ability, the student must have opportunities to learn to paraphrase, think divergently and let their imagination and creativity function as fully as possible. There are four types of divergent-production factors described by B. McLaughlin (1979) that relate to the development of creativity in language use. These factors are: (1) fluency, or the ability to generate a large number of ideas in a given period of time; (2) flexibility, or the ability to produce a diversity of ideas belonging to different classes; (3) elaboration, or the ability to add to or to embellish a given idea or set of ideas; and (4) originality, or the ability to produce uncommon, unconventional, or clever ideas. Drawing on sources from various fields of research on creativity, one can present some classroom-activity formats related to these four factors.

Fluency: Example A (Intermediate)

Making up Questions

Students are asked to generate as many questions as possible that they might use in an interview. They may be given a few stimulus questions first and then asked to develop, in a brainstorming session, some follow-up questions for each one of the original questions.

Flexibility: Example B (Advanced)

Change the Story

Students listen to or read a short story in the target language and then are asked to create a new story from the point of view of one of the characters, changing the time frame to that of another era, imagine a different ending, etc. In doing this, students have an opportunity to be creative with language while practicing the Advanced-level function of narration of past events.

Elaboration: Example C (Advanced)

Cue Insertion

This activity, based on an original composition written by a student, can be done orally or in writing. If this activity is done in= written form, students can be asked to present their new compositions to the class orally during the next class period. The activity requires that students expand each sentence of their original composition by adding more information whenever they see an asterisk.

Student's original composition with cues inserted:

I spent my vacation in a hotel *. The hotel is situated on a little street *. The concierge * was really quiet. He only talked to his wife *. Their garden * was very tranquil and looked out on the street. I often sat on a bench *and looked at the people *…

Originality: Example D (Intermediate\ Advanced)

Inventing Machines

Using a sentence-building format, students develop creative and unusual questions, which others then answer or use as a basis for creating a group story.

Example:

Why did the…	put (a/an)…	in his/her/the…
1. general	1. five francs	1. pocket
2. president	2. cat	2. motor
3. dancer	3. dog	3. drawer
4. bandit	4. kilo of sugar	4. suitcase
5. policeman	5. bottle	5. trunk
Etc.	Etc.	Etc.

Students can either create their own questions by combining elements from the three columns or draw three numbers from a hat to determine their questions. Students working in pairs or small groups can create a short narrative based on the words given above or generate a context from this list of words.

Conclusion

Summing up, it is worth emphasizing that the ideas presented in this paper for encouraging oral practice are only a small sample of those that have been suggested in the professional literature in recent years. The formats of oral activities described above are not meant as an ideal or model to be followed by all language practitioners. Rather, teachers responsible for designing a curriculum will need to consider what guidelines to apply to their own situation, since local conditions and the interests and needs of individual groups of students differ.

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Content-Focused Approaches to Language Instruction

Brent A. Jones

Konan University, Hirao School of Management, Japan

Abstract

Content-focused approaches such as Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) are well-established pedagogical approaches, and gaining attention in a variety of language learning contexts. This article provides a brief overview of these two approaches, especially where they compliment each other, and goes on to describe a Japanese Studies course for management course undergraduates in Japan. The backward design and forward assessment proposed by Fink (2003) provide a framework for designing at the macro (curriculum) and micro (activity) levels.

Keywords: *content-based instruction (CBI), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), curriculum design, instructional design, forward assessment*

Introduction

This article argues for content-focused English language instruction as an alternative to traditional skills-based approaches, and offers general ideas for both overall course design and day-to-day lesson planning. The example of a Japan Studies (JS) course taught for Japanese students enrolled in an undergraduate management program in Japan is used to illustrate how focus on content can be used to promote second-language acquisition. We start with on overview of content-focused approaches, briefly describing both content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL). We then offer ideas at the macro (curriculum planning) and micro (individual activities/tasks) levels, with reference to the JS course.

Overview of Content-Focused Approaches to Language Instruction

Our preference for a content-focused curriculum stems from findings in the fields of language teaching and second-language acquisition related to Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and more recently Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Although the practice of learning (and teaching) a new language via authentic subject matter has a long history, it is only recently that empirical studies have been seriously undertaken and that clear examples and viable templates have been published (see, for example, Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2003). The rationale outlined by these authors is that a CBI curriculum: (1) offers learners the necessary conditions for second language learning by exposing them to meaningful language; (2) builds on the learner's previous learning experiences in the subject matter, the target language, and in formal educational settings; (3) takes into account the interests and needs of the learners through their engagement with the academic subject matter and discourse patterns that they need to master; (4) allows a focus on (communicative language) use as well as on (accurate) usage; and (5) incorporates the eventual uses the learner will make of the language through engagement with relevant content and L2 discourse with a purpose other than language teaching.

The dominant models of CBI have been (1) Theme-Based Language Instruction, (2) Sheltered Content Instruction, and (3) Adjunct Language Instruction. These and other CBI models differ from one another in terms of being content or language driven. Table 1 highlights some of the characteristics of each.

Table 1. Characteristics of Content and Language Driven CBI Curriculums

Content-Driven	Language-Driven
– Content is taught in L2. – Content learning takes priority. – Language learning is secondary. – Content objectives determined by course goals or curriculum. – Teachers must select language objectives. – Students evaluated on content mastery.	– Content is used to learn L2. – Language learning takes priority. – Content learning is incidental. – Language objectives determined by L2 course goals or curriculum. – Students evaluated on content to be integrated. – Students evaluated on language skills/proficiency.

Theme- or topic-based language courses are used to bring subject matter into the language classroom. The materials chosen provide a springboard for analyzing and studying language. In comparison, sheltered courses are content courses that include help with target language meaning and subtleties. Finally, the adjunct model involves separate but coordinated classes, one with a focus on the content and the other with language support related to that content.

In terms of instructional format, the three models differ in the degree of explicit integration of language and content (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2003). Figure 1 shows how each of these models falls on a CBI continuum.

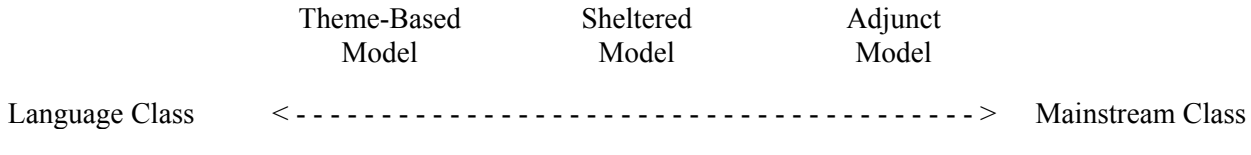

Figure 1. Content-Based Continuum

Some key characteristics of each model are listed below (Source: Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2003).

Adjunct Model

- Students are expected to learn content material while simultaneously acquiring academic language proficiency.
- Content instructors and language instructors share responsibility for student learning.

Sheltered Model

1. Learners are given special assistance.
2. Sometimes two teachers can work together to give instruction in a specific subject.
3. The Content Specialist will give a short lecture and then the English Specialist will check that the students have understood the important words by reviewing them later.

Theme-Based Model

- The goal of these courses is to help students develop L2 skills and proficiency.
- Themes are selected based on their potential to contribute to the learner's language growth in specific topical or functional domains.
- Theme-based courses are taught by language instructors to L2 learners who are evaluated in terms of their language growth.
- Content learning is incidental.

The CBI approach is often compared to (1) English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which usually is for vocational or occupational needs, and (2) English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The goal of CBI is to help students acquire a new language using the context of specific subject matter. The assumption is that students learn the language by using it within the specific context. Rather than learning a language out of context, it is learned within the context of a specific academic subject. CBI has also been gaining attention in the EU.

> The integration of language & content teaching is perceived by the European Commission as "an excellent way of making progress in a foreign language". CBI effectively increases learners' English language proficiency & teaches them the skills necessary for success in various professions. With CBI, learners gradually acquire greater control of the English language, enabling them to participate more fully in an increasingly complex academic & social environment. (Wikipedia)

In CBI, there is a move away from teacher as instructor to teacher as facilitator, with an emphasis on cooperative learning. This results in new arrangements and possibilities for learning, such as in the jigsaw classroom, where students become "experts" on one part of a group project and teach it to the others in their group. For example, in the European Studies course in our program (see below), the syllabus is explicit about what is meant by cooperation and student responsibilities:

Student-led research and weekly schedule

Students will conduct ongoing individual research and are required to become experts on one EU and one non-EU European country. They are expected to keep up on its news throughout the term.

Putting learners at the heart of the learning process fits well with the aims of our overall curriculum (not only language study), i.e. to mesh instructional strategies such as:

> *PBL* (Problem-based or Project-based Learning)Learning via complex, multifaceted, and realistic problems

ABL (Activity-based Learning)Learning through actively exploration and experience
SDL (Self-directed Learning)
Learning through one's own efforts

CBI is a way of putting these strategies to work and helping students realize their language learning potential. How CBI works in practice is harder to pin down, and some instructors require more concrete, step-by-step support. Although CBI is still referenced in second language acquisition literature, some academics have taken to the concept of content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

According to the Content and Language Integrated Learning page on the European Commission website (2012), CLIL is an approach to teaching and learning that involves subjects being taught through the medium of a language other than that normally used in class, and in that respect is the heir to a number of successful partial immersion programs. A benefit for the learner is that they can gain new knowledge about subject content while at the same time coming into contact with, learning about, using and improving the L2 or other foreign language. Knowledge of the language in the context of the highly technological societies of the twenty-first century helps students simultaneously develop core skills and competencies in their L1, e.g. critical thinking, problem solving, creativity and innovation, communication, collaboration, information and ICT literacies, self-initiative, social interaction, productivity, and leadership (for a related discussion, see Framework for 21st Century Learning, 2012 on the Partnership for 21st Century Skills website).

It is important to note in relation to the English program outlined in this article that while CLIL emphasizes the need to teach the subject and new language in tandem, it does not represent a top-down methodology welded on to the curriculum. In fact, it allows for a number of methods for language and content teaching.

The benefits of a CLIL approach are numerous, and may form a good match for our program aims moving forward. Increased motivation raises the potential for enhanced performance in and production of both language and content, greater confidence in both English and the L1, and sharper thinking skills. A further advantage in an increasingly competitive job market, and especially given that our students are Management majors, appears to be in developing an intercultural mindset which will potentially make them more employable, while serving them well when embarking on their careers.

Content-Focused Approach in Practice

Students in our program take five 90-minute English classes each week in semesters one and two, and then four 90-minute classes in semester three. All courses in these first three semesters are required. Depending on proficiency level, they are then eligible to register for elective courses, workshops and projects taught in English. Table 2 gives an overview of the English curriculum.

Table 2. English Language Curriculum for Management Course Students

Semester	Courses
One (required)	American Studies (2), Speech & Discussion (2), Active Listening I (1)
Two (required)	Global Challenges (2), Discussion & Debate (2), Active Listening II (1)
Three (required)	Japan Studies (1), European Studies (1), TOEIC/TOEFL (1), Business Communication
Four - Eight (electives)	Elective courses taught in English under the headings of (a) Regional Studies, (b) Media Studies, (c) Liberal Arts III, (d) Communication I, (e) Business Skills II

To help readers understand how content-focused approaches work in practice, we will introduce Japan Studies (JS), one of the required English courses in our program. The course description for Japan Studies reads as follows:

Japan Studies is a content-based English course, with an integrated skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) focus. This course will be taught in three-week modules by one teacher, and will cover four broad themes as they relate to Japan: (1) society/culture, (2) business/economy, (3) the environment, and (4) politics/government. Students will be challenged to build on their existing background knowledge and reflect

more deeply on what it means to be Japanese and Japan's role on the world stage. Weekly assignments will be used as a basis for in-class discussions and activities. Students will write short essays on Japan-related themes.

The course goals are listed as:

> The overall aim of the course is to develop English language and critical thinking skills through engagement in the course content. Upon completion of the course, students will demonstrate the ability to (1) read and comprehend passages on topics related to Japan Studies, (2) read, write, and speak about Japan-related issues, and (3) discuss course themes and Japan-related topics of student choice.

As with other courses in our program, there are both language and content objectives. The framework we used for developing JS and other courses in our program was provided by Fink (2003). According to Fink, teachers involved in planning or designing a course are faced with a series of decisions (see Appendix) that can be grouped into three phases of the design process. This framework has been extremely helpful as we develop new courses as well as revise/update existing courses. Another contribution by Fink was his classification of different types of learning: Foundational Knowledge, Application, Integration, Human Dimension, Caring, and Learning How to Learn. This has provided further structure for developing the learning objectives for our courses. Again, the JS course was organized into the four modules: society/culture, business/economy, the environment, and politics/government. Some of the topics and issues covered in these modules were as follows:

Society & Culture – Historical Developments of the Education System, Anime & Manga (including a recent crackdown on extreme manga), Infantilization of Japan.

Business & The Economy – Increasing Emphasis on English in Japanese Companies, Biographies of Famous Japanese Business People.

The Environment – Nuclear Power and Alternative Energy Sources, Eco Model Cities.

Politics & The Government – Structure of the Japanese Government, Challenges Facing the Current Prime Minister.

The remainder of this article is a short list of some of the tasks and activities that were used and the various support/scaffolding offered.

Semester Long Project – We decided that a semester-long mini project would provide some cohesion for the course. Students worked collectively on a Japanese expressions wiki. This involved compiling a list of Japanese expressions such a *wabi to sabi* (taste for the simple and quiet) and *amakudari* (descent from heaven, or golden parachute for retired government officials), and then writing short explanations and examples of usage in English.

Convergent/Divergent Reading – All of the modules included reading assignments. The longest of these were three to four page biographies of famous Japanese businessmen such Soichiro Honda and Akio Morita. To facilitate understanding, we asked students to first read through the whole text out of class and highlight important points. Then, students got together in class with others who had read the same biography, discussed the reading and prepared a one-page briefing sheet and short presentation (convergent task). The following class meeting, students used the briefing sheets to summarize main ideas to others who had read different biographies (divergent task).

Reading Support – We introduced students to clipread (http://www.clipread.com) which is a software that can parse text into lexical chunks, facilitating reading, especially for longer passages. We also used online tools such as Spreeder (http://www.spreeder.com) and Line Reader (http://www.shaks.ws/program.html?2) to help students increase their reading speed.

Shadowing – Targeting improved listening and speaking skills, we used shadowing (repeating after the teacher or online listening material) throughout the course. We emphasized the usefulness of shadowing as an out of class activity, and the importance of following not just the words, but also the rhythm, stress, intonation, etc.

Dictation/Dictogloss – Other listening activities that we recycled throughout the course were dictation and dictogloss. While keeping the focus on the content, we highlighted for students the language-learning benefits of these activities, and encouraged students to practice out of class.

Summaries & Reactions – Students were required to write a short summary of the material covered in each module, together with their reflections on why these issues are important and the connection to their own lives. Some class time was also devoted to examining and discussing the best student examples.

Module Tests – Short tests were also administered after each module. To facilitate learning, we asked students to work in groups to prepare test questions targeting important information.

Peer Assessed Interviews – For the final module (politics/government), the test involved interviewing other students and being interviewed. The class prepared questions in advance, and extra credit questions were prepared on material from earlier modules in the course.

Vocabulary Building – One of the overall goals of our program is to ensure students have receptive and productive knowledge of high frequency vocabulary and the academic word list (AWL). To assist teachers in preparing lessons and better insure appropriate vocabulary focus, we made extensive use of the lextutor site (http://www.lextutor.ca), especially the VocabProfiler which can analyze a text for the first and second thousand words in the General Service List (GSL), AWL words, and off-list words. This was useful for teachers when preparing their lessons.

Conclusion

In sum, a content-focused approach seems to be working in our program, with students being encouraged to use their language skills now, and learn new language "just in time." This approach differs markedly from learning language first in a decontextualized "language for the sake of language" classroom, where it is not clear when, how or even if students will apply the target language skills. At the same time, we have a useful and effective framework for designing new courses and improving existing ones.

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Appendix: Planning your course: A decision guide (Source: Fink, 2003)

Initial Phase: Building Strong Primary Components

1. *Where are you?* Size up the situational factors, including specific context, general context, nature of the subject, student characteristics, teacher characteristics and special pedagogical challenges.

2. *Where do you want to go?* What are your learning goals for the course? Ideally, what would you like students to get out of this course in terms of different kinds of learning: *Foundational knowledge, Application, Integration, Human dimension, Caring, and Learning how to learn:*

3. *How will the students and you know if they get there?* How will you know if the students have achieved these goals? What kinds of feedback and assessment would be appropriate?

4. *How are you going to get there?* Select or develop learning activities that reflect the principles of active learning.

5. Who and what can help? Find resources.

Intermediate Phase: Assembling the Components into a Dynamic, Coherent Whole

6. *What are the major topics in this course?* Create a thematic structure for the course.

7. *What will the students need to do?* Identify the specific learning activities necessary for the desired kinds of learning and put them into an effective instructional strategy.

8. *What is the overall scheme of learning activities?* It can be helpful to create a diagram of the course structure and the instructional strategy, and then find ways to enhance the way these two components work together.

Final Phase: Taking Care of Important Details

9. *How are you going to grade?* Develop you grading system.

10. *What could go wrong?* Debug the design by analyzing and assessing this "first draft" of the course.

11. Let students know what you are planning. Now write the syllabus.

12. *How will you know how the course is going?* How it went? Plan an evaluation of the course itself and of your teaching performance.

Adapting Cartoon Series for Taiwan's Beginning English Classes

Johanna Katchen
National Tsing Hua University, Taiwan

Abstract

Using video as a means of instruction is now routine at university and senior high levels in Taiwan, but at lower levels teachers may be unsure whether and how video can be used effectively. Moreover, there has been little research on how authentic videos can be incorporated into primary EFL teaching. This paper reports on initial steps of a project that investigates how classic international cartoon series can be adapted for use in primary schools in Taiwan. Contents of textbooks were surveyed with regard to topics, vocabulary and grammar. Selected cartoons were matched to some lessons and appropriate activities developed.

Key words: *primary school EFL, video, cartoons, materials development*

Introduction

In Taiwan, for many years formal study of English began in junior high school (the 7th grade), but from 2001 this was brought down to primary school (the 5th grade) and in 2005 to the 3rd grade. While island-wide formal English study begins in the 3rd grade, in Taipei City and New Taipei City it begins in the 1st grade

In Grade 3, 70% of instruction should focus on listening and speaking and 30% on reading and writing, in Grade 4 the ratio should be 60/40, and from Grade 5 on the ratio should be 50/50 (Hsinchu County Guidelines, 2012). Classes in the first two years typically meet two times per week, each session lasting 40 minutes; the time is increased to three hours per week in Grade 5. Textbooks are independently written but must follow Ministry of Education guidelines with regard to suggested vocabulary and sentence patterns.

Cartoons as Supplementary Teaching Material

In a section on teaching contents, Hsinchu City Government (2012) states: "Teachers are recommended to use the situational instruction to allow students to practice conversations in meaningful simulated contexts … to enable students to understand the semantics through the activities of simulated situations, and then construct the rules of the language and be familiar with the sentences." (p. 12) It further suggests using "… multiple print and audio-visual materials, such as picture books, nursery rhymes, songs, chants (Jazz Chants), simple stories, and cartoons as teaching tools." (p. 14)

Children like cartoons and can learn language from them (e.g., Chang, 2011, on learning vocabulary from animated films). Films may provide higher audio quality, and their longer stories may provide more examples of language used in different contexts as problems are faced and resolved (Chen, 2009). However, most teachers have no idea how to select appropriate segments from animated films, and the preparation of such materials takes more time than busy teachers have. That brings us to short cartoons, which may be easier for classroom teachers to adapt to classroom use. They tend to run about five minutes and have a single theme; even these can be segmented.

Video can be used for two main purposes: providing linguistic input or eliciting linguistic output. Cartoons may be problematic for providing linguistic input because voices may have characteristics making them hard to understand: e.g., the crackly voice of Marge Simpson or the voices of animals with extreme high and low pitches. Some characters are given register or dialect features: e.g., Warner Bros. Tweetie Pie used features of child language; the Top Cat gangster cat used a New York City working class accent. Another

difficulty comes from not being able to see the mouth moving as it actually pronounces the words.

It is suggested here that cartoons can be used for eliciting linguistic output. In order not to overwhelm students, the language should not be too complex. It is even better to have little or no oral language, with the actions revealing the story; thus language learners can tell the story in any language. The purpose is to reinforce vocabulary and structures presented in students' regular lessons. The following three cartoon series are suggested, though not exclusively.

Pingu is a "stop-motion claymated" series of cartoons developed by the Swiss Otmar Gutmann that ran 157 episodes from 1986 to 2007 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pingu). There is no comprehensible spoken language but it is a made up "penguin language" consisting of a series of honking noises. The main character is a little boy penguin along with his sister, parents and grandparents, playmates. The stories are simple and involve typical problems small children may face.

Shaun the Sheep is a spin-off of *Wallace and Gromit*, in the same "stop-motion animated" style, produced beginning in 2007 (80 episodes) by the BBC and a German group. The intelligent main character sheep and his flock face and solve conflicts with the farmer and a group of neighboring pigs.

The Little Mole (*Krtek*) was created by the Czech Zdenek Miler in 1956; since then 44 episodes were produced. There is no real speech, though we hear something sounding like "Hello." The example used here is from *The Mole's Birthday Party* (*Krtek i oslava*, 1995) 5 minutes 04 seconds.

Activities

In the first year, structures such as "What is this?" "What are these?" Appear, in addition to the wish "Happy Birthday". We learn "Who is this?" "What is X doing?" along with common verbs like running, sleeping, jumping and basic objects, body parts, animals. In cartoons, other vocabulary may appear but it is easy to learn because we can see it. For example, in *The Mole's Birthday Party*, we see his friends Rabbit and Frog, but Mole and Hedgehog would be new for Chinese learners.

In The Mole's Birthday Party, we see first Rabbit emerging from his house and looking at a calendar. He takes his tuba and goes to see Mouse (with his horn) and Hedgehog (with his drum). They go to wake Little Mole, who is sleeping in his hole. Leaving Mole, they go to get Frog. Rabbit pulls a bottle of champagne/wine from his tuba, Hedgehog takes out four glasses from his drum, Mouse picks a bunch of flowers. Meanwhile, Mole starts making/baking cookies. When the animals see smoke coming from Mole's hole, they get scared and pour water into it. After Mole's quick digging, he and the cookies float out undamaged from a side hole. All the animals eat cookies, and Mole and Frog dance. With this simple story, the teacher can ask several questions of students or even get students to elicit questions and give answers.

There may be cultural issues involved with any material; the Little Mole is typically Czech. While Europeans may celebrate birthdays with playing music, baking cookies, and drinking champagne, East Asians do not typically bake, nor may they celebrate with drinking wine. Recently Taiwan schools are including lessons in multiculturalism in primary schools, especially about neighboring Asian cultures as we have more foreign brides and multicultural children, "To enhance students' understanding of domestic and foreign cultures, and enable them to compare cultures and respect cultural differences. (Hsinchu County, Government Education Office. p. 10). Thus such issues could be discussed in L1.

Sample Questions for English Learning

Who is that? Rabbit. Is Rabbit happy/sad? Rabbit is happy.
What does Rabbit have? A horn/tuba.
Who is next? Who does Rabbit visit?
Mouse. What does Mouse have? A horn/clarinet.
Who is next? Hedgehog. What does Hedgehog have? A drum.
What is Mole doing? Mole is sleeping/snoring.
What are the animals doing? They are playing music. Mole is waking up. Mole is opening his eyes. Wake up! Open your eyes!
What is in Rabbit's tuba? A bottle
What is in Hedgehog's drum? Glasses. How many glasses?
What is Mouse doing? Picking flowers.
Mole is scratching his head. Why?
Who do the animals visit next? Frog. Where does Frog live? What is Mole thinking? "I have an idea!"

What is Mole doing? Mole has a key. He is opening the door. What is behind the door? What is in the bag? What is in the bucket? Mole is mixing. What is Mole making?

What do the animals see? Smoke. What are the animals thinking? They are scared. Fire, water, put out a fire.

The animals are eating cookies. Having a party. Having a birthday party. Mole and frog are dancing.

Conclusion

Presented here are some very basic ideas for reinforcing grammar and vocabulary and teaching some new related vocabulary, such as mole. There are many possibilities within each short cartoon. Our aim is to match more episodes with more lessons so that teachers can use them to make English learning more attractive to pupils. The next step in this ongoing project is to pilot the materials with children.

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Scientific Abstract Writing Tasks in Teaching English for Specific Purposes

Vera Kolycheva
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper deals with learning language peculiarities of scientific abstracts about chemistry in different varieties of English, and abstract writing tasks in the teaching for English for Specific Purposes.

Keywords: *academic abstracts, classroom activities, Russian English, China English*

Introduction

This paper focuses on work with the students studying Chemistry and Ecology. According to the government programme of education the main practical task for them in learning English is to know how to read and translate scientific literature in their specialty. It is also very important for them to know how to present the results of their scientific work and their scientific experiments in English. This practical task is connected with the problem of teaching English as an International Language (EIL).

Science is a sphere of international communication where the English language plays a leading role. In global science communication is not so much between native speakers as it is between users of English as a

Foreign Language (EFL). For a good understanding of the diversity of Englishes it is important to learn specific characteristics of varieties of English. So, how can we connect teaching English for Specific Purposes with learning the peculiarities of language used in scientific texts in different varieties of English?

We will examine the peculiarities of scientific abstracts in chemistry in Russian English. By "Russian English" we mean the regional variety of world English used by Russian-speaking people for cross-cultural communication, which is influenced by the Russian language and Russian culture (Kolycheva, 2004; Proshina, 2006). The peculiarities of scientific abstracts in Russian English were analyzed in comparison with China English abstracts. The language material was taken from journals on chemistry and biochemistry in Russia and abroad.

Abstract writing (AW) tasks

The purpose of this paper is to provide suggestions for using scientific abstract writing tasks in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and to highlight some of the advantages of these tasks. Let me first describe what I mean by an abstract writing task: it includes any task where the participant must work with an abstract from the scientific literature. Abstract writing skills are necessary not only to write argumentative articles with abstracts but for any scientific work at the stage of looking for scientific information, when a scholar looks through a wide variety of abstracts to find valuable resources for a scientific report, an article or a thesis.

There are several clear advantages to using abstract writing (AW) task in ESP. They are worthwhile because:

1) Practice with abstract writing is based on reading the scientific literature and develops students English language skills.
2) Structuring lessons around reading and writing introduces a wide range of vocabulary, grammar, syntax and knowledge of scientific writing style.
3) Abstract writing develops critical thinking skills and encourages students to write scientific research reports in their future specialty.
4) Abstract writing can help to prepare students for future interactions with speakers of different varieties of English.

English language teachers should consider all varieties of English, not just British standard English or American standard English, in order to prepare students for future interactions with speakers of different varieties of English and to show them that their own English is valued. English language teachers have a choice about which variety of English to emphasize in their instruction to help students prepare for real world interactions.

Now, I would like to present sample classroom activities for the first and second-year students studying Chemistry and Ecology which can be used for learning about intercultural interactions that occur in the globalized world of science.

Objective: To help students to write abstracts.

Material: Scientific texts, dictionaries.

Main Activity: To warm-up ask students' opinions and elicit discussion about different ways of presenting scientific information in their specialty. For example: report, presentation, scientific discussion or article, review, abstract and summary.

Next, students are to formulate the main characteristics of a scientific abstract.

- An abstract is an introduction to the article for the reader.
- An abstract is much shorter than a summary.
- Points in an abstract are more generalized than in a summary.

An abstract is a written speech and it should not have communicative words and expressions that are characteristic for an oral scientific presentation. The ideas are given without profound discussion or detailed descriptions or explanations. It is short and clear, expressing what needs to be said without unnecessary words. The purpose of an abstract is to make the reader interested in the whole research.

Thus, any abstract is an extremely concise summary of the contents of the article, including the general conclusions or the main findings. It provides an overview of the whole article for the reader.

Next, give the students a short scientific text. Ask students to read the text thoroughly, using a dictionary, and then to divide it into logical parts and give each a title, thus making an outline of the text.

Ask students to use the outline to find in the text: 1) the key words; and 2) sentences expressing the main idea(s) of each logical part. Have them condense the sentences they have written out in any way possible, omitting unnecessary details if possible, using 1) infinitive constructions; 2) participle constructions; 3) gerundial constructions, and write an abstract for the text in their own words, using the outline and the sentences that they have written and condensed.

It is possible to ask students to discuss the written abstracts and share views with their classmates.

Another example of a classroom activity:

Objective: To prepare learners for future interactions with speakers of different varieties of English and to show them that Russian English is valued.

Materials: A scientific article in Russian English with an abstract, and scientific abstracts in other varieties of English. (I use China English abstracts from *Web of Knowledge*, Thomson Reuters, 2013). Possible websites to use for this activity include http://wokinfo.com/russian/.

Give students the article in Russian English and ask them to analyze it. (You may put students in pairs or small groups).

First, I ask students to look through the article and think of the communicative function of each compositional part of the article. The traditional structure of articles in the journals under study is: introduction, the experimental part, the discussion of results, conclusion and acknowledgments.

Next, give the students an abstract of this article written by a scientist and ask them to characterize the logical order of information in this abstract discussing the main idea of each sentence. (You may use a chart with questions to characterize the writing.)

What is the logical order of information? What is given first? Is there any statement of the problem? How is the main point presented? Can we find any description of materials and methods there? Is there a statement interpreting the results of scientific work?

You may also ask the students to give a quantitative description of the abstract: How many sentences are there in the text? What kind of sentences are they? Are they simple or complex? How many sentences use: 1) infinitive constructions; 2) participle constructions; 3) gerundial constructions? Are there any syntactical structures that are unusual or special to scientific abstracts?

Then, I give some China English abstracts for the students to analyze in the same way and ask them to compare the results.

Follow-up Discussion: Ask the students about their experience of reading abstracts in the different varieties of English and to sum up the information about similarities and differences of scientific abstracts in the two varieties of English.

For example, in Russian English abstracts, the main point is given first: *A synthetic gene of the B-subunit of* Escherichia coli *heat-labile toxin, optimized for expression in plants, was designed and synthesized* (Ravin *et al*., 2008, 1108 - 1113). At the end of a Russian English abstract, we can usually read about applications of the research or an interpretation of the results is given*: The designed viral system of LTB transient expression can be used to obtain in plants a vaccine against enteropathogenic* Escherichia coli (Ravin *et al*., 2008, 1108 - 1113).

In abstracts written by Chinese scientists in English, the reasons for undertaking the research or an account of the state of the field of research are given first: *Infrared spectroscopy is one of the oldest and well established experimental techniques for the analysis of secondary structure of polypeptides and proteins* (Kong and Yu, 2007, pp. 549-559). The main point is presented at the end of the abstract*: This review introduces the recent developments in Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy technique and its applications to protein structural studies. The applications of FTIR to the secondary structure analysis, conformational changes, structural dynamics and stability studies of proteins are also discussed* (Kong and Yu, 2007, pp. 549-559).

So, the comparison of abstracts shows that there are some specific characteristics of these English varieties. In discourse, Chinese English learners normally come to the point at the end of their writing rather than put the thesis in the opening paragraph. These peculiarities are noted for other kinds of texts and this kind of writing is characterized as indirect by Proshina (2001, p.102). The China variety of English may reveal the following peculiarities in abstracts: lack of a link verb and lack of sentence subject (Proshina, 2007, p.70).

Russian English, syntactically, can be characterized by certain features: avoiding attributive clusters, preferring of-phrases; pre-positioning a key word in an attributive cluster and lack of link verbs. In discourse, Russian English learners normally put the thesis in the opening paragraph. Scientific abstracts written by

Russian speakers of English are normally longer (about 10 sentences) than abstracts written by scientists in China English (about 8 sentences).

Russian speakers of English use a British-American mixture; however, the nativized variety of Russian English is not accepted within the country. Russia English, with its cross-cultural peculiarities, needs to be approved of both by its speakers and by international communicators (Crystal, 1998, p. 86). Russian English is formed under the influence of the students' native Russian language and culture and can convey Russian mentality to other nations (Kachru, 1983, p. 85).

Conclusion

Thus, the comparative analysis of the abstracts has revealed cultural peculiarities of English varieties in the style used for scientific literature. It could be used as a method for teaching English for Specific Purposes and for proper understanding of the diversity of varieties of English. Structuring lessons around reading an article and writing an abstract not only introduces a wide range of vocabulary, grammar and syntax but also helps to develop critical thinking. By analyzing the text. students relate to aspects of what they are reading and become active classroom participants and this will lead to autonomous learning.

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Building an ESP Textbook to Promote Reading Comprehension Strategies

Elena Korotkova

Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper outlines the methodological and psycholinguistic concepts that are drawn upon in the upper-intermediate ESP textbook called *The Urgent Issues of US Democracy*, designed for university students majoring in political fields.

The psycholinguistic approach introduced new text structure knowledge, such as text hierarchy, functions of general and supporting sentences, types of text cohesion and others, into the educational process, whereas the methodological approach involved text structure instruction, reading comprehension strategies and the activities themselves.

An experimental study conducted with students provided evidence that the chosen methodological construct boosted the accuracy of comprehension indexes in ESP learners.

Keywords: ESP, *textbook, reading comprehension strategies*

Introduction

What ideas make an ESP textbook efficient, motivating and thought-provoking? Is it just the text corpus, the package of logically selected activities or the graphic organizers that promote the ideas of the new manual? If so, what reading strategies to boost university students' reading comprehension level should be acquired by textbook users to nurture the reading skills of an accomplished ESP reader?

This paper focuses on both methodological and psycholinguistic concepts that are drawn upon in the upper-intermediate ESP textbook called *The Urgent Issues of US Democracy*, designed for university students doing both bachelor's and master's degrees and majoring in International Relations, Regional and Political Studies, and Public Administration.

The textbook covers a variety of issues relating to the US democratic system such as the US Constitution, checks and balances, the US party system, elections, the presidency, the bicameral Congress, the US court system and others.

The two other indispensable components that lay the foundations of an ESP textbook contributing to mastering better reading comprehension (RC) strategies and attaining higher text comprehension levels are the concepts of text linguistics and a methodological construct comprising text structure instruction, reading comprehension strategies and the activities proper.

We implicitly incorporated the standards of text linguistics, a branch of linguistics that deals with texts as communication systems, into the textbook. Seven "standards of textuality" (after Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981) integrated into our guide were cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.

Cohesion refers to the ways in which the components of the surface text are connected within a sequence. Coherence relates to the ways in which textual concepts and relations are linked and used to achieve efficient discourse communication. The textual concepts fall into three main text patterns, namely: 1. the cause-and-effect pattern; 2. the time order pattern and 3. the comparison-contrast pattern (Bossone, 1979), which manifest themselves in argumentative, expository and narrative texts respectively. Coherence also deals with text integrity and treats the text as a unity of surface or explicitly stated and inferred information.

Text coherence also refers to the text hierarchy or its specificity levels, distinguishing between the general and specific information on several rungs. Intentionality refers to the text producer's attitude and intentions. Acceptability relates to the text receiver's expectation that the text should constitute useful or relevant details or information such that it is worth accepting. Text type, the desirability of goals and the political and sociocultural setting, as well as cohesion and coherence are important influences on the acceptability of a text.

Informativity refers to the extent to which the contents of the text are already known or expected. Situationality deals with factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Intertextuality refers to the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts.

In selecting appropriate texts for our textbook, we assessed them to ensure that they belong to the analytical genre inherent in monographs and longer compositions, have complex vocabulary, syntax, textual and paragraph structures and include headlines and subheads presenting the key points of the text for an upper-intermediate RC level.

The second concept the textbook has been built on is a methodological concept including text structure instruction, reading comprehension strategies and the activities themselves.

The effects of text-structure knowledge on the RC process were studied by Meyer and Rice (1985), Carrell (1985), Tang (1992), Koda (2005) and other researchers. Meyer and Rice (1985) indicated that ESL students using structural information processed and recalled a higher proportion of text concepts. According to Koda (2005) text-structure instruction is intended to reduce gaps in knowledge among ESL readers. The notions of the text structure knowledge play a distinct and significant role in text comprehension by ESL learners with high comprehension indexes.

However, studies of L2 instruction indicate that in the case of low-proficiency students logical structure awareness training endangers comprehension benefits in both expository (Carrell, 1985; Tang, 1992) and narrative texts (Kitajima, 1997), as underdeveloped information-extraction reading skills overburden working memory capacity and diminish attention space for global text features.

Thus, it was postulated that text-structure instruction was indeed relevant for developing the textbook in question due to the novelty of some textual structure information and the substantial comprehension gains such training could entail. Readers benefited from the supporting advantages of text-structure instruction that focused on presumably unknown text structure information such as text hierarchy (general and specific information), levels of specificity, and distinguishing topic sentences from supporting ones, modes of developing text ideas, topic and main idea detection, establishing the rung and functions of the general and specific textual information, detecting cause- and-effect, contrast-comparison and time-order text types, defining the means of text cohesion and relating them to text types, and others. Here is an example of one form of such instruction:

- To find the **Topic** or **Topic Sentence (TS)**, ask the questions: Who or what is repeatedly mentioned or referred to in the paragraph?
- To check for **a topic sentence (TS),** look for a general sentence with the following characteristics:
- It can be used to sum up the main idea of the paragraph;
- To find **the Main Idea (MI),** ask questions like the following:
- What new information does the author want to give about the topic?
- What one idea does the author explain or develop most thoroughly?
- What one message or point does the paragraph communicate?

Sometimes the instruction is included in the task itself:

Look over the whole text quickly. Complete the headlines defining the main idea of every numbered paragraph.

The following two steps can help you find the main idea of a selection:

In order to	Ask the question
Find the topic	"What is the reading about?'
Find the main idea	"What does the author say or believe about the topic?"

Paragraph I - The US Congress with its two chambers ….
Paragraph II – The 17th Amendment, adopted in 1913, ….
Paragraph III - The two Houses of the Congress, the Senate and the House of Representatives…
Paragraph IV - The Congress ……

Here is another example of supporting sentence instruction with a follow-up activity:

- In paragraphs containing a TS, the supporting sentences supply the specific details that make it clear and convincing.
- When the main idea is implied rather than stated the supporting sentences combine to suggest it.
- When there is no main idea, the supporting sentences describe the topic and list its important characteristics.

What do the following ideas stand for? Read the text again and find the support for them:

Main idea	Support
The procedural conception of democracy	
Indirect (representative) democracy	
Rival institutional models	
Majoritarian model	
The pluralist model	

Here is another example of cause-and-effect instruction and a follow-up activity:
Sometimes events form a cause-and-effect chain reaction:

- The cause is the reason for something happening.
- The effect is what happens.
- Cause and effect work together. Cause precedes effect.
- Cause must be directly related to effect.
- A sequence of events show cause-and-effect only when one event leads to another.

Now specify the cause-and-effect relationships and complete the following grid.

Cause	Effect
As the Virginia sector of Washington D.C. was unused by the government for half a century...	
	Vice-president succeeds to the presidency
Several states had had experience councils made up of several members…	
	The amendment enables the president to name a vice-president

So, hierarchical text training, detecting TS and MI and specifying various text types with diverse logical patterns all direct students' attention to text-organization clues, including headings, subheadings and paragraph topics.

On the premise that visualization of text organization enhances text memory, the benefits of graphic-aid instruction have also been rather extensively exploited in our textbook. Consistently positive results from these clearly indicate that virtually any effort to direct students' attention to explicit and inferred text cues, highlighting key information, substantially facilitates main idea detection and retention (memorizing). Unfortunately, low-proficiency students, still preoccupied with decoding, are easily baffled with instructional interventions that require heavy attention to global text features

Moreover, introducing linkage ideas to students still struggling with word-meaning extraction may also induce frustration and confusion. As a matter of fact, timely implementation is vital in virtually all interventions whose execution depends on multiple, previously acquired competences.

Common RC strategies, prediction, self-questioning, clarification, and summarization, are conscious plans or sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of the text. Comprehension strategy instructions in our textbook were designed to help students become purposeful, active readers who are in control of their own reading comprehension.

In our textbook a wide range of RC strategies suggested by reading programs and educators were used. They are: 1. monitoring comprehension; 2. metacognition; 3. graphic and semantic organizers; 4. answering questions; 5. generating questions; 6. recognizing text structure and 7. summarizing.

Students who are good at monitoring their comprehension have strategies to "fix" problems in their understanding as the problems arise. Research shows that instruction, even in the early grades, can help students become better at monitoring their comprehension.

Comprehension monitoring instruction teaches students to: be aware of what they understand, identify what they do not understand and use appropriate strategies to resolve problems in comprehension.

Metacognition or drawing inferences can be defined as "thinking about thinking." Good readers use metacognitive strategies to have control over their reading. Before reading, they might clarify their purpose for reading, preview the text and make predictions about the meaning of the text content. During reading, they might monitor their understanding, adjusting their reading speed to fit the difficulty of the text, "fixing" any comprehension problems they have. After reading, they check their understanding of what they have read.

Graphic organizers used in our book are, where possible, tables or grids. They help our readers focus on concepts and understand how they are related to other concepts. Moreover, they help students write well-organized summaries of the texts.

Looking for answers to questions gives students a purpose for reading, focuses students' attention on what they are to learn, helps students think actively as they read, encourages students to monitor their comprehension and assists them in reviewing content and relate what they have learned to what they already

know. Students are asked to specify whether the information they read in a text was directly stated, textually implicit or implied or was entirely from the student's own background knowledge. Learners are taught various types of questions such as factual questions, “think and search” questions requiring students to “think” and “search” for answers throughout the passage, “author and you” questions motivating students to use what they already know together with what they have learned from reading the text and “on your own” questions using the student’s prior knowledge and experience.

Generating questions leads students to become aware of whether they understand what they are reading and to combine information from different text segments.

Recognizing text structure is carried out through the use of story maps. Instruction in text structure improves students' comprehension.

Finally, summarizing strategies help students identify main ideas, connect the main or central ideas, eliminate unnecessary information and remember what they have read.

Effective comprehension strategy instruction can be accomplished through cooperative learning, which involves students’ working together as partners or in small groups on clearly defined tasks. Cooperative learning instruction has been used successfully to teach comprehension strategies. Students worked together to understand texts, helping each other learn and apply comprehension strategies. The tutor helped them learn to work in groups and provided modeling of the comprehension strategies.

In the textbook we followed a conventional pattern of text stages: (1) pre-reading or preparation stage of text processing, (2) while-reading stage, the one which facilitates reading, and (3) post-reading stage or the stage of stimulating both oral and written use of the target language in role games, discussion forums and creative essay writing.

The last point I would like to make is about students’ comprehension levels when carrying out the tasks in this experimental textbook in 2011-2012 (see Table 1). Two groups of students, amounting to 34 people, carried out the experimental tasks in this textbook. The majority of students from the two groups (77%) managed to master RC strategies, showed high results and reached an independent RC level at which they could synthesize text information with their prior background knowledge; 20% of the students attained an interim instructional RC level; and only one student (3% of all students) demonstrated the lowest frustration comprehension level at which students can convert print into meaningful linguistic information.

The results of experimental studies conducted with students in the International Relations department confirmed that the ESP textbook is highly effective and can be used in a 34-hour supplementary course for students majoring in international relations, public administration, and regional and political studies.

Conclusion

To sum up, the ESP textbook *The Urgent Issues of US Democracy*, which is based on the dual concepts of text linguistics and a methodological construct including text structure instruction, reading comprehension strategies and activities, contributes to higher RC indexes due to fostering multiple, effective reading comprehension strategies.

The psycholinguistic concepts in the textbook bring in new notions to the educational process, such as textual information on multiple specificity levels, various modes of theme-rheme development, progress types of textual ideas, etc., whereas the methodological concepts promote complex reading comprehension strategies, such as monitoring comprehension, metacognition, answering and generating questions, and recognizing text structure.

The package of exercises was carefully selected to develop the above-mentioned dual constructs and to contribute to the EFL students’ successful reading comprehension strategies with respect to their reading comprehension level.

The experimental study conducted with students from the Department of International Relations provided evidence that content-based materials, psycholinguistic and methodology concepts boost the accuracy of reading comprehension indexes in ESL learners.

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Creative Thinking in Home Reading Classes for Adult English Language Learners

Svetlana Kotenko
Vladivostok State University of Economics and Services, Russia

Abstract

This article presents methods for teaching the Home Reading course to adult non-native English language speakers based on the story "Our Pursuit of Happiness" by the British novelist, poet, writer for TV, radio and magazines Lynn Peters (1999). Intermediate level students were taught in a way which combines both in-class and out-of-class activities. The purpose of this article is to introduce a variety of methods for building students' linguistic competence, including independent surveys. This paper discusses techniques for expanding students' vocabulary and provides strategies and activities for encouraging students to speak.

Key words: *creative thinking, comprehension, linguistic competence, vocabulary*

Introduction

Reading is a process of interaction between the reader and the text resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to decode the text. Reading comprehension achieves its results when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text being studied and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

The purpose of the Home Reading course is to enhance knowledge of the language being studied. Students not only need to enlarge their vocabulary but they must also understand the gist of a story and process it. Learners in home reading classes develop the analytical skills of understanding the text's message, following or creating logical arguments, figuring out answers, eliminating incorrect interpretations and concentrating on the correct ones. They also develop their creative thinking, which focuses on exploring ideas, generating possibilities and looking for more than one right answer. These kinds of thinking are vital for students' future successful working lives.

Creativity is a modern trend in pedagogics, psychology and other branches of knowledge. Scholars are trying to give an accurate and informative definition of this concept. Robert Harris, an English novelist, educator and a former journalist and BBC television reporter (2012), defines creativity as an "ability to imagine or invent something new and generate new ideas by combining, changing, or reapplying existing ideas." He also points out that it is a process of forming new ideas from other ideas or new solutions from previous ones. According to Harris, creativity is developing new ideas, transforming one thing into another, and making the ordinary extraordinary.

This paper offers some steps towards developing creativity in adult learners in Home Reading classes. Here creativity will be defined as the skill of free thinking, active discussion and deep penetration into the text that enable a person to develop linguistic competence.

How can this development be accomplished? Let us take the story "Our Pursuit of Happiness" (1999) by the British novelist, poet and writer for TV, radio and magazines Lynn Peters.

One of the best techniques for improving learners' creative thinking is to encourage them to work in teams and to present reports. Team-work is helpful when students need to exchange ideas, form judgments and come to conclusions.

Working with a text, the first thing a learner needs to know is the vocabulary that is used to express the facts and ideas that are presented. In teaching new lexis, it is important to enlarge the learners' vocabulary through words they already know. While studying vocabulary in Home Reading classes, students are not only asked to read and translate words and their collocations, but also to explain their meanings by giving synonyms and definitions. After pronouncing the active vocabulary units, and defining them, learners do a series of vocabulary exercises based on the text. Here are some of the vocabulary exercises:

1. Give Russian equivalents for the following words and phrases from the text:
   to serve somebody right, to joke one's way through life, a pinnacle of sheer delight, to make hide-outs, to experience lows, seemingly insignificant moments, a world of mad motorists, a network of close friends and family, one more thing we "gotta have", to equate something with wealth, to view a setback as a challenge.

2. Find synonyms for the following words and phrases:
to put a question to, to recall, to raise children, to challenge, to doubt something, to possess.

3. Make up five sentences of your own using the Active Vocabulary.

4. Translate these sentences into English using the Active Vocabulary:
a) С одной стороны**,** я хочу продать дом, но с другой стороны, мне не хочется переезжать.
b) Такую незначительную деталь очень легко не заметить.
c) Германия пережила период небывалого экономического подъема в начале 60-х.

5. Translate these sentences into Russian:
a) If anyone doubts my ability to handle this, they should say so.
b) This new report represents a challenge to the accepted version of events.
c) Negotiators haven't succeeded in establishing a cease-fire yet.

6. Explain the following words and phrases in your own words:
   the concept of happiness, their delight is unreserved, to take in washing, prom night, where we please, self-conscious.

After mastering the new vocabulary, the speakers participate in brainstorming challenges while discussing the issues featured in the story. They do the following text exercises:

7. Say if each statement is true or false, then give your own point of view.
a) When we think about happiness, we usually think of something extraordinary.
b) For a child, happiness doesn't have a magical quality.
c) The concept of happiness never changes.
d) You may experience little moments of pleasure every day.
e) Even trifles can make you happy.

8. Discuss the following issues:
a) Why are some people happier than others?
b) Some people say "I am happy when other people understand me". Can you say the same about yourself?
c) When do you feel happy? What does your happiness depend on?
d) Find all the definitions of happiness which the narrator gives and choose the one which is closest to yours. Explain your choice.

After working with the text the learners watch a video on a related topic and discuss it.

9. Listen to the interview with Tom Shadyac, a filmmaker, who discusses his documentary *Happy* (2011) in the studio of The Ellen Show Channel (2012) and answer these questions:
a) Who are the happiest people? Why?
b) What are the principles of happiness highlighted by the filmmaker?

Finally, the students carry out an individual assignment to show PowerPoint presentations, manifesting their personal perspective on the perception of happiness.

10. Give a PowerPoint presentation on: My Concept of Happiness.

Conclusion

Experience shows that by implementing the range of assignments outlined here learners are free to generate ideas on based on their active vocabulary. Any of these ideas is worth expressing and accepting. All the learners are involved in class activities and no one is indifferent when participating in class discussion. Watching the video and giving PowerPoint presentations help to develop learners' special interests and to encourage them to work in teams. This gradation of exercises helps learners form speaking skills. The novelty of such an approach is a combination of traditional teaching exercises and new ones involving creativity.

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Peer Tutoring: Creating Enjoyable and Effective Learning Communities

Craig Manning
University of Shimane, Japan

Abstract

This paper investigates the appropriateness and potential of peer tutoring for use in a Japanese university teaching/learning context. It also introduces and examines the ADDIE model as a means to implement new programs. After designing and implementing a new peer tutoring program for remedial English studies, the results of this semester-long study show that introducing peer tutors improved both tutee classroom behavior and academic performance, nearly doubling their achievement gains. It was concluded that the use of peer tutors is appropriate and has a great potential for making education more enjoyable and effective.

Key words: *peer, tutor, tutoring, facilitating, program design*

Introduction

Universities are constantly searching for ways to enhance the educational experiences and outcomes of their students. The benefits of peer tutoring are well documented. Salvin (1989) regards research done on students helping other students learn as, "one of the most thoroughly researched of all instructional methods (p. 52). Given the otherwise vast research base, there remains a widespread absence of peer tutoring programs at the university level in Japan. White *et. al.* (2005) note that the use of tutors in Japan is believed to end when students graduate from high school (p. 4). This paper aims to expose the reasons why peer-tutoring programs are not more common in Japanese university contexts, by systematically creating and examining a peer-tutoring program to support one of the most challenging courses for both teachers and students, remedial English studies. Furthermore, this paper aims to test the appropriateness of the ADDIE model for creating the new tutoring program.

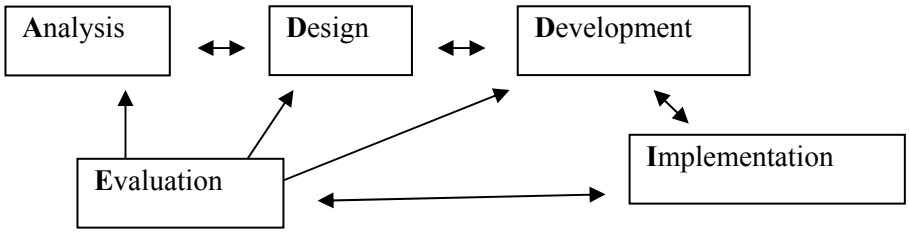
Research parameters

For this study, a sophomore through senior remedial English class was chosen because, having been unsuccessful the longest, these students represent the biggest challenge. This class was split into two groups. The control group and experimental group were determined using even and odd student numbers. Each group consisted of 24 remedial students. Furthermore, eight tutors of various abilities, all higher than the tutees, were recruited for the study. The control group participated in weekly 45-minute remedial lectures, with 45-minute independent study periods. The experimental group participated in weekly 45-minute remedial lectures, with 45-minute small-group study periods that included peer tutors.

Research and design framework for the peer-tutoring program

The peer-tutoring program examined in this study was created using the ADDIE model, outlined in Figure 1. This cyclical model is comprised of five phases. It was chosen because it contains elements of evaluation research and action research, both appropriate for the aims of this study. The process is described in detail below.

Figure 1 The ADDIE Model



(Adapted from Belanger and Jordan, 2000, p. 90)

ADDIE - Analysis

The first phase of the model is analysis. In this case, the resources, issues, and constraints that may impact the successful implantation of the pilot program were examined, as suggested by Belanger and Jordan (2000, p. 89). Qualitative situational analysis predicted a few challenges when implementing the new program. They have been listed in Table 1 along with possible coping strategies.

Table 1 Potential challenges and coping strategies

Potential challenges	Coping strategies
The program could require large amounts of organizational time.	Bring in help. Hire a responsible student to act as an assistant.
The quality of tutoring might be lower than that of a teacher.	Train students enough to be beneficial and prevent negative outcomes.
Training and operating costs	Start small. Stay within the limits of my personal research budget. In time, have experienced tutors train new recruits. Use results to obtain more funding. Work to eventually establish the program as part of the university curriculum, offering credit for tutoring, instead of money.
Need for monitoring	Use peer monitoring.
Need for quality control	Have at least one person available to support tutors during study sessions. Train tutors to delay answering questions they are not certain about until after they ask a teacher.
Social issues, such as tutors and/or tutees being uncomfortable or embarrassed	Explicitly define roles. Allow tutees to choose their tutor each week and to change until they find a comfortable group. Encourage positive reinforcement at all times.

Of the challenges listed in Table 1, time constraints were considered one of the biggest challenges to overcome. A good program design and proper management were predicted to be key factors for success. It was also thought that the program design and management techniques would improve with experience. Starting with a small program would therefore minimize risks while gaining valuable experience that would, in turn, increase the chances for success with future programs.

ADDIE - Design

Documentation of well-established tutoring programs and guides for organizing a tutoring program was collected and examined (Goodlad, 1998; Topping, 2001; Falchikov, 2001; DeMarco, 1993; Boud, Cohen and Sampson, 2001; Schmoker, 1999; Gordon, 2005; Gillespie and Lerner, 2008; Foster, 1992). Recommended and appropriate common features were selected from the literatureto be incorporated into the design, including role definitions and aims, scenario-based tutor training, peer-monitoring performance surveys, and feedback systems.

ADDIE - Development

During the third phase, development, the physical preparations took place. Tutor-training materials were created or adapted from the literature. The main goal for the new program was stated as follows, "To maximize remedial students' learning by encouraging active studying." The roles were specified as:

- TA: Classroom manager; tutor supporter; university employee
- Tutor: Facilitator; peer learner; role model; university employee
- Remedial student: peer supporter; active learner

A 90-minute pre-service, tutor-training session was prepared to improve the effectiveness of the tutoring, as untrained tutors have been shown to be less effective than trained tutors (Falchiov, 2001, p. 138).

Next, feedback systems were created to enable communication between the remedial students, the tutors, and myself. The surveys were filled out by tutors and tutees at the end of each study session. The surveys contain self-monitoring and peer-monitoring questions. However, their primary function is to establish, communicate, and maintain mutual expectations. Mutual expectations have the potential to promote beneficial studying behavior, as studies have shown that "enactment of a role produces changes in behavior and self-perceptions consistent with role expectations" (Bierman and Furman, 1981, p. 33).That is, if students are aware of certain expectations of them, they are likely to try to satisfy those expectations. It was hoped that these surveys would generate beneficial role expectations, leading to active and cooperative learning by remedial students and positive facilitating by tutors.

The weekly surveys would also be used to identify problems in the program's design and implementation so they could be addressed in a timely fashion. In addition, the data would be used to provide anonymous feedback to individual tutors, and possibly tutees. Selected comments would be published anonymously in an action log/newsletter to highlight certain behavior and provide further peer role modeling.

Finally, pre- and post-tests were constructed to measure achievement gains. A representative sampling of questions from the students' workbook were selected, the split half method (Hughes, 2003, p. 40) was applied; odd-numbered questions and even-numbered questions were used to form groups of similar problems from the selected items to create the pre- and post-tests.

ADDIE - Implementation

During the fourth phase, implementation, pre-tests were administered. Both groups attended 45-minute lectures. In addition, the control group studied individually while being monitored by a TA. Alternatively, tutors and remedial students received instruction about the study and their roles in it. Study materials were distributed. The small group size was capped at four, encouraging a 3:1 tutee:tutor ratio. Each week, tutors arrived early to arrange desks and prepare materials. The remedial students were allowed to choose their tutor each week as long as the group size did not exceed four. Ten weekly sessions were held. After each study session, feedback was collected, recorded, and redistributed. Small adjustments were made accordingly, such as providing copies of the remedial workbooks and name-tags for the tutors. The data was also used to determine the weekly goals, such as "Start quickly", "Use names often", or "Try to answer other students' questions". At the end of the semester, post-tests were administered.

ADDIE - Evaluation

According to the ADDIE model, evaluation should be formative, or ongoing, and applied to each phase. The anticipated challenges, outlined previously in Table 1, were fairly accurate and the coping strategies worked to varying degrees of success. There were no new challenges revealed.

Problems with the program's design were identified by systematic flaws observed during implementation. For example, during this study, the time costs were high for consolidating the paper-based survey results. The mark sheet scanner was extremely sensitive and prone to giving erroneous readings. Investigation into alternative survey systems revealed a simple electronic survey system, which uses a free online QR code generator linked to Googleforms. Cell phones were used to automatically link to an online version of the peer-evaluation surveys. This new survey method was implemented successfully. It completely eliminated the need for paper-based surveys and drastically reduced the total time needed to manage the program. The forms can be successfully filled out online in approximately the same amount of time as it took to complete the paper-based copies. If a student did not have a cell phone, using a friend's cell phone has proven to be an agreeable and easy solution.

There were no consistent occurrences of students who had difficulty staying on task in small groups during this study, but transferring students to another class may be considered should this problem occur in the future. A "three strikes and you're out" policy might make the tutoring program seem like a privilege rather than a default option; students who are frequently disruptive will be transferred to an independent study class in the future.

Another major flaw became apparent when one tutee expressed severe social anxiety. He was so uncomfortable working in groups that he was unable to participate in the tutoring program. He was transferred to another class, where he could study by himself. This student with severe social anxiety demonstrated the need for an independent study option. In view of that, the surveys will be monitored closely to identify students facing similar difficulties so they may be quickly transferred to an independent study class.

When evaluating the development phase, analysis of the performance surveys indicated an initial lack of understanding among new tutors about tutoring techniques. The tutors reported not having a clear image of how to apply tutoring techniques until after they had gained some experience. To give tutors a clearer image of how to apply tutoring techniques from the beginning, study sessions were video recorded. As suggested by the tutors, illustrative segments were added to the training material for future training sessions.

To evaluate the implementation phase, the study sessions were observed. Analysis of the peer and self-evaluations was conducted. Additional feedback was collected from tutors and tutees using casual interviews. The results of the analysis showed that overall students seemed to really enjoy studying together. They reported each other as being positive and supportive, staying on task, and doing the things listed on the weekly surveys. There were very few negative comments. This suggests the surveys were mostly successful in facilitating mutual role expectations. Tutee comments also sometimes referred to specific skills introduced in the pre-service tutor training. Since the tutees were not aware of what the tutor training involved, these comments suggest the training was effective and useful to some extent, even if tutors needed some experience before they were able to fully understand it themselves.

Further inspection of the surveys showed tutees were least satisfied when working in groups larger than four. On three occasions one or more tutors were absent and group sizes exceeded four. When the tutee:tutor ratio was 4:1 or 5:1, there were more complaints regarding group dynamics. Larger groups also tended to get off task more easily. To improve tutee satisfaction, a 3:1 tutee:tutor ratio will be consistently provided. Extra tutors will be trained and called upon as substitutes when needed.

Other negative feedback included a tutor chewing gum and remedial students who were slow to start. During the study, both positive and negative comments were compiled and published anonymously in a monthly action log, which was distributed among students, tutors, and teachers. A weekly goal was written on the blackboard of the tutoring classroom, such as "Start quickly". Almost immediately, the sessions started more quickly with no further instances of gum chewing by tutors. These observations suggest the feedback system was effective in influencing behavior. The students and tutors also reported a sense of empowerment because their suggestions were acted upon quickly.

The evaluation phase also includes summative evaluation. Tutees were asked, weekly, if they would like to study with the same tutor again the following week. They strongly agreed 90.1% of the time. When asked if they would rather work independently, the tutees strongly disagreed 99.7% of the time.

The results of the pre- and post-tests, used to measure achievement gains, are outlined in Table 2 below. Due to individual absences, the groups taking the pre-test and post-test were not entirely identical. The average individual gains take absences into account and are based only on the results of students who took both tests, roughly 80% of the total participants. This column may be considered most accurate.

Table 2. Summative evaluation

	Pre-test average (%)	Post-test average (%)	Average class gain (%)	Average individual gain (%) of students who took both pre and post tests
Experimental group (with tutors)	22.6	32.4	+9.8	+12.2
Control group (without tutors)	20.2	25.6	+5.4	+6.3
p-value for experimental and control group data	0.052	1.6E-24	1.1E-21	6.8E-102
Tutors	50.8	53.0	+2.2	+2.2

(p-values were calculated using the one-way ANOVA procedure and verified using the Tukey-Kramer method. p-values greater than 0.05 are not considered statistically significant; the distribution can be considered random. p-values less than 0.05 are considered statistically significant.)

The average pre-test scores were similar for tutees and the control group. Given the tutors' high scores on standardized proficiency exams, such as TOEIC, their low achievement scores suggest that the low averages can be attributed to the extremely difficult workbook chosen by the remedial English instructor. Nevertheless, the study material and test content was the same for both groups and, considering the degree of difficulty, any gains are considerable. Subtracting the pre-test scores from the post-test scores shows that all groups improved. Comparing gains, tutees improved by nearly twice as much as the control group on average, 192.3%.

Several other side effects were observed as well. Numerous professors reported that the tutors, during their advanced English classes, were practicing explaining new grammar points to each other in case something similar arose in the remedial English class. The tutors also began meeting independently for 30 minutes each week in their free time, to solve problems from the remedial workbook in advance, so they would be more prepared to help remedial students understand. In addition, students in other remedial classes heard about the tutoring sessions from their friends and began requesting tutors for their classes.

Conclusion

This study successfully demonstrated that a peer-tutoring program cannot only be appropriate in a Japanese university context, but may also be preferred by students to more traditional approaches. Furthermore, the students working with tutors improved almost twice as much as those studying individually. This study also successfully revealed problems in the program design and tested practical solutions to overcome them. These results will be used to expand the program and a follow-up study will be conducted to determine if similar results can be repeated, or improved upon, on a larger scale. It is hoped that fellow educators will find the ADDIE model and practical knowledge gained through this study useful in their endeavor to make studying more enjoyable and effective at their respective institutions.

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TOEFL iBT® Essays by Students at Different Levels

Yasunori Matsuzono
AGOS Japan Inc., Japan

Abstract

This paper summarizes the results of a move analysis of essays for the TOEFL iBT® Writing Independent Task in order to clarify common problems in essays, at novice and intermediate levels. The data comes from authentic essays written by Japanese university students in accordance with the test format at the beginning of the TOEFL iBT course. The analytical viewpoints are a reflection of two areas: (1) the scoring guideline illustrated in the TOEFL iBT Official Guide textbook; (2) common features of two obligatory moves – a Reason move and an Example move.

Key words: *genre analysis, move analysis, TOEFL iBT® Writing Independent Task, Japanese university students, novice and intermediate levels*

Introduction

Nowadays, an increasing number of Japanese people take the TOEFL iBT® test (Educational Testing Service, 2011) in order to study at an overseas university to specialize in their academic field. Among four sections in the TOEFL test (i.e., reading, listening, speaking, and writing), the writing section, especially the Writing Independent Task, should be given particular stress as a supposedly initial point of producing academic written texts. However, although many Japanese students who prepare for the TOEFL test tend to struggle with this task, few studies have paid attention to research on this task.

With a view to the above argument, the main aim of this paper is, by treating essays for the TOEFL iBT®Writing Independent Task as a genre of TOEFL Independent essays on the basis of Swale's (1990) and Bhatia's (1993) definitions, to summarize the results of a move analysis of students' TOEFL Independent essays in order to clarify common problems in their essays, at two different levels: novice and intermediate. This paper covers the following: (1) elucidating definitions of terms relevant to a genre analysis; (2) demonstrating analytical procedures; (3) providing the findings from the analysis; (4) summarizing major issues applicable to novice and intermediate levels.

Definition of terms relevant to a genre analysis

The best-known concept of genre is illustrated by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993); it is regarded as referring to a sociolinguistic activity which enables participants to achieve specific goals (Henry and

Roseberry, 2001, p. 43). In particular, Swales (1990) makes a clear description of genre as "a class of communication events, members of which share some set of communicative purposes which are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community" (p. 58).

One vital principle in genre analysis is to regard a genre as constituting a series of moves (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Henry and Roseberry, 2001). According to Mirador (2000, p. 47) and Henry and Roseberry (2001, p. 154), a move is the logical maneuver identified in the functional meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in written or spoken discourse, ultimately contributing to a fulfillment of the overall purpose of the genre. For example, Mirador (2000, p. 47) says that the move in a genre of written feedback, General Impression Move, functions to give the tutor's overall impression on the student's assignment. All moves in a particular genre are grouped into two dimensions: (1) an obligatory move that occurs repeatedly and predominantly in a corpus; (2) an optional move that arises at a certain extent but not noticeably (Mirador, 2000, p. 50). In addition, the allowable move over is composed of obligatory or optional moves, representing the supposedly ideal move order in the corpus (Henry and Roseberry, 2001).

Procedures

For this study, twenty Japanese students at a national university wrote essays at the beginning of the class in less than 30 minutes, which is the length of time allocated in the TOEFL iBT Writing Independent Task. They were majoring in a wide variety of fields, such as international relations, economics, engineering, and architecture. Their essays were rated as a rubric score of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 by referring to the scoring guideline shown in the TOEFL iBT Official Guide textbook (Educational Testing Service, 2012a, pp. 209 - 210). The description in the guidelines led us to determine that (1) essays with scores of 5 and 4 were viewed as an advanced level; (2) essays with a score of 3 were regarded as intermediate level; (3) essays with a score of 2 or 1 were marked as novice level. At this stage, it was found that none of the essays was evaluated as advanced level.

The next stage was to investigate the average word count, the average sentence count, and the average paragraph count in essays at both levels. In particular, examining the average word count would be expected to provide meaningful information in light of the guideline from ETS: (1) an effective response is typically 300 words long (Educational Testing Service, 2012a, p. 206); (2) TOEFL Independent essays are rated by a combination of human raters and automated scoring system (Educational Testing Service, 2012b).

The final stage was to identify obligatory moves and their communicative objectives. This identification referred to a typical question format mentioned in the TOEFL iBT Official Guide textbook (Educational Testing Service, 2012a, p. 206), as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. A typical question format and the categorization of three moves

[Question] Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?
[A sentence or sentences presenting an issue will appear here.]
Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.
[Moves and communicative purposes]
1. Answer move: Stating a position
2. Reason move: Giving a convincing reason to support the answer
3. Example move: Illustrating a particular example to support the reason

For the purposes of the study, the move order was examined in light of the typical move order identified in the TOEFL Independent essays: Answer move, Reason 1 move, Example 1 move, Reason 2 move, and Example 2 move (Matsuzono, 2008).

Findings

Overall, among twenty essays, twelve essays were marked as novice level, and eight essays reached the intermediate level. Figure 2 indicates the average word count, the average sentence count, and the average paragraph count, all associated with both levels.

Figure 2. Average word count, average sentence count, and average paragraph count

	Novice – 12 essays	Intermediate – 8 essays
Word count per essay (range)	128.3 (107 - 149)	230.3 (186 - 295)
Word count per sentence	14.3	14.2
Word count per example move (range)	36.8 (11 - 61)	50.7 (24 - 104)
Sentence count per essay (range)	8.9 (7 - 11)	16.1 (11 - 23)
Paragraph count per essay (range)	3.1 (1 - 5)	4.5 (3 - 6)

Interestingly, the average word count per essay at the novice level was nearly half of the count at the intermediate level, although the average word count per sentence at both levels was virtually the same. In addition, the average sentence count per essay at the novice level was close to half of the intermediate level. Integrating these points has led us to conclude that students at the novice level need to add more sentences to the essay, not add more words in each sentence, to reach the ideal word count of about 300 words. In terms of the paragraph count, at an intermediate level, although the average paragraph count was 4.5, the range of the paragraph count varied widely from three to six, which does not accord with the ideal paragraph count of four suggested by my previous research (Matsuzono, 2008).

The identification of moves and move order made it clear that seven essays at the novice level did not follow the clear move order typically identified in TOEFL Independent essays (Matsuzono, 2008). It is sufficient to say that this impedes raters from smoothly reading the essay, which leads to the need for students at the novice level to learn about the basics of paragraph writing.

In terms of the characteristics identified in the three moves, while no specific points were discovered in the Answer move, most essays contained one or more reasons in the Reason move which were regarded as either ambiguous or unconvincing. Moreover, students at an intermediate level showed a strong tendency towards three reason moves and three example moves, as indicated in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Number of Reason move and Example move

[Novice - 12 essays]

	Reason	Example
0 move	0 essays	2 essays
1 move	2 essays	5 essays
2 moves	9 essays	5 essays
3 moves	1 essays	0 essays

[Intermediate - 8 essays]

	Reason	Example
0 move	0 essays	1 essays
1 move	0 essays	1 essays
2 moves	2 essays	2 essays
3 moves	6 essays	4 essays

In retrospect, the average word count per essay at the intermediate level does not exceed the ideal word count of about 300 words, and the average word count per Example move was about 50 words (see Figure 2). Taking into consideration both these facts and the allocated length of time for the TOEFL Independent Task (i.e., 30 minutes), it would be safe to say that students at the intermediate level should reduce the number of reasons and examples from three to two, which would allow them to spend more time giving more convincing reasons and adding more words to examples.

Conclusion

The main aim of this paper has been, by tackling TOEFL Independent Essays as a particular genre, to conduct a move analysis of students' essays and elucidate on common issues of these essays at novice and intermediate levels. What follows is a summary of major issues at each level.

Advice on essays at the novice level:

- Add more sentences to the essay in order to reach a word count of about 300 words
- Learn about the basics of paragraph writing
- Describe clear and convincing ideas as reasons
- Advice on essays at the intermediate level
- Ideally construct a four-paragraph essay
- Ideally include two reasons and two examples
- Explain clear and convincing ideas as reasons and add more words to examples.

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Autonomy, Agency and Altruism

Tim Murphey
Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan

Abstract

In this workshop I playfully looked at the history of humanity (only the last 6 million years!) and combined that with some views on our agency, social capital, and altruism. I emphasized our development from "animals in risk of extinction" to ones that have created cultures and theories of mind, and who are now evolving into full blown social altruists who want meaningfulness in their lives and greatly desire to help others.

Key words: *autonomy, agency, altruism, anthropological linguistics, neurology, imagining*

Collaboratively Energizing Our Imaginations

I started my presentation by teaching a playful speed dictation which had people asking each other the question, "What are you doing now?" every five or ten minutes during my presentation. Participants were invited to answer with what had been dictated: "I'm collaboratively energizing my imagination with you!" By the end of the presentation, most participants understood that this phrase encapsulated the main points of my presentation: i.e. *we are social collaborating creatures who are energized by using our imaginations agentively, especially for the benefit of others*.

To stir up their imagination further, I invited them to consider three out of the box ideas:

1. Information is over-rated. Questions are at the heart of learning. (Rodiger & Finn, 2009)
2. Success is over-rated. Challenge is what we crave. (Sapolsky, 2009)
3. Teaching and telling are over-rated. Experience drives motivation. (Dewey, 1916)

Struggling with possible questions and answers creates neurological networks that are more robust than simply having information thrown at you. To walk my talk in #1 above, I invited participants to consider a series of questions (as readers can pause and do as well):

1. Why did we stand up 6,000,000 years ago?
2. Later, why did women start birthing earlier? From 13 months down to 9 months?
3. What changes did early birthing cause in our group?
4. And finally: Why is a turtle trying to fly more beautiful than a bird sitting in a tree?

Anthropology

Anthropologists' best guesses are as follows: 1. Curiosity, e.g. we wanted to see farther. 2. Because we stood up, it changed the birth canal in women and they started having babies earlier. 3. They think that the number of our species may have gone down drastically at first because we did not know how to take care of immaturely born babies. Gradually caretakers began spending more time with the infants to take care of them and this increased caretaker-time also became bonding and communication time. Spending more time with infants and communicating with them (the beginning of parental babbling!) allowed them to live longer, developed communication skills, and brought people together, mid-wives, to save both the children and the mothers (Lee, Dina, Joaquin, Mates & Schumann, 2010). These communal gathering and help from others is where the phrase "It takes a village to raise a child" may have originated. Most probably these early groupings for hunting, gathering food, and having babies, were the start of groupings that later became tribes and cultures and finally civilizations. My main contention now is that, following the social turn in our species, I believe with our amazing mirror neurons and dopamine rushes, we have begun the altruistic turn.

Neurology

The initial drives above – curiosity, adaptability, and parental altruism – are proleptic, i.e. they point to our future, which we are living now and partially understanding from the point of view of neuroscience, i.e. dopamine rushes and mirror neurons. Robert Sapolsky (2009) reports how with primates, dopamine, the neurotransmitter, increases considerable when they find they have more agency, i.e. control over their world. Simple extrinsic rewards work at first to increase dopamine, but later it is the thrill of being in control that really stimulates them, i.e. agency. Ramachandran (2011) hypothesized that about 75 to 100,000 thousand years ago our mirror neurons somehow became hyper active, because of the rapid spread of language, shelter, fire, and tool-use during this time period. He renames mirror neurons "Ghandi Neurons" to emphasize the empathy that they allow us to feel. This developed neurological empathy for others and agency for ourselves, paradoxically combine to make empathetic agency for others, i.e. altruism tied to imagining (PCOIz; Murphey, 2009, Murphey, Falout, Fukada & Fukuda, 2012). The neurological networks in our minds are fractals of the bio-socio-cultural connections we make in communities.

Murphey (2012) writes:

> One of the crucial aspects of our survival that we have developed is our ability to commune, collaborate, and communicate. And the more we exercise our social intelligence (Goleman, 2006) the more we learn and can act autonomously with agency. We would indeed be shooting ourselves in the proverbial foot to cut off the main source of our autonomy which very clearly is our modeling and learning with others in groups. While balancing our time with community and self can be tricky, it is clear that we need both but that at times we err too much to extremes. The birth of the internet of course has taken our contact with others to a new level of intensity (the applause is deafening) perhaps not unlike our earlier premature birthings 6 million years ago. What in the world are we going to do with all these connections, possibilities, and information?

Another good read on community is Briskin, Erickson, Ott & Callanan's (2009) *The Power of Collective Wisdom and the Trap of Collective Folly.* While the authors focus mainly on the positive, the book also describes some of the terrors of groupthink and group protection which continue in different forms to this day. Thus, communing can definitely have its downside with our mirror neurons possibly mirroring unhealthy and terrible things as well as good. On the positive side, we note the amazing increase in the number of NGOs and NPOs in Japan in recent years and the decline in the number of them that are certified by the government (Japan NPO Center, 2006) indicating, I think, that they are not being "good" to be recognized, that they just want to do it!

The Evolution of Diversity Peering and Altruism

After touching on anthropology and socio-neurology, I stepped back in history to mention Darwin and Kropokin (circa, 1902), who both recognized not only the aggressive side of animals but also our playful side and willingness to befriend diversity. I showed a number of slides in which diverse animals have done this with each other. While the mass media found the idea of "survival of the fittest" big news, Darwin and Kropokin actually wrote a lot about community and play among animals as well, and even helpful, altruistic behavior.

In illustrating diversity Stephen Johnson (*Where Good Ideas Come From*, 2010) uses the metaphor of the coral reef and the café as places steaming with diversity, creativity, and activity – a somewhat scary place for many who have not ventured far from the cave. However, it is only in venturing out that we can interact with diversity and "become" someone different through incorporating communities into our mental networks. And once in different communities, our role models tend to shift as our mirror neurons search for models and find mostly people unlike us, and we begin "diversity peering" which is the bringing of diverse people who are quite different from us into our modeling realms, and identifying with them. Children tend to do this often and are adaptable and flexible in these regards. They model not only people but animals and even objects in the world (Murphey, 2012).

Near peer role modeling (NPRMing: Murphey & Arao, 2001; Singh, 2010) in which we naturally find it easier to model and imitate others who are similar to us (near peers) is helpful up to a point. Diversity peering (bringing divers others, unlike yourself, into your realm of modeling) opens up your possibilities for modeling much more and allows you to lead a more interesting life (Murphey, 2012).

I ended this workshop by showing two videos that illustrate activism and altruism. The first is a video made by my students criticizing the English educational system in Japan, called *The Real Voice of Japanese Students*. The second was *The Girl Effect* (2008).With *The Girl Effect*, I asked participants to read out loud the words that rapidly appear on the screen. With my own students in class, after the first viewing, I give them the script and they take it home and look at the video again and keep trying to keep up with the rapidly flashing words. But this linguistic task turns into a more social-identity phenomenon in which they start identifying with the girls and want to help. And the message in the video is that everyone can help change the world by simply buying one school uniform. And when many people do this, educated girls change their communities, their countries, and their world.

Conclusion

Our species initial drives (curiosity, adaptability, and altruism through bonding) have served us well. Identifying with others is a big part of understanding and tolerance. If there is no contact, there is little chance to identify with them. With animal rights and ecological activists, we might even start identifying with all of nature, and finally with Gaia herself (earth) as a living entity (Cates, 2005). These sideways steps of identification are imaginable because our brains are wired (mirror neurons and dopamine) for such imagination to stimulate survival – not just survival of ourselves but of others and the planet because we essentially depend upon each other.

"The entire reach of the biosphere envelope is less than forty miles from ocean floor to outer space. Within this narrow band, living creatures and the Earth's geochemical processes interact to sustain each other" (Rifken, 2009, p. 597). Some people commute 40 miles daily to school or work. It is a thin layer of life, on a large planet, that already has a few holes here and there – not a very thick layer of icing on the cake.

Finally, to end, I sang this song, borrowing from Cervantes's *Man of La Mancha*:

> The greatest madness, the greatest sadness
> Is to see life only as it really is
> And not as it could really be
> Reality is desperately in need of imagination.

Post Script

Why is a turtle trying to fly more beautiful than a bird sitting in a tree? My grandmother told me three things when I asked her: 1) Relax 2) Have a good life, and 3) You'll figure it out.

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In Pursuit of Wow!

Tim Murphey
Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan

Abstract

In this workshop I wanted to give my participants a taste of Wow! of daring to think out of the box, for example that: everyone potentially has an Einstein mind! (Appendix 2), and we need to learn how to encourage it and nurture them along. Teaching in pursuit of Wow! is teaching that looks for those magical learning moments when students' eyes are shining with the joy of discovery and accomplishment.

Key words: *Wow!, improvisation, learning moments, split stories, speed dictations, shadowing, juggling*

Split Story

I started off with the split story (Deacon & Murphey, 2001; Murphey & Deacon, 2002) of Candide. Teachers can begin split stories at the beginning of class and stop them at an exciting point when students are very curious about "what happens next." This curiosity can then be used to promote the learning of our regular content. The story is finished at the end of the class to bring closure to the class and train their minds in persistence, patience, and curiosity.

Speed Dictations

Following the story telling, we did a speed dictation that required participants to help each other and get to know each other. Because it was too difficult for just one person to get it all, we are giving invitations to students to collaborate and become helpful contributors. We need to give more invitations to our students in which they can help each other and know they are needed. I have a collection of quotes and song lines that I collect to use as speed dictations. Students say they love them when reporting in their action logs about class activities (Murphey, 1993). I also create a question/dialogue for my students so they can practice the new lines often. So in this workshop the phrase was "super happy optimistic joyful and prodigious" and the question was "How are you?" Thus any time I needed a minute to get my next activity ready, I merely turned to the audience and asked them to ask their partners, "How are you?" Then they had a minute's conversation and practiced their new phrase, and I could get my next activity ready. Thus, it is three things: a speed dictation, a routine conversation, and a class management device.

Juggling Metaphor

I also promote Wow! by asking my students to learn how to juggle with three juggling balls (*otedama*, in Japanese). It is a learning challenge with many similar parallels with learning language, the most salient being the strength of continual engagement and a roller coaster of progress over time entailing successes and failure.

Class Publications

During the presentation I also displayed a number of class publications (artifacts, Murphey, 2012a & b) that students produce in classes and then take away with them at the end. Typically, each student has a short contribution of a page or two, individually or with a group, where they write about the topics in our classes. These are often case studies of actually going and doing something with language in the real world, like teaching someone a song, or doing an interview.

Intensively Positive Experience Quickwrite

In the workshop, I asked the participants to experience an Intensively Positive Experience Quickwrite (Murphey, 2008, 2012b) in which they remember a moment when they had an Intensively Positive Experience. I invited them to return to that moment and to describe in depth without stopping their writing for 5 minutes (they actually went 10). This activity accesses "Wows!!" from the past and makes them more available as resources. Research shows that when people access their happiest moments that they are not only more happy but more healthy.

Shadowing Walk Talk

Then I had the participants stand up and take a walk with a partner as they did a shadow reading exercise with an email message from my sister (Appendix 1) who actually tried out the IPE Quickwrite with her first grade students. I often do "walk-talks" in my classes as students like moving around and can possible process more when they are walking and talking than when they are falling asleep at their desks.

Improvisation

Finally, I showed the group a short TED.com video by Dave Morris (2012) on the seven ways of improvisation (Appendix 1) which I find very useful for framing the pursuit of Wow! I recommend watching it and applying the concepts to teaching. The seven ways are Play, Let yourself fail, Listen to your partners, Say "Yes!", Say "and", Play the game, and Relax and have fun. I have found that these are essential for increasing the amount of "Wow!s" in the classroom. At the end of the workshop, I finished the story of Candide and welcomed questions

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Appendix 1:Candide / HrU / Jugg /Artifact /Writing /Shadowing /Improv /Tim's Outline 11/1/2012

Wow wows your sister, Rising Fawn Inbox x

Di Murphey dimurphey@gmail.com May 12

to me, Gail, Kirsten, Rick, Katrine, Keith

Okay. You write yet another remarkable book compiling 20 years of Wows and I don't even know about it until I get it in the mail and see that it is autographed by you. I immediately plop down in a cozy animal-filled spot overlooking the water and get totally lost in your newest book. The following day I take it to school and decide to experiment with the Intensely Positive Experiences chapter on my FIRST GRADERS. Realizing they are a bit tender in years and now about to hit 2nd grade, (some are 7) I teach them to close their eyes and access a positive memory. What in the world can a 7 year-old access in their memories? Well, thinking it might backfire yet remembering that I am most days amazed and humbled by their brains, I stood back and watched as they flew into the assignment and did not want to stop when the alarm sounded. So the next day, we did it again. And the next day. Now they have a portfolio of First Drafts. They share their writings with the class from the "Author's Chair." They grow in front of my eyes. We now begin many/most days with writing IPE's and filling our buckets as well as each others' buckets.
You are amazing, we are A-mazing, A-mazing we will go,
Di

PS: The most difficult part for them, and the most freeing, was to not be concerned with spelling. I tell them that Dr. Tim Murphey uses "invented" spelling daily, is multi-lingual, and he makes it work ~ they know you from your music and from the video of you juggling in the snow skiing backwards. And when I am deeply in need of connecting to family, I bring out a Japanese paper balloon and can hear your voice.

Short Lecture – 7 Ways of Improvisation Dave Morris -- Guess first!

1. P_____
2. L_____
3. L_____
4. Y_____
5. A_____
6. PtG_____
7. R&F_____

See also

Teaching Unplugged: Dogme in English Language Teaching, Luke Meddings and Scott Thornbury (2009) Delta Teacher Development Series: Surry, U.K.

Murphey T. (2012). ***Teaching in Pursuit of Wow!*** Tokyo: Abax.
This article can be found in the book below (available on Amazon)

Appendix 2

Believing In and Motivating Every Young Einstein
(Chapter 6 from *Teaching in Pursuit of Wow!* by Tim Murphey – published by ABAX ELT)
Originally published in *ASCD Express*, November 2009. Reprinted with permission.

I once heard that Einstein failed French in high school. At about the same time, I also read about self-fulfilling prophecies, and I wondered if his failing French happened simply to be the result of teachers who did not expect much from him. Then the thought occurred to me that there might be some Einsteins in my classroom as well.

I had a couple of students in my classes at the time that I had labeled "lost and lackadaisical." One day in class, instead of overlooking their passivity as I usually did, I put it in my mind that they were both young Einsteins and were going to grow up to amaze the world. When I approached them, I noticed that I did it differently—it was with respect and awe and curiosity that I talked to them. I found out that the boy was a part-time mechanic and fascinated by engines. The girl was a musician in the local orchestra, and that was her passion. We talked about these things briefly, and I could imagine easily how Einstein's genius would be manifested in their lives.

My feelings of awe and respect continued as these two began to open up more and more, first giving me greetings, later daring to ask questions in class, and then commenting on things they liked and didn't like. After a few weeks, they even became passionate about learning English, my topic, although it was a foreign language for both of them. They also became more interactive collaborators with their fellow students. They went from "lost and lackadaisical" to "assertive learners" within a month.

This actually scared me when I realized that I might have continued expecting their passivity, and getting it, for the rest of the year. By thinking the opposite, however, I was able to behave differently and inspire a different reaction to my course.

That was about 15 years ago. Since then, I have played this mind game numerous times, and it has surprised me very often. There were times when it did not work, when perhaps motivational factors that could not be overcome by my belief and behavior played too great a role. Still, the times when this game worked, it worked not only on me, but somehow also became contagious to my "Einstein's" classmates—they started interacting with the person differently.

After reading more in the educational literature, I realized I may have inadvertently done some "cognitive scaffolding," acting as a model for how to interact with a particular student in trouble. When I did so, the other students modeled my behavior and turned not only that student around, but also probably others that I had not noticed needed such help, respect, and awe. Research has also confirmed that my feelings toward my students cannot be hidden.

The Washington Post (Colino, 2006) reported, for example, that emotions pass quickly between people:

> Research has found that emotions—both upbeat ones like enthusiasm and joy, and negative ones like sadness, fear and anger—are easily passed from person to person, often without either party's realizing it. Emotional contagion occurs in a matter of milliseconds, says Elaine Hatfield, a professor of psychology at the University of Hawaii and co-author of the book Emotional Contagion (Cambridge University Press, 1994). If you're the receiver, you may not know what exactly happened, just that you feel differently after the encounter than you did before.

Our beliefs of disrespect or respect seep out of our minds and into our behaviors. These beliefs are contagious to everyone in every group we belong to. When we play the Einstein game with one student, when we respect that student with awe and wonder, others catch it and replicate it, and it becomes the contagious, standard way of being in the group. As go our relationships, so goes our learning.

As teachers, we have a choice. We can go on believing that we have some problem students and allow that to create our behaviors, or we can play a game with our minds (note – one that is as true as the others we play), decide the problem students are all geniuses, and display enormous respect and awe for them.

Try it sometime. Try believing those "lost causes" will actually one day be Einsteins. Really believe it when you approach them. Then just watch what happens – to the motivation and performance of those students, and to the whole class.

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Effective Present Communities of Imagining (PCOIz) in Language Classrooms

Tim Murphey
Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan

Abstract

This plenary presentation reviewed some recent research with my research group in Tokyo, Japan and supported the idea that creating effective Present Communities of Imagining (PCOIz) also makes them more productive and successful in learning. "Daring Greatly" à la Brené Brown (2012), I dared to introduce a short song at the beginning of the presentation ("Love You Forever") which participants sang periodically during the presentation and later discovered was in a popular children's story (Munsch, 2001). With the help of the song, we said "I'll love you forever, I'll like you for always" out loud to each other about fifteen times, which seemed to create a warm atmosphere for learning in an effective present community of imagining in a beautiful room with a spectacular view. The main emphasis in this presentation was on the idea that asking people what they want from others, reciprocally gets them to ask how they should be for others. In our research we looked at how students described their ideal classmates and then at how they took these images for themselves.

Keywords: *group dynamics, ideal classmates, patterns that connect, appreciative inquiry, emotional contagion, mirror neurons, dopamine, daring greatly, present communities of imagining*

Introduction

Murphey, Falout, Fukada & Fukuda (2012) describe Present Communities of Imagination thus:

> The concept of a present community of imagination, with its emphasis on participation and engagement with others through imagination, has clear roots in the communities of practice model, which we selected as our model of group behavior. It also has clear,

> though perhaps more indirect, links with some of the other constructs discussed in the literature review [imagined communities, social capital, imagined social capital]. It is our hope that by highlighting the temporal dimension, how our belonging to groups is situated in time, connecting the past and present, the concept of present communities of imagination may offer a further possible window through which both teachers and researchers can investigate and understand group dynamics. (p. 232)

While we have a series of papers establishing the concept of PCOIz, (Carpenter, Falout, Fukuda, Trovela & Murphey, 2009; Fukada, Fukuda, Falout & Murphey, 2011; Murphey & Falout, 2012), more recently the research group has been investigating the impact of imagining ideal classmates. The rest of this paper will focus on the most recent discoveries.

Ideal Classmates

In the spring of 2012, we asked our students, at the end of a long questionnaire, Question #39: "Please describe a group of classmates that you could learn English well with. What would you all do to help each other learn better and more enjoyably?" Amazingly enough, their answers were rich and wonderful. We took the 488 comments from students in 4 universities in the Tokyo area and coded them into 16 descriptors (Appendix 1). Then, half way through the semester on another survey, we linked three six-point Likert scale statements to each descriptor: (a) This is important for successful learning; (b) My classmates have done this so far this semester; and (c) I have done this so far this semester. The data in Appendix 1 shows a high correlation between students' perceptions of their classmates and their own engagement in terms of these 16 descriptors, as well as confirmation that the 16 descriptors are important to them in terms of evaluating good classmates and themselves.

So, what started out as a description of others, then became also a description of the self. We call this "reciprocal idealizing," which we hope captures the idea that when we start looking at how others might help us or be better partners, we also tend to look more closely at how we might do this as well. Of course the three questions for each of the descriptors in the midterm looping survey were explicitly asking for the students' judgment of the importance of the descriptor, their classmates' engagement with it, and their own engagement with it. Our Tokyo research team is planning to do two looping surveys in the fall of 2012 to see what differences there might be from the beginning to the end of the semester, as well as administering the looping survey to some control groups to see to what degree they are like our own classes.

Discussion: Patterns that connect

Gregory Batson famously said that we need to look for the "patterns that connect" in diverse fields. Only after starting this research did we realize that we were doing something similar to Appreciative Inquiry, also known as AI (Cooperider & Whitney, 1999; Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2010; Kinni, 2003). AI is a 20-year-old field in business consulting in which consultants ask company employees what is working well, rather than what is broken or needs fixing. Rather than being problem focused they *inquire* about things people *appreciate* in their work, workplace, and company. Asking these positive questions seems to make the positive grow, as people start focusing more on what is working, and many of the problems seem to disappear because of lack of attention. Asking students what is going well when they are interacting with their classmates in class focuses their attention on these positive aspects so that the positive aspects become more dominant in their thoughts and in their behaviors. This emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1994) is a fairly well researched concept now and helps explain the efficacy of the positive inventory-taking proposed by appreciative inquiry.

Another parallel comes to mind as we start to think of the altruism that can be invoked by question #39. The "golden rule" in many religions expresses something like, "Do unto others, as you would have them do unto you." Similarly U.S. President J. F. Kennedy said at his inauguration in Washington on January 20 1961, "Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country," which is a political version of the golden rule. Here, Kennedy is also invoking Benedict Anderson's "imagined community" (1991) of like-minded citizens that wish to help their country. We, in our own theorizing, are unsure whether students are more moved by imagining individual classmates or complete groups (or perhaps both) when they are being altruistic and wanting to help others. Obviously, political rhetoric will usually refer to the mother/fatherland, however in our many individual encounters we may indeed be more motivated when we see what we can do / have done for individuals.

Finally unlike the golden rule, our Question #39 starts from what we want from others. This is egocentric to an extent, but we contend that once that is clarified, it is easier and more natural for us to ask ourselves if we might do and be the same for others. So maybe the opposite of Kennedy's phrase would work better as well. If we do an inventory of what our country has done for us, we probably will be more inclined to think about what we can do for our country, our school, or our class. The theorized effects of imagining ideal classmates is based on fundamental human motivations to connect with, learn from, and synchronize with others (Hatfield, et al.,1994; Porges, 2011). It is also supported by mirror neuron research that shows we simulate what we see (Iacoboni, 2008; Ramachandran, 2011) and that we tend to align with the dominant images in our mind, especially the sequences that are repeated often. Neurologically, what we often imagine becomes a dominant pattern, and we become it. Not only do we *identify* what we see, but we *identify with it* in our imaginations (Murphey & Murakami, 2001; Quinn, 2010). Imagining what others can do for them in their learning, students first *identify* what behaviors from others might be helpful to them. Then they begin to *identify with* their own descriptions as the words materialize visions of others' behaviors. Through this process students begin adopting these images as part of themselves. This process also corresponds to the notion of ideological becoming.

In Bakhtin's (1981) view, to understand the formation of a self (and hence the development of identity), we must consider the process by which one appropriates and uses others' words, language, and forms of discourse—how one makes the words and language of others "one's own." This process occurs, argues Bakhtin, as one selectively "appropriates" and "assimilates" the words of others—allowing and enabling, that is, the voices of others to enter into an ongoing inner dialogue with one's own voice. This is what Bakhtin calls, interestingly enough, the process of "ideological becoming," and it is the key to understanding identity development as it occurs in the dialogical self. (Tappan, 2000, p. 101)

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Appendix 1: Handout for JALT 2012 Presentation

Socio-Dynamic Motivating with Possible L2 Groups

Tim Murphey - Kanda University of International Studies (mitsmail1@gmail.com)
Tetsuya Fukuda – International Christian University (tfukuda@icu.ac.jp)
Yoshifumi Fukada - Meisei University (fukayo2@hotmail.com)
Joseph Falout - Nihon University (researchdigest@gmail.com)

Research question

To what extent does students' reflecting on the characteristics of supportive classmates (also known as, positive possible L2 groups, imagined social capital) have on EFL undergraduate students' class engagement?

Participants

488 EFL undergraduates at 4 different universities in Japan

Question to students

#39 Please describe a group of classmates that you could learn English well with. What would you all do to help each other learn better and more enjoyably?
いっしょに親しく英語を学ぶクラスメートのグループがどのようなものかを想像して書いてみて下さい。より上手に楽しく助け合って学ぶにはどうすればいいでしょうか。

Table 1. Q 39 revealed 16 categories on the students' positive possible L2 group

1. Adjust to understand, show you understand, and show you like communicating with your classmates: for example make eye contact, smile, pay attention to them, etc.
2. Show care and respect: make friends, get to know each other, know people's names, etc.
3. Show passion and enthusiasm in learning English: get excited and don't give up.
4. Share common goals to improve your English.
5. Participate actively in whole-class activities such as songs, games, presentations, etc. to create a positive classroom atmosphere.
6. Actively talk to lots of partners in English in class.
7. Actively and willingly interact out of class to meet and study and speak English, on the internet, Facebook, Skype, Phone, face-to-face, etc.
8. Share English "likes," books, movies, songs, magazines, internet pages, etc.
9. Show your joy and playful side while learning English: laugh and have fun.
10. Interact with classmates who have similar English abilities, and can be near peer role models.
11. Be accepting, patient, and encouraging with yourself and others when struggling to speak and making mistakes. Help yourself and others to get over shyness and hesitation, build up each other's confidence.
12. Help each other in class to learn: teach vocabulary, explain how to say something in English, etc.

13. Get together out of class with classmates to complete homework. Study together and support each other's campus life.

14. Enjoy communicating with people from different cultures. Encourage classmates to do the same.

15. Help each other to critically analyze opinions, ideas, and ways of using English, and to identify strengths and weaknesses for further improvement.

16. Take risks and challenge yourself and others to do more with English. Push beyond your current abilities to say more, speak faster, and listen better, etc.

Looping Survey Sheet (Please download here. Sorry for the long address. Or write to us for the link.) http://www3.hp-ez.com/hp/englisheducation/page3

1st looping quantitative data:

Table 2. Descriptive data

	All As' average: *This is important for successful learning.*	All Bs' average: *My classmates have done this so far this semester.*	All Cs' average: *I have done this so far this semester.*
Mean	**5.07**	**4.09**	**4.01**
Std. Deviation	0.80	0.88	0.91
N (Valid)	333	323	328

Table 3. Correlation

Spearman's rho

1. All As' average	--	.584**	.483**
2. All Bs' average		--	.828**
3. All Cs' average			--

** p < .01 (2-tailed)

Possible Action Research Procedures: *Positive L2 group*

**(1) and (2), below, could be conducted at any time in a semester, and (3) and (4) are options for the beginning of the semester*

(1) Simply ask them to answer question #39 in their native language and in English when they can. (They could do this in pairs or small groups from the beginning or go into pairs or small groups to compare answers and ideas.) More elaborately, if you make a handout of all the comments, you could ask them to summarize the essential ideas. They could also choose one or a few that they think are especially important to them, which would give teachers an eye on what is important for their particular students.

(2) Simply ask them to answer the 16 code questionnaire (see this handout). They could do this in pairs or small groups from the beginning or go into pairs or small groups to compare answers and ideas.

(3) Do #39 first and then do the 16 codes a few days later and ask them to compare them. Which codes were not in their comments? What possible new codes might be showing up?

(4) In addition to (3) just above, do an end of semester 16 code survey and compare the data to the first one and notice the changes, (this is what the PCOIz team is doing this fall semester, 2012).

If you like, write it up and send a copy to us and we will advise you where you might publish it.

Japanese kotowaza: Kiku wa ittoki no hadji, kikanuwa issho no hadji　聞くは一時の恥、聞かぬは一生の恥. (Asking may be a moment's embarrassment, not asking is a lifelong regret.)

References (Please download here. Sorry for the long address. Or write to us for the link.) http://www3.hp-ez.com/hp/englisheducation/page3

Discipline Specific Presentation Skills: Financial Accounting Case Studies

Evelyn Naoumi
Meiji University, Japan

Abstract

This paper describes linguistic, cognitive and cultural challenges experienced by Japanese postgraduate accounting students studying in a specially tailored "sheltered" course at an overseas Business School taught by a content specialist with no English language teaching experience. These challenges were identified and addressed by the application of the Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) course development cycle to the design of language support courses in Japan. The particular challenges of presenting solutions to financial accounting case studies necessitated the development of discipline specific presentation skills courses introduced in this paper. This experience underlines the importance of research for LSP practitioner development.

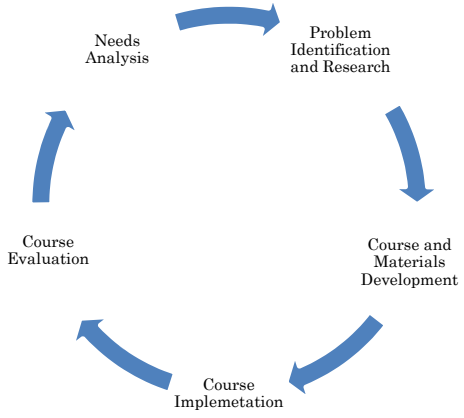
Key words: *language for specific purposes (LSP), case study methodology, genre analysis; corpus linguistics, discipline-specific*

Introduction

Students enrolled in a graduate school of professional accountancy at a major Japanese university participated in a "sheltered" course on international financial accounting at an overseas business school for credit in international accounting. Four groups of students attended the course from 2006 to 2009. The content specialist teaching the course had no experience of second language teaching and the students came from a variety of English language learning backgrounds. One aim of the course was to broaden the students' perspective of accounting in an international context and through the experience to raise awareness of the linguistic, cognitive and cultural demands of such a context. The students attended lectures in English taught by a content specialist, made presentations on case studies and participated in field trips to an accounting firm, the Institute of Chartered Accountants and the Stock Exchange. English academic support was provided in Japan in an EFL context and overseas in an ESL context.

One of the most challenging elements of the course was the case study presentations and the necessity to develop discipline specific presentation skills. The following figure describes the course development and implementation cycle familiar to LSP practitioners that was applied to the ongoing development and refinement of the presentations skills course.

Figure 1. Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) Course Development Cycle



(Adapted from Dudley-Evans and St. John., 1998)
*This is a simplification because this is an ongoing cycle.

The cycle began with needs analysis and the steps that were taken are shown in Figure 2. Of course, these steps were also applied during the cycle once the course had started.

Figure 2. Steps in Needs Analysis

1. Pre-course implementation discussions with course specialist
2. Presentations on case study methodology
3. Administration of English language proficiency tests and vocabulary level tests
4. Observation of students at the overseas university
5. Feedback sessions with participants and content specialist

During the initial needs analysis part of the LSP cycle, the language specialist attended presentations on the rationale and requirements of the case study methodology implemented at the overseas business school. Subsequent discussions with the content specialist, Dr. Amin Mawani, enabled the identification of the different parts of the presentation on the case study. These were reconfirmed through observation of the student presentations during the overseas study and reading research into case study methodology by Mauffete-Leenders, Erskine and Leenders (1997). The next figure shows the moves and necessary skills for presenting a case study solution in the specific overseas context that the students found themselves in.

Figure 3. Identification of Moves and Relevant Skills

Facts	This is a summary of selected relevant and material facts pertinent for the analysis section
Identification of users and objectives	Who is the "audience"? What are the different objectives of the different users of the financial information? There should be clear use of technical terminology and there is usually dense nominalization.
Issues and alternatives	Slides should clearly indicate the issues, the alternative accounting treatments, and awareness of the constraints they have to operate within. This part of the presentation should clearly lead into the recommendation.
Recommendation	This should present a summary of the analysis and indicate the support for the recommendation. Implementation issues are also considered here.

Based on Mawani (2005)

From the outset, vocabulary acquisition was a high priority and language proficiency tests and vocabulary level tests were administered to the students, but these did not really clarify what kind of vocabulary the students actually encounter in discipline–specific courses of this nature. However, the application of tools from corpus linguistics to the materials provided by the instructor overseas gave a clearer picture of the linguistic challenges facing students. The experience of researching and creating English language preparation courses in Japan for a discipline-specific and context specific "sheltered" program identified some linguistic, cognitive and cultural challenges for postgraduate students for whom English is a "tool" to acquire new knowledge in their area of study. It also identified a need for specifically designed presentation skill development courses.

Linguistic, cognitive and cultural challenges for Japanese postgraduate students

Linguistic

Most second language teaching materials related to accounting in English are designed for students with a proficiency level of intermediate and above, a recognition of the linguistic challenge of the lexically dense and grammatically complex content in accounting. Students have to learn discipline-specific vocabulary combinations. For example, the adjective "financial" in an accounting textbook corpus commonly precedes "statements" or "reporting" but other collocations are "position", "performance" and "data". Before the key word "using", "limits of" and "presentation of" commonly occur. Finally, students need to learn multi-word items such as "the objectives of financial statements", "the consumers of financial statements' and "the preparation of financial statements".

Analysis of one teaching case study (Richardson, 2007) revealed items such as "debt to ratio equity", "turn around time" and "on side" but more problematic for students were the colloquial expressions such as "don't cut corners", "not much room for comfort" and "missed some angles".

The language indicating the issues in the case study can also be difficult for students. Transitions such as “however” or “I have a feeling that”, negative expressions such as “no amortization expense” and the use of “could” need awareness building. In the case study presentation students need to review the use of conditional tenses as they present alternative accounting treatments and their *recommendation.*

Cognitive

The first challenge for the students was to understand the requirements of the case study methodology used by the content specialist at the overseas institution. This was compounded by the fact that case studies were a relatively new feature in the Japanese curriculum when the program began.

One of the greatest difficulties for the students is successfully assuming the role assigned to them in the case study. One problem is that many students lack work experience in accounting and this affects their confidence in delivering their presentation and the depth of their analysis. Case studies are designed to give students the opportunity to put themselves in the decision maker’s position and through repeated exposure realize that “the process of tackling decisions effectively has become a major personal asset” (Mauffette-Leenders et al. 1997, p. 4).

Another problem is accessing their accounting knowledge in Japanese and applying it to a case in English without spending an inordinate amount of time. This was particularly problematic when students had to defend their recommendations and answer questions in English about their presentations.

Cultural

The first problem for the students was the concept that there is no perfect solution to the case studies. There was a tendency to view the sample solution offered by the content specialist as “the” answer rather than “one viable answer”. As a result, students often undervalued their own solutions if they differed from the content solution.

Another difficulty is lack of practice in supporting and defending recommendations. Students found it difficult to reiterate support for the recommendations in response to questions at the end of the presentation.

After the course, many students recognized the need for better knowledge about the context of the case study and to allow for local factors that could impact their recommendations. They also increased awareness of the differences between the principles based approach to accounting used in the case studies and the rules based approach they were familiar with.

To better accommodate these specific needs, the following presentation courses were created:

Business Presentation 1

This 15-week course introduced presentation skills in a general business context and drew on marketed Business English materials.

Elements included:

The importance of audience; the structure of presentations; creation and effective use of visuals; voice projection; clarity and pacing.

Tasks for evaluation:

Descriptive presentation of a company; analysis of two companies’ approaches to damage limitation.

Business Presentation 2

The focus of this 15-week course was on problem solving and it drew on marketed materials with case studies and materials from the overseas course.

Elements included:

The importance of “audience”; the structure of persuasive presentations; creation and effective use of visuals with financial information, voice projection; clarity and pacing.

Tasks for evaluation:

Individual and group presentations of case studies.

*Students also took specialized accounting courses using case studies in Japanese and an introductory course to accounting taught in English. Those studying abroad took a special preparation course taught by a Japanese content specialist and a language specialist.

Conclusion

Comments from students who participated in the "sheltered course" at the overseas institution confirm the value of exposing them to the linguistic, cognitive and cultural challenges they will face as accounting professionals in an increasingly internationalized work environment. Many described studying overseas as challenging but they also claimed that they had gained "immense satisfaction from participation". Students also reported an increased awareness of the professional challenges they would face in the future from both linguistic and cultural perspectives. Such comments also implied increased cognitive awareness of the demands of different contexts.

From a pedagogical standpoint, language support courses taught in Japan need to begin as early as possible to motivate students less proficient in English by moving successfully from less demanding and more general Business English courses to very challenging discipline-specific courses. Such language support courses have to identify linguistic, cognitive and cultural demands on students in the target context and attempt to address them through better courses and materials. Support courses need input from both content and language specialists at every stage of the language specific cycle as both content needs and language needs are constantly evolving.

Finally, students themselves need to develop better strategies for utilizing their accounting knowledge both in domestic and international contexts. "Sheltered" specialist courses taught in English with carefully tailored language support courses are one way of raising postgraduate student awareness of future linguistic, cognitive and cultural challenges they may face in their professional life.

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Developing an EFL Reading Instruction System for Pre-service Teachers

Thanaporn Pantawee & Maneepen Apibalsri
Roi Et Rajabhat University, Thailand

Abstract

Can specially-designed instruction have a significant impact on reading and teaching practice? This study includes three phases. First, pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and the teaching of EFL reading were investigated. Second, course objectives, content and evaluation for the instructional lessons were developed; ten lessons focusing on a specific method of teaching EFL reading and supporting the development of pre-service teachers' EFL reading ability were constructed. Third, 25 selected 3rd year pre-service teachers at a university in Thailand were taught for 12 weeks by the researcher. Their performance, as calculated from pre- and post-test scores, increased significantly ($p < .01$). Finally, the pre-service teachers were interviewed. It was found that they were able to apply the knowledge gained from the lessons in their teaching practice.

Keywords: *EFL reading Instruction, pre-service teachers*

Introduction

One of the emphases of education reform in Thailand in the National Education Act of 1999 is a concern with the development of teachers and educational personnel. Teacher quality, pedagogy, and learning processes pose serious problems for educational services in the country and have negative impacts on other aspects of educational reform (Adireksarn, 2002). It is expected that before graduation, pre-service teachers

will be provided with adequate knowledge of subject content and strong pedagogical skills. According to Anders, Hoffman, and Duffy (2000), 19,457 studies have been conducted in reading during the past 30 years. There were only 140 studies focusing on pre-service reading education. These studies varied in their methodological investigation and research rigor, leaving questions and concerns about the nature of pre-service reading education. More content knowledge and lesson pedagogy are needed. The lack of changes in pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching reading and the lack of application of training from what trainee teachers learn in teacher education programs are critical. Wham (1993) concluded that pre-service teachers should be encouraged to verbalize theories and analyze what they believe about reading in order to construct a philosophy about instruction. In addition, Ashton (1996) found that content knowledge must be integrated with field experience for students to develop their pedagogical knowledge.

As far as teaching EFL reading is concerned, pre-service teacher education in Thailand, where EFL reading is an essential skill supporting academic areas, is required to prepare teachers to meet the challenges and standards for EFL teaching. Knowledgeable reading teachers play an important role in helping students become successful readers (Strickland, Kamil, Walberg, & Manning, 2003; Reid and Green, 2004). If the instruction provided by teachers is ineffective, learners may face difficulties in learning to read. Accordingly, teaching reading calls for more professional preparation of reading teachers. A number of studies have been conducted on EFL reading comprehension employed by pre-service teachers in Thailand (Laongtong, 2002; Chinwonno, 2001). Differences between first and second language reading were found which should be taken into consideration. One of the principal problems for L2 readers is that their knowledge of the language is incomplete and this may cause difficulties in their reading (Williams, 1984). Perkins (1983, p. 20) explains that while the reading process may be considered universal and while there may be similarities in the way that first and second language learners construct meaning in reading and writing, research suggests that there may be a limit placed on second language reading ability, a limit related to language proficiency. Williams (1984) supports the use of reading through a language, claiming that it not only corresponds to the real-life purpose of L1 reading but also to the academic demands of foreign language learners. The reading class should, therefore, aim at developing strategies for achieving the ultimate aim of "reading to learn" autonomously. Generalizing several researchers' suggestions, there was no agreement about the content of professional development and how to design professional development programs in reading instructional practice. However, the aim of most second and foreign language reading programs is to turn "learning to read" into "reading to learn" (Carrell, 1998).

In this present study, there are two major components in the preparation of pre-service teachers to teach EFL reading: knowledge of reading theory and methods for teaching EFL reading. Firstly, pre-service teachers were encouraged to be aware of reading theories in order to be able to anticipate the types of processes and potential problems their secondary school students may experience when reading in a second/foreign language (Aebersold & Field, 1997). Secondly, pre-service teachers were provided with teaching skills which were necessary in teaching EFL reading before, during and after reading as well as strengthened reading skills. As a result, the pre-service teachers were able to take a strategic approach to their teaching of reading with their main goal being to help students apply effective reading strategies independently. Furthermore, they were able to decide the kinds of appropriate instruction and lessons to offer their own students. In addition, factors to consider when planning a lesson for a reading class, how to select reading materials and how to assess reading were included.

The researcher believes that if the teachers' role is to help learners to be good readers, then teachers must receive relevant instruction that prepares them to teach reading effectively. Therefore, the purposes of this study are to examine and in turn develop the efficiency of EFL reading instructional lessons for pre-service teachers. The research questions addressed in the present study are the following:

1. Does training in teaching EFL reading improve pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their own reading ability? If so, how is the efficiency of the lessons related to their knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability?
2. What are pre-service teachers' attitudes towards EFL reading instruction lessons?

Subjects

The subjects in this study were 25 pre-service teachers majoring in English. They were third year students in a five-year teacher education program. All of them had previously taken a course in teaching methodology.

Procedure

The study consisted of three phases. The purpose of the first phase was to investigate the pre-service teachers' problems in EFL reading and to elicit EFL reading teachers' suggestions to teach EFL reading. This was done via oral interviews and questionnaires. The second phase was to design an EFL reading lesson. The final phase was to develop and determine the efficiency of the EFL reading lesson. The research procedure was as follows:

Phase I: Needs Analysis

The purpose of this phase was to investigate the pre-service teachers' problems with English reading and opinions or suggestions about English reading instruction on the basis of the Delphi Technique (Adler and Ziglio, 1996).

Phase II: Lesson Design

The ten units for EFL reading instruction for pre-service teachers were designed on the basis of the information gathered in Phase I and the literature review. After developing the course lessons, they were evaluated for their efficiency. This included a one-to-one experiment, a small-group experiment, and a large-group experiment. At the same time, the pre-and post tests of knowledge of teaching EFL reading and reading ability in relation to the revised content of the lessons were constructed.

Phase III: Determining course efficiency

This phase aimed to test the efficiency of the EFL reading lesson. All of the subjects were tested on their knowledge of methods of teaching EFL reading and their vreading skills by a pre-test. After taking the pre-test, the pre-service teachers received a course in EFL reading instruction conducted by the researchers. The course was conducted in extra scheduled classes without disturbing the normal scheduled classes, twice a week, for 12 weeks. After each lesson, the pre-service teachers were asked to write a diary expressing their opinions or feedback on how the reading theories and reading strategies had been presented in the lessons. Also, the researcher -teacher kept her own diary after each lesson. After the course, a post-test was given to all subjects. Then questionnaires were administered and semi-structured interviews were conducted with all subjects to investigate their opinions on the EFL reading course, and how the course helped prepare them for teaching EFL reading as well as improve their own reading skills.

Results and Discussion

1. The development of EFL reading lessons

There were three trials to evaluate the EFL reading instruction course lessons. They were based on one-to-one, small group and field study trials. The results of three trials are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The results of the three trials

Trials	**E1 (Efficiency of Process)**	**E2 (Effectiveness of Product)**
One-to-one	72.50	71.67
Small group	75.30	75.25
Field study	75.54	75.50

It was found that the efficiency of the process and product for the one-to-one trial was below the prescribed criteria of 75/75. The field study trials demonstrated that EFL reading lessons got 75.54 for the efficiency of the process and 75.50 for the effectiveness of the product, which met the criteria of 75/75. When the efficiency of the process (E_1) is higher than that of the product (E_2), it is possible that the procedures and features of the process or exercises did not relate to those of the product or post-tests. This may be because the exercises had different features and levels of difficulty from those of the post-tests. The other reason is that the post-test required teachers to respond to multiple choice questions. For the present research, the efficiency of EFL readinglessons was at a level of 75.54/75.55 after the trials. This indicated that the effectiveness of the reading lessons for the present research has met the prescribed criteria of 75/75.

2. Pre-service teachers' learning achievement on knowledge of teaching EFL reading

The results showed that pre-service teachers learning achievement increased. See Table 2.

Table 2: Pre-service teachers' learning achievement on knowledge of teaching EFL reading

Test	Mean	SD	N
Pre-test	19.12	3.96	25
Post-test	30.2	4.92	25

To examine whether their knowledge of teaching EFL reading increased significantly, pre-test and post-test scores were compared and calculated as illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: The statistical difference between pre- and post-tests about teaching EFL reading

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Post_test Pre_test	1.080	3.69594	73919	9.55439	12.60561	4.989	4	.000

According to Table 3, it is apparent that there are significant differences between pre- and post-test scores at the .000 level of significance ($p < .01$).

3. The relationship between pre-service teachers' reading ability and their knowledge of teaching EFL reading

The pre-service teachers had higher reading ability after studying the EFL reading lessons. Pre-test and post-test scores were compared and calculated. See Table 4.

Table 4: Pre-service teachers' reading ability

Test	Mean	SD	n
Pre-test	25.48	5.5	25
Post-test	27.68	5	25

The table illustrates that there are significant differences between pre and post-test scores at the .009 level of significance ($p < .01$). The scores from the post-test of teaching EFL reading and those of reading ability were analyzed by calculating the correlation coefficient as illustrated in Figure 1.

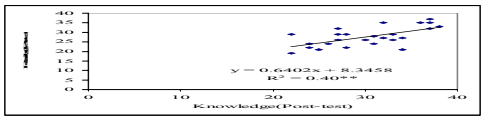

Figure 1: The relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability

Figure 1 indicates that there is a significant relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability ($R = 0.40$).

It can be concluded that the EFL reading lessons improved pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading. There was a relationship between pre-service teachers' knowledge of teaching EFL reading and their reading ability. The pre-service teachers' reading ability improved after they were instructed using EFL reading lessons. It is possible that the content and learning activities in the lessons influenced pre-

service teachers' reading ability. This finding is related to the findings from open-ended questionnaires and pre-service teachers' diaries which revealed that the EFL reading lessons could help them become aware of their own reading. Although it was not the purpose of the study to improve pre-service teachers' reading ability, the scores showed their reading ability increased.

4. Investigation of pre-service teachers' attitudes towards the EFL reading lessons

The results indicated that pre-service teachers perceived EFL reading lessons to be beneficial. This means pre-service teachers had a positive attitude towards the lessons even though there were some limitations and they had some suggestions for adjusting the lessons. The content of the EFL reading lessons enabled them to be aware of the importance of reading theories to their reading instruction preparation. Understanding the reading process helped them to plan their own reading lessons purposively. Pre-service teachers had positive attitudes in learning about strategic reading instruction. In addition, pre-service teachers' cooperative learning and their confidence in reading were stimulated. This finding is related to Caprio's (1994) study, based on constructivism, in which the activities are student-centered. The study showed that the students in the constructivist class seemed to like classes, had energy and took more responsibility for their learning. The recommendations of the reading specialists are also that to prepare pre-service teachers to teach EFL reading, pre-service teachers must develop a thorough understanding of reading development as well as an understanding of learning theory to ground their instructional decision making effectively (International Reading Association, 2007).

However, there were some limitations in terms of the difficulties of the content concerning theories of reading and unfamiliarity with technical terms. Since activities and exercises in the lessons were designed for all levels of learner ability, explanation in Thai during instruction and in the teaching materials was needed. This confirms Macaro's (2001) view that in the EFL context it is impossible to avoid the use of L1 during strategy instruction. The use of L1 as a medium of instruction may be an effective means to facilitate learners' understanding.

Conclusion and Recommendations

To prepare pre-service teachers to teach EFL reading, according to the findings of this study, the content of the lessons could be simplified and adapted for further instruction. Microteaching should be included in the EFL reading instructional system for pre-service teachers to give them more opportunities to practice before they teach in secondary schools. In doing so, they will have more guidance from the other participants and experienced teachers with explicit feedback to further their learning. However, there should be similar research conducted with other groups of pre-service teachers or in-service teachers. The pre-service teachers armed with an understanding of the reading process and equipped with some ideas about the development of reading skills may be not easily able to implement these ideas into their reading lesson, and even if they did successfully implement these new ideas they may not be able to prove their success to a wider audience. Therefore, it is highly recommended to have a follow-up stage to ascertain the pre-service teachers' views concerning the impact and usefulness of the program for their teaching, since teaching is a lifelong process during which a great deal of experimentation and knowledge building occurs. Accordingly, the process of professional development may need long term investigation.

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Teaching Intensive Reading in EAP Classes

Svetlana Savintseva
Russian Academy of Sciences (Far Eastern Branch), Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

For EAP students, well-developed skills in intensive reading are no less important than those in extensive reading; though closely related and complimentary, they call for different materials and activities. With the students' needs in mind, the teacher establishes criteria for materials to be used and makes a decision on the activities appropriate within a brief course for young researchers. Varying texts and tasks facilitates the teaching/learning process and makes students confident of their success.

Keywords: *intensive reading, EAP*

Introduction

Reading is given much attention in ESP/EAP classes. In their professional activities, ESP/EAP students need various reading strategies depending on their purposes. This paper focuses on teaching intensive reading in a brief EAP course to young researchers at the Far Eastern Branch, Russian Academy of Sciences (FEB RAS) with different levels of English proficiency and having expertise in various fields of science. First, some views on intensive reading will be touched upon. Second, types of texts appropriate for teaching intensive reading in EAP classes will be considered. Third, activities that proved fruitful for these students will be mentioned.

Intensive reading: some views on it

It is a matter of common knowledge that by intensive, or detailed, or analytical, reading is meant reading for exact understanding of the text. The following definition is available on the Internet along with many others: "Intensive reading (IR) occurs when the learner is focused on the language rather than the text. For example, the learner may be answering comprehension questions, learning new vocabulary, studying the grammar and expressions in the text, translating the passage (sometimes called 'careful reading'), or other tasks that involve the student in looking intensively (inside) the text. Most often all the students read the same short text that the teacher decided." (http://www.querycat.com/question). IR is thought to be characteristic of

courses for beginners, especially for those whose mother tongue is absolutely different from the foreign language studied (for instance, English in Asian countries). It is widely believed that it is this type of reading that still prevails in teaching practice in most EFL classes, and that modern approaches and changes in the teaching environment require that it give way to extensive reading (ER). Numerous published and online materials are devoted to this subject; just google it and you will immediately find lots of links, including one to the proceedings of the First Extensive Reading World Congress held in Kyoto, Japan, in 2011. Though authors usually mention merits and demerits of both IR and ER, it seems that they still imply that IR is an out-of-date, time-consuming, boring, teacher-centered, and less communicative practice. Nevertheless, intensive reading is an integral part of any course, so ideas on how to bridge the gap between them (Yoshida, 2012) and how to improve the teaching of IR so that students can not only learn vocabulary, grammatical forms and discourse markers from the text, but also understand it in general, or "see both trees and forest" (Zhang, 1997, p. 43), are proposed. Time balance between teaching IR and ER is cited in one of the studies (Susser & Robb, 1990). Therefore, the role of IR is not completely devalued; it cannot be, because this reading strategy is quite common in real life, and so IR is essential for students, including postgraduates. To be successful readers they should be able to choose a proper strategy according to the situation and their task. In our EAP course for young researchers of the FEB RAS we teach various strategies for reading using various approaches and materials (Tarasova & Savintseva, 2011). Now let us pass on to the types of texts appropriate for teaching IR.

Texts selected

Although skills in intensive and extensive reading are closely related and complement each other, their development calls for different materials. Selection of texts is always a challenge because every group is unique. To make a good choice the teacher should take into account the students' needs and establish criteria for materials to be used, e.g. sources of texts, types of texts, topics to be considered, authenticity, etc.). To be more effective, the practice in intensive reading should be based on similar texts. In the class of young researchers with different levels of English proficiency and having expertise in various fields of science to find texts that are similar in their structure and content, brief, not boring, and containing particular vocabulary and grammar items is not that simple. T. Hutchinson and A. Waters (1994) suggest that in some situations the decision about the material to be used in class based on the tasks and the stage of the course may be as follows: "a simplified target text or a specially constructed one might be more useful" (p. 159). However, reading is the most important source of information, and it is even more critical for postgraduates. Artificial texts stuffed with items to be learned can hardly be informative and will not motivate students, so we use only authentic texts that our students need for their professional activities – papers, monographs, reports, etc. There may be a number of solutions:

1) We are lucky if a book of interest to our students is written by two or more authors (or edited by two or more editors), authorities in their field, and their biographical data are presented, so we have at least two brief authentic texts containing similar structural patterns and vocabulary.
2) In most monographs every chapter (or most of them) ends with a brief "summary" or "conclusion" part. Though the chapters are devoted to different subjects and may be written by different authors, these parts are similar in some way and could be successfully used for our purpose.
3) Another source of material may be a book or monograph with more than one preface. Depending on the length and the level of language difficulty of the text, the teacher develops activities to be done in class and, quite possibly, at home.
4) Calls for participation in academic meetings may also be texts for intensive reading. Students can readily provide several examples of such texts.
5) We may use longer texts, for example, those devoted to a subject of general interest, say, the history of a discovery or an invention, etc.

All these passages contain terms in some particular field. Nevertheless, the texts are not difficult for the group as a whole as, first, the message in all of them is quite clear, and, second, should it be necessary, a student who specializes in the field can act as a peer teacher and give explanations.

So, instead of composing texts, we should constantly search for new ones and add them to our collection so that we always have various kinds of reading material at hand. The texts should be similar in their structure, (usually) brief, with a level of language and content that minimize students' exposure to professional lexis, and at the same time they should contain information of general interest and stimulate further learning.

Activities used

Another challenge concerning teaching intensive reading is to make a decision on the activities that are appropriate in a particular situation. Our experience shows that traditional activities aimed at studying language material and at helping students to comprehend the content of a passage work well with the texts mentioned above. Pre-reading activities may include questions involving background knowledge, predicting, etc.; post-reading activities, e.g. making sentences with the vocabulary or grammar under study, or writing similar texts, are also suitable for our classes. While-reading activities depend on the particular passage and may be as follows:

- find English (Russian) equivalents for the following words and/or phrases;
- explain the choice of the article(s)/tense form(s) in the sentence(s),
- find synonyms/antonyms in the text(s),
- find the words that connect parts of the sentence(s), or paragraphs, etc.

Let us look at some examples.

In Appendix 1 underlined are vocabulary and grammar items covered in the course for postgraduates; they are natural in scientific discourse but are often confused or misused by most students, regardless of their specialties. Exercises on word-building are also an inseparable part of the work. Here, for example, we have a few words with negative prefixes which are on the list of the most frequent ones in scientific texts (Bartkov et al., 2009).

There are some more words (including terms) that may be paid focused on with particular groups. The number of the items to be considered is impressive for this brief text, but one more thing should be emphasized here, namely, the use of "he" and "she". This may start a discussion of gender issues with an intermediate group, or at least highlight the issues in a group at a lower level. Students usually do not pay attention to the choice of pronoun and use the masculine one in such situations. The teacher helps students to find proper ways to avoid mentioning gender themselves (for instance, arranges brainstorming), or simply gives examples illustrating the usage of appropriate words and forms.

The work is done in class and may be continued at home in the form of written tasks based on the text and/or by reading similar passages (e.g. the next preface to the book), should the texts be simple enough and the group level permit such an assignment to be performed.

Appendix 2

These are pieces from information about an Editorial Advisory Board. There are eleven of them all in all, so the teacher may choose the most appropriate, if there are too many. (Here, two are chosen, to save time and space). Students work in pairs or in groups of three or four, each group studying different texts. The tasks the students are given are as follows:

1. Read the text and find words (phrases) used to describe:
   a) the Board member's background; b) his or her achievements; c) his or her research interests and current activities. Make a list of these words.
2. Exchange your findings with your fellow students and add to your list useful words and phrases you do not have in your text.
3. Speak/write about your supervisor/head of the laboratory/ a prominent scientist in your field of science, etc. using the words and phrases from your list.

Appendix 3

Intensive reading may involve translation of some passages. When it comes to translation, one more activity may be helpful, namely, comparing an original text and the translated one. Though the question of whether materials containing mistakes should be used in teaching/learning is controversial, some texts translated by computer or by Google may be considered in class because we know that these tools are popular among students. We should be sure that our students can use dictionaries, and demonstrate that translator programs are not suitable for them. Besides, more often than not this practice is fun. Appendix 3 may serve as an illustration. These are fragments of a Google-translated text. The tasks may be as follows: *Find examples of incorrect translation. Check the words in the dictionary. Explain why the translator program made these mistakes*.

These examples show that intensive reading based on authentic texts is not boring at all, nor is it teacher-centered. IR in EAP classes provides young researchers with information valuable to their own

investigations, and in addition to being a source of traditional vocabulary and grammar exercises, it suggests activities that may broaden students' horizons by letting them keep in touch with problems of interest to experts in other areas and by introducing other issues including cultural ones.

Conclusion

To sum up, teaching intensive reading in EAP groups is essential for developing particular skills and reading comprehension in general. Varying texts and tasks facilitate the teaching/learning process and makes students confident of being successful readers.

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Appendix 1

The purpose of this book is to help anyone involved in small-scale geophysical surveys. It is not a textbook in the traditional sense, in that it is designed for use in the field and concerns itself with practical matters – with theory taking second place. Where theory determines field practice, it is stated, not developed or justified. For example, no attempt is made to explain why four-electrode resistivity works where two-electrode surveys do not.

The book does not deal with marine, airborne or downhole geophysics, nor with deep seismic reflection work. In part this is dictated by the space available, but also by the fact that such surveys are usually carried out by quite large field crews, at least some of whom, it is to be hoped, are both experienced and willing to spread the benefit of that experience more widely.

Where appropriate, some attention is given to jargon. A field observer needs not only to know what to do but also the right words to use, and right in this context means the words which will be understood by others in the same line of business, if not by the compilers of standard dictionaries.

A word of apology is necessary. The field observer is sometimes referred to as "he". This is unfortunately realistic, as "she" is still all too rare, but is not intended to indicate that "she" is either unknown or unwelcome in the geophysical world. It is hoped that all geophysical field workers, whether male or female and whether geophysicists, geologists or unspecialized field hands, will find something useful in this book.

Finally, a word of thanks. Paul Hayston of BP Minerals and Tim Langdale-Smith of Terronics read early drafts of the text and made numerous invaluable suggestions. To them, to Janet Baker, who drew many of the sketches, and to the companies which provided data and illustrations, I am extremely grateful.

Appendix 2

1. Martha J. Farah is the Bob and Arlene Kogod Professor of Psychology and the Director of the Center for Cognitive Neuroscience at the University of Pennsylvania. She is known for her work on the neural

bases of human perception and cognition, described in over a hundred research publications as well as in five books. Her current interests are in emotion–cognition interaction and development. Dr. Farah's work has been honored with a number of awards, including the American Psychological Association Distinguished Scientific Award for an Early Career Contribution, the National Academy of Sciences Troland Research Award, and a Guggenheim Fellowship.

2. Elizabeth Warrington has been associated with London University since 1951. She was awarded a B.Sc. in 1954, a Ph.D. in 1960 and a D.Sc. in 1975. She joined the staff of the Institute of Neurology in 1954 in a research capacity. In 1972 Dr. Warrington was appointed head of the department of clinical neuropsychology, a post she held until she retired in 1996. In addition to her clinical duties she has pursued an active research career with special interests in perception, memory, and language disorders. Dr. Warrington was elected to the Fellowship of the Royal Society in 1986, and she has been awarded honorary degrees from the Universities of Bologna, Italy, and York, UK. At present she is an honorary consultant neuropsychologist to the Dementia Research Group where she is engaged in active research.

Appendix 3

…In statistics, the Lilliefors test, named after Hubert Lilliefors, professor of statistics at George Washington University, is an adaptation of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test…The test proceeds as follows:

1. First estimate the population mean and population variance based on the data. …

3. …Thus we need the "null distribution" of the test statistic, i.e. its probability distribution assuming the null hypothesis is true. This is the Lilliefors distribution. To date, tables for this distribution have been computed only by Monte Carlo methods. There is an extensive literature on normality testing, but as a practical matter many experienced data analysts sidestep formal testing and assess the feasibility of a normal model by using a graphical tool such as a Q-Q plot.

****В статистике, тесте Lilliefors, названном после того, как, Hubert Lilliefors, профессор статистики в университете George Washington, является адаптацией теста Kolmogorov–Smirnov…Тест продолжается следующим образом:*

1. Сначала оцените скупое население и популяционное различие, основанное на данных. ...

3. ...Таким образом мы нуждаемся в "пустом распределении" испытательной статистической величины, то есть ее распределения вероятности, предполагающего, что пустая гипотеза верна. Это – распределение Lilliefors. До настоящего времени, столы для этого распределения были вычислены только методами Монте Карло. Есть обширная литература по тестированию нормальности, но на практике много опытных аналитиков данных обходят формальное тестирование и оценивают выполнимость нормальной модели при использовании графического инструмента, такого как заговор Q-Q.

Is Sustained Content Based Instruction Effective for Beginner ESL Classes? A Final Analysis

Annie Semmelroth
Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University, Japan

Abstract

The current study is a final analysis of a Writing Strategies course for Global Communication majors at Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University (HBWU) to determine whether sustained CBI (as defined by Marcia Pally, 1997) is effective for beginner level students. To date, there is a lack of publications supporting sustained CBI for beginner level students. This study aims to fill this void. The curriculum has been heavily modified to practice sustained CBI; the objective is to simplify the learning process by recycling grammatical forms and vocabulary. For the final analysis, written T-units and complex noun phrases will be quantitatively analyzed for complexity.

Keywords: *sustained CBI, ESL writing, beginner level, complexity, T-units, nominalizations*

Introduction

The origins of sustained content based instruction (CBI) lie within content-based instruction, which typically structures language classes around topics or themes (Brinton, Snow & Wesche 1989; Stoller, 1999). However, unlike content-based / theme-based instruction, sustained CBI classes focus on a single content or theme for an extended length of time (Pally, 1997). Rather than varying topics, students of sustained CBI will study one discipline for the duration of one quarter or one semester (Pally, 2000, 2001). Within a single discipline, students focus on various aspects of a larger encompassing topic, learning "transferable" skills in a progressive sequence so as to build upon earlier concepts and skills in order to "grasp" later ones (Pally, 2001). Due to the fact that sustained CBI focuses on a single theme, learners can frequently recycle vocabulary and key concepts; this aids students in developing familiarity with the topic (Heyden, 2001; Pally, 2000).

This learning process not only improves language abilities but also facilitates skills related to critical/analytical thinking, evaluation, and comparing and contrasting (Murphy & Stoller, 2001; Pally, 1997, 2001). By recycling vocabulary, information grammatical and rhetorical forms, students are freed from basic linguistic comprehension and allowed to develop expertise and critical thinking in the discipline (Andrade & Makaafi, 2001; Pally, 2001). Finally, a sustained CBI curriculum can facilitate ESL students to develop academic writing skills such as voice, rhetoric and argumentation (Pally, 1997, 2001; Pally, Perpignan, Katznelson, & Rubin, 2002).

Sustained CBI classes have proven to be effective with intermediate and advanced level ESL learners. Some of the improvements include stronger argumentation, rhetoric and analyzing skills as well as more instances of complex forms (Pally, 2001), increased motivation and student engagement with research and writing process, improved writing skills overall (Heyden, 2001), and how to approach learning both inside and outside of the classroom (Pally et al., 2002). There have been numerous published cases proving sustained CBI to be an effective choice of curriculum for upper intermediate to advanced level ESL students. However, to date, there is a lack of published research which indicates whether sustained CBI is effective for beginner level ESL students. The current study aims to fill this void and analyze the effects of sustained CBI on beginner level ESL students' written complexity.

Background

The students in the current study are first year university students in an all-women's university in Japan: Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University (HBWU). There were 20 students who enrolled into the first cohort (April 2010- February 2011). The following year, 30 students enrolled into the second cohort (April 2011- February 2012). The students' proficiency level at the time of enrollment was low/beginner level, e.g., the TEOIC scores at the start of the year for the 2010 and 2011 cohorts averaged at 301 and 309 points respectively.

The GCD students from both the 2010 and 2011 cohorts experienced similar classes in their first year of university. The students from both cohorts have experienced a weekly schedule of 5 GCD classes: one Reading Strategies class, one Writing Strategies class, one Basic English Communication class, and two General English classes. With the exception of the writing class, the curriculum for each class has remained the same as the year prior. Additionally, five out of seven teachers and learning advisors have also remained the same from the school years 2010-2011. Overall, the students in the 2011 cohort have undergone very similar academic experiences as the previous students in the 2010 cohort. In consideration of any changes in the GCD students' writing, the most potentially influential factor was the redesigned Writing Strategies curriculum.

In a preliminary study of the first semester, significant improvements were found in grammatical accuracy, Gunning Fog readability grades and mean sentence length. In all these areas, the 2011 cohort made greater improvements by the end of semester 1 than the previous 2010 cohort achieved by the end of two semesters (Semmelroth, 2013). In sum, sustained CBI has proven effective for increasing accuracy for beginner level ESL writing students. The final analysis will investigate the effects the curriculum has on syntactic complexity.

Modifications to the Curriculum

The Writing Strategies curriculum from the 2010 cohort was modified to meet the philosophies of sustained CBI. The students experienced one overlying theme for each semester. Within each theme, the

students focused on writing only two kinds of written genres (one genre per quarter). This aimed to provide students the opportunity to recycle vocabulary and grammatical forms as well as become accustomed to writing about one subject matter at a time. Grammar targets were introduced throughout the semester in a progressive sequence, so as to prompt students to rely on "transferable skills" learned in prior lessons. In short, the curriculum for the 2011 cohort was heavily modified and re-arranged to adhere to a single theme and followed a sequential order of presenting grammar. This modification was the single largest change in the semester one GCD curriculum; therefore making it highly probable that any differentiation in written work between the two cohorts would be due to sustained CBI modifications in the Writing Strategies class.

Methods

In efforts to measure syntactic complexity, the student writing was analyzed by the mean length of T-units, rate of accuracy per T-unit, nominalizations (noun phrases), and the Gunning Fog Index readability grade. The length of T-units (as defined by Hunt, 1965) has been a commonly accepted measure of grammatical complexity for language researchers (Biber, Gray, and Poonpon, 2011; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim, 1998). T-units typically increase with the language development/maturity and are a more satisfactory measure for syntactic maturity in comparison to other measures (e.g., sentence length, clause length) (Hunt, 1965; O'Donnell, Grittin, Norris, 1967; Freedman, 1980). Some L2 researchers believe syntactic development can be measured with T-unit length regardless of errors (Cooper, 1976, 1981; Monroe, 1975; Kameen, 1979). Other L2 researchers have asserted that errors in T-units need to be taken into consideration when analyzing L2 text, as long T-units full of grammatical errors are not, necessarily, a representation of syntactical complexity (Scott and Tucker, 1974; Larsen-Freeman and Strom, 1977; Larsen-Freeman, 1978; Vann, 1979; Perkins, 1980; Ho-Peng, 1983). For good measure, the current study will investigate both T-unit length of correct and incorrect T-Units as well as a total ratio of correct T-units.

In terms of measuring complexity in L2 writing, there has also been debate on whether MLT alone is a fair representation of academic writing. Halliday (2004) asserts that complexities of speech are dramatically different from those of academic writing, i.e., grammatical complexities of speech involve dependent clauses, while writing relies on nouns and nominalizations. Therefore, when measuring the complexity of academic writing, nominalizations (i.e., noun phrases, complex nouns) are better representations of development than MLT (Biber et. al., 2011). Therefore, the current study will also analyze variations in noun phrases.

The written student data has been collected from two time periods: the end of semester 1 and the end of semester 2. In order to closely measure each T-unit of the passage, only the papers from five students (N=5) were selected for investigation. The five students were randomly selected via www.random.org. Final semester papers from both semester 1 and 2 were collected from all 5 students, for a total of 10 papers analyzed (N = 10) from the 2011 cohort. Additionally, 5 papers written by the prior 2010 cohort were collected for a comparative analysis (N = 5). These papers were written at the end of semester 2 of the 2010 program by the students who were in the upper tier of the program for a total of 15 analyzed papers (N = 15).

To quantitatively analyze complexity, the students' written work was run through Synlex at http://aihaiyang.com/synlex/syntactic/ to retrieve total number of T-units (T), mean length of T-units (MLT), and complex nominal phrases (NC). In addition, the papers were analyzed by hand for accuracy, to determine the ratio of correct T-units/T-unit (CT/T). Only T-units completely absent of any mistakes were considered error free. Finally, all numerical data collected from the papers were run through the PASW Statistics 18 software for statistical analysis and to determine significant difference (Norusis, 2011). Results with a P value less than .05 were interpreted as significantly different.

Data

The data from the students' written work demonstrated significant improvements in MLT and NC from semester 1 to semester 2. The average percentage of CT/T also dramatically improved. For all measures of complexity, the 2011 cohort semester 2 writing achieved higher standards than that of their foregoing 2010 cohort written work from semester 2.

The MLT for semester 2 (M = 10, SD = .533) was significantly higher than that of semester 1 (M = 7.91, SD = .908, F = 19.66, P value = .002). As indicated below in *figure 3*, the MLT for the end of semester 1 was 7.9 words per T-unit. This average increased by approximately 2.1 words by the end of semester 2. The 2011 cohort, semester 2 MLT also achieve a higher average than the 2010 cohort, semester 2 MLT (M = 9.3, SD = 1.24, F = 1.46, P value = .262), though without significance.

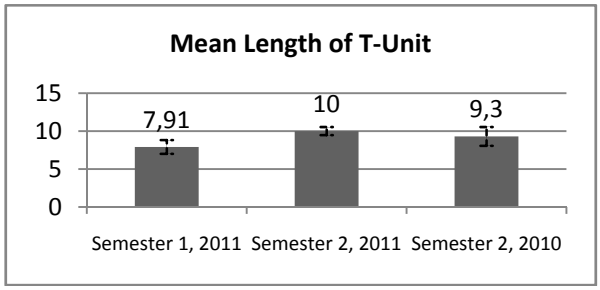

Figure 3. **Comparison of mean length of T-unit (MLT)**

The percentage of grammatically accurate T-units per T-unit also improved, though not significantly from 51.7% (M = .517, SD = .192) at the end of semester 1, 2011 to 74.5% of all T-units (M = .745, SD = 156, F = 4.27, P value = .073) by the end of semester 2. In contrast, the 2010 cohort had a CT/T rate of 44.7% (M = .447, SD = .28), a lower rate of accuracy in comparison to the sustained CBI cohort (F = 3.76, P value = .089), though without significance. An illustration of accurate vs. inaccurate T-units is demonstrated in *figure 4* below.

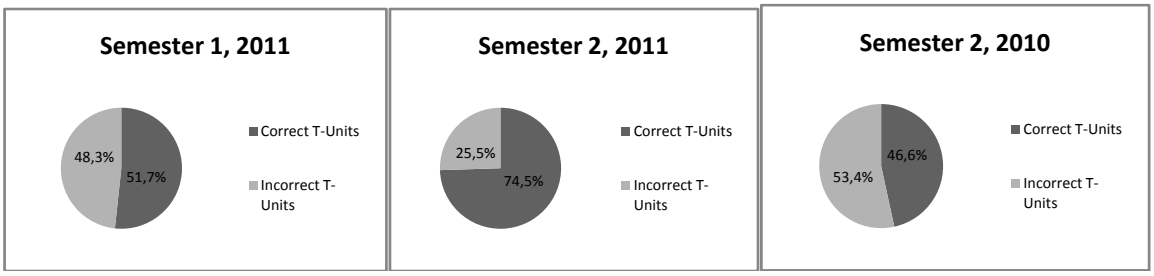

Figure 4. **Ratio of accuracy: grammatically correct T-units vs. incorrect T-units**

In addition to MLT, there were also significant improvements in NC. As illustrated below in *figure 5*, the incidence of complex noun phrases more than doubled from semester 1 to semester 2 from 24 occurrences per paper (M = 24.2, SD = 6.14) to 59 occurrences per paper (M = 59, SD = 4.1, F = 109.7, P = .000). The average word length of the papers also increased in length: averaging at 332.2 words per paper in semester 1 to an average of 407.4 words per paper in semester 2, an increase of 23%. Though both measures increased, the rate the NC increased far exceeded the rate the total words increased.

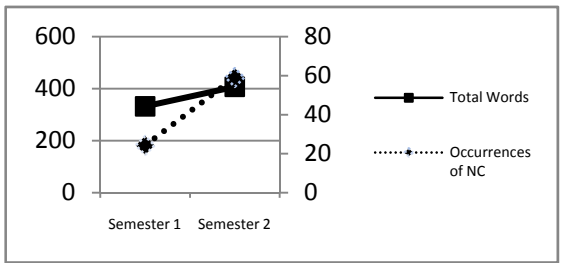

Figure 5. **Timeline of average word count and frequency of nominalizations**

Below, *figure 6* represents the frequency in which nominalizations occurred in student papers by giving a percentage of the NC divided by the total words in the paper. In semester one, the average rate of nominalizations was 7% (M = .07, SD = .02), whereas in semester 2 it increased significantly to 15% (M = .15, SD = .02, F = 39.03, P value = .000). This was a dramatic improvement for the 2011 cohort with an indisputable P value of .000. In comparison to the year prior, the 2011 cohort achieved a higher rate of nominalizations than that of the 2010 cohort (M = .12, SD = .03, F = 3.49, P value = .099) without significance.

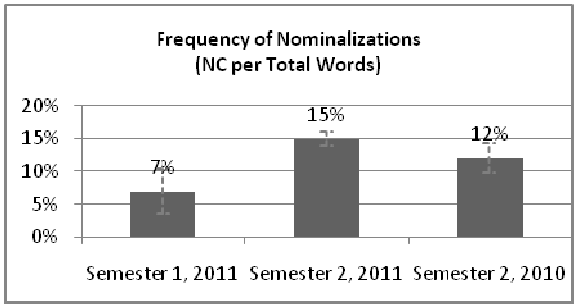

Figure 6. **Frequency of nominalizations for semesters 1 & 2, 2011 and semester 2, 2010 (with standard deviations)**

Results and Discussion

By all measures the 2011 cohort improved in syntactic complexity not only in comparison to the 2011 cohort data collected in semester 1, but also in comparison to the achievements of the 2010 cohort the year prior. The students who studied the sustained CBI curriculum display significant improvements in grammatical complexity by measure of MLT and achieved slightly better results than the 2010 cohort the year prior. In addition to improvements in MLT, the rate of accuracy per T-unit also improved, though with a P value of .023, higher than desired to prove significance. Nonetheless, each student paper improved in accuracy, and achieved an overall CT/T rate of 74.5% by the end of semester 2, an increase from the semester 1 CT/T rate of 52%: a rate far higher than the 2010 cohort with the CT/T rate of only 47% by the end of two semesters. Finally, the incidences of complex nominal phrases, a measure recently understood to represent improvements in academic writing, perhaps represents the strongest area of improvement. At the end of semester 1, the 2011 cohort had an average of only 24.2 NC per paper (which averaged 332 words). The average ratio of NC occurrences was only 7% at the end of semester 1. However, by the end of semester 2, the incidences of NC rose to an average of 15%. The ratio of NC/words improved quite dramatically and with an undisputable P value of .000. Once again, the 2011 semester 2 results were higher than the prior 2010 cohort's, but without significance.

Conclusion

Sustained CBI is effective for beginner level writing students in developing written accuracy and complexity. In a preliminary analysis, the 2011 beginner level Writing Strategies course produced significant improvements in written accuracy and readability when utilizing sustained CBI in the curriculum especially when compared to the 2010 cohort. In this final analysis, written complexity achieved during semester 2 of the program was analyzed and compared to the 2010 cohort, as well as semester 1 of 2011. Despite the fact that the randomly chosen 2011 writing was compared only with the more advanced tier from 2010, the 2011 cohort outperformed their prior 2010 cohort in every analyzed measure of complexity. The results show that the students improved during semester 2 in all measures of complexity, i.e., MLT, ratio of accurate T-units, and increased use of nominalizations. Additionally, an earlier preliminary analysis demonstrated that written accuracy improves significantly during semester 1 of the program. The practice of sustained CBI proves to have positive effects on beginner level ESL writing students.

To conclude, this study is potentially useful to other second language teachers of low/beginner level students. Sustained CBI, now proven to be effective for beginner level writers, has potential for other areas of the learning process of beginner lever students as well. This analytical process of learning could potentially be applied in other beginner level ESL classes as well, e.g., communication classes, reading classes.

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The Importance of Creating a Friendly Learning Environment

Viktoriia Timchenko & Alina Karelina
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

A friendly learning environment is a necessary factor for first year students to begin their studies. Universities outside Russia pay much attention to this problem, creating various courses aimed at reducing risks for students who are not acquainted with specific features of their campus, local realia, slang or the backgrounds of their classmates. The Far Eastern Federal University should support this idea and suggest original courses that will allow students to feel confident during the period of change of university campus so that they can make the transition to being a university student.

Keywords: *friendly learning environment, freshmen, realia, code of practice*

This paper focuses on the issue of creating a comfortable and friendly learning environment for students who have just arrived at FEFU to begin their studies.

The term "learning environment" ("educational environment" or "classroom environment") is widely used by contemporary scholars but it is understood so differently that sometimes it may cause misunderstanding.

In particular, Dr. Pamela Woolner looks at the variety of ways in which the widely-used term 'learning environment' is employed. The author examines a number of sources and comes to th conclusion that "learning environment" conveys very broad ideas about learning. It covers organizational, educational and physical aspects of the school experience which influence student health; it may also refer to different kinds of relationships involving cooperation among students, between teachers and students, the teacher's use of language, and styles of teaching and assessment (Woolner, 2007).

Angela Miller and Kathryn Cunningham (2010) state that "there are many important findings… that can impact students' learning and behavior. This is also an area of continued growth in research as changes in technology and social culture alter the dynamics of what is considered classroom environment."

The idea of this paper comes from the experience gained at the English Language Institute at Griffith University as from the first days at the University it was noticed that our colleagues paid great attention to helping students navigate through Australian realia. Then we were acquainted with courses such as "English Help" or "UniPrep" oriented towards the needs of university freshmen. In English language classes students gained not only some knowledge of the practical language but an understanding of what to do in case of an emergency, how to read the campus map, what places of interest in the city to visit, what local slang to learn, how to behave in class, where and when to contact their lecturers, what to expect from local social events, how to solve everyday problems (buying household goods, having shoes or a watch repaired).

The organization of lessons was also geared to the needs of the students. Various kinds of grouping are very popular so that students of all levels of knowledge could feel comfortable having the opportunity both to take the initiative and demonstrate their skills and linguistic competence and to have time to think and familiarizing themselves with new information.

Thus, our colleagues in Australia do a lot to create a friendly learning environment at their university and we think that their experience can serve as a model for us and our colleagues as we move to Russky Island where our students will meet similar challenges. Taking all this into account we have planned a preparatory course which is described in this paper.

The teaching goals of the suggested course are breaking the ice, helping students to get to know each other and facilitating positive cross-cultural communication.

We define the learning objectives as memorizing other students' names, learning of the different parts of the Russian Far East, learning about classmates' personal backgrounds, grammar (positive and negative statements, general and special questions) and general vocabulary revision, Vladivostok realia and slang, orientation to campus, giving directions and basic rules of conduct.

The feedback is:

a) Students get to know each other; they also develop their communicative skills; they improve their skills in asking questions;
b) Students begin to navigate through Vladivostok realia;

c) Students can find their way around campus;
d) Students gain new vocabulary, especially direction words.

In preparing the course we worked out a range of activities which aimed to build a friendly learning environment during the tutorial.

When the students first come to classes they can be given the following tasks:

a) fill out the form you are given by asking your fellow students questions;
b) introduce your desk mate.

Find someone who	Students' names						
comes from a town beginning with the letter B							
likes American pop music							
has more than two siblings							
has NEVER been to China							
comes from a city that stands on a river bank							
is interested in politics							
has always dreamt of a career as an actress/actor							
is an early bird							
is NOT on "Facebook"							
can have snowball fights when the temperature is 30 degrees C below zero							

Then the students are recommended to do the following quiz on how well they know Vladivostok and Primorsky Krai:

When you are in Vladivostok and hear "Let's meet in the evening at Dawn", it means

a) at 8 a.m.
b) at 8 p.m.
c) at a bus stop

1. The Wisdom Tooth is
   a) a tooth that appears between ages 17 and 25
   b) a bus stop
   c) the name of a building

2. C-56 is
   a) a model of sewing machine
   b) a monument
   c) a Vladivostok zip code

3. In Vladivostok, fern is
   a) cooked
   b) brewed
   c) considered to be a part of the emblem of the city

4. The Pedan is
   a) a person who is excessively concerned with formalism
   b) a place where your wishes come true
   c) a planner given out to every student at FEFU

5. If the express bus stops at the First River stop, then stops at the Second River stop, the next stop will be
   a) the Third River stop
   b) the Sea stop
   c) the Ocean stop

6. Your friend is in Vladivostok's China Town. He is talking to you on the phone. It is a bad line. Restore your friend's phrase
   a) "I am waiting at the Explanation."
   b) "I am waiting for the explanation."
   c) "I can't understand the explanation."

7. The Clover House is
   a) a greenhouse
   b) a shopping mall
   c) a restaurant

8. If you meet a local resident from Texas, you imagine
   a) ranchos and cowboys riding horses
   b) a plant repairing submarines
   c) George Bush and his big family

Actually, the majority of freshmen experience a lot of difficulty in living in a new city, living on a new campus, meeting new group mates and teachers and studying new subjects. In general, they are leading a new lifestyle.

When students begin to study, most of them are very excited as they are afraid of doing something wrong. Every minor infraction leads them to dramatize the situation and feel badly confused. To avoid misbehavior students may be also offered A Code of Conduct:

STUDENTS' CODE OF CONDUCT

The Far Eastern Federal University welcomes you and we are eager to offer you a range of lectures, workshops and tutorials conducted by our staff. In order to increase the effectiveness of your studies, you are requested to follow these guidelines when you are on campus:

1. Check the date, building number and room number and be sure you know where to go.
2. Enter the classroom at least 5 minutes before the bell.
3. Make sure that your mobile phone is switched off.
4. If you are late ….
5. If you need to leave the classroom….
6. If you have left your textbooks at home….
7. …….
8. …….

After classes:

1. Ensure that you remember your dormitory building number, room number and the telephone number of your roommate's mobile phone.
2. Find out the closing time of the dormitory and try not to be late.
3. Please, do not buy and bring high-power electrical equipment (heaters, microwave ovens, etc.) before you know whether students are allowed to use them in their rooms.
4. If there is a power outage……
5. If there is no tap water…..
6. If you cannot find you passport…..
7. …….
8. …….
9.

Building a learning environment is not limited to developing the skills necessary to orient oneself in a new city but on the campus as well. The way to do this is to integrate topics connected with the construction

of a friendly environment on campus into the academic syllabus and to organize meaningful lesson plans which aim to develop the first-year and international students' practical skills can be demonstrated through a number of activities.

For example, make three groups of students (1, 2 or 3) and choose a person who is good at reading maps (a navigator) in each group. The others help these people figure out their location by giving hints to the navigator after reading directions on the walls. The teacher will need a campus map and a list of descriptions of the location on the opposite wall:

1. The Student Center is the central building which crowns the complex of University buildings.
2. You are sure not to miss the School of Business because it is located next to the dormitory area in the first row of buildings.
3. The School of Regional and International Studies is the first building to the left of the Student Center.
4. The School of Engineering is to the right of the Student Center.
5. If you need to get to the School of Education, you should go past the School of Regional and International Studies, the Student Center and the School of Engineering.
6. The School of Law is linked to the School of Regional and International Studies.

Another activity which aims to develop listening skills is to act out dialogues on the topic og "Giving Directions".

Each student has a role: a person got lost on campus or he/she is looking for some campus service, he/she asks for directions. Students are supposed to use the expressions written on the cards:

ROLE CARD 1

You are George Griffith, a visiting professor at the School of Engineering. You are at the Student Center. You have got lost on the campus and are looking for the School of Engineering.

Expressions to use:
Excuse me, how can I get to….?
Do you know where……is?

ROLE CARD 2

You are a student and you help the professor to find the way to the School of Engineering.
Expressions to use:
go down this street (for _ blocks).
turn left/right at the traffic light.
go straight along _____ Street until you get to the _____.
When you get to the _____, turn left/right again.
stay on__ Street for about _ meters.
It's on your left (right), next to the _____. You can't miss it!

ROLE CARD 3

You are a student of the School of Regional and International Studies and live in dormitory 8. You need to get to the dorms after classes. You ask your fellow student to help you.

Expressions to use:
Do you know where …….is?
Excuse me, how can I get to….?

ROLE CARD 4

You are an undergraduate student who has already got used to the campus layout.
go down this street (for _ blocks).
turn left/right at the traffic light.
go straight along _____ Street until you get to the _____.
When you get to the _____, turn left/right again.
stay on__ Street for about _ meters.
It's on your left (right), next to the _____. You can't miss it!

The last but not the least point of this paper is about new vocabulary that students may see or hear in their everyday life. Being new to the university, they are like children who are known to gaining the maximum volume of new information during the first five years of life. New words come from everywhere: from local residents, teachers, friends, from the TV, radio, movies, posters, tablets, signs and plates. So as not to drown in the ocean of new words students should be helped to systematize them. One of the ways of doing this is recording them in a table and then discussing them in class with the teacher and classmates:

What is the spelling and pronunciation?	What is the meaning?	Where did you see or hear it?

In conclusion, it is important to mention that these tasks have already been done by the students who found them interesting, useful and helpful. Work in this direction can be continued by any teacher of the Department of Translation, the School of Regional and International Studies, FEFU. The results of this work may be embodied in a multi-author teaching aid.

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Teaching Texts Globally

Irina Gushchina & Julia Alekseeva
Far Eastern State University of Humanities, Khabarovsk, Russia
School № 80, Khabarovsk, Russia

Abstract

Globalization dominates cultures and civilizations nowadays. Global problems refer to the complex of processes that are reflected in periodicals. Globalization also dominates education and modern developments in language learning. The new approach of teaching texts globally will help university and school students broaden their range of interests and enrich their vocabulary.

Key words: *globalization, teaching, language globalization*

When we read texts published in Asia-Pacific countries, we immediately see that the problems they raise are global problems. They affect cultures, countries, people, etc. Global problems refer to the complex of processes that govern how things happen in the world. To understand these processes better one should understand globalization.

By analyzing the process of globalization and its connections with education, we conclude that teaching the reading of culture-oriented texts globally gives university and secondary school students the opportunity to change their attitude to language learning.

Thus, this paper is designed to help teachers to understand how globalization can develop their students' mental activity when choosing appropriate ways to read different texts.

Globalization is a relatively new concept in all spheres of life. It characterizes the historical process of our epoch. Samuel S. Kim (2009) defines globalization as "a set of processes spanning worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of human relations and transactions – economic, social, cultural, environmental, political, diplomatic, and security – such that events, decisions, and activities in one part of the world have unavoidable consequences for individuals, groups, and states in other parts of the world" (p. 46).

Global activities also influence the development of languages in Asia-Pacific countries. New terms, such as "global civilization", and "language globalization" have appeared (Гречко, 2011).

Analyzing the process of globalization one should have in mind that language globalization and language development can be well-observed in countries where the West and the East enrich each other and where the West is responsible for changing processes and the East for stability (Гречко, 2011, p. 135). These processes help us understand the changing mentality types. Westerners tend to reach new goals and solve new problems. People in the East have a different way of thinking. Therefore, they are used to artistic creativity.

One more thing to remember is that globalization changes national identity into transnational identity (Смоляков & Арутюнян, 2012, p. 60). This means that, while reading texts, students have to single out what is national, what belongs to certain traditions and what is new and common to many cultures.

Yet another point is that "informational floods" lead to the creation of a new world around us with its new language which is called "international", a new neighborhood, new relations, and new appreciation of life.

Finally, there is a growing tendency to witness cultural assimilation resulting from political, economic and cultural ties between countries.

Globalization as a period in the development of humankind positively and negatively influences modern development. In this paper, we will analyze only the positive influences.

The stimulating effect of globalization on educational systems is impossible without a language as a global means to unite global processes and global ideas. Language is now determined as a national and individual identity.

The language functions at the level of language development in the countries of the Asia-Pacific region. To illustrate our point of view we have chosen some texts published in *Asian Perspective, The Wall Street Journal, The Japan Times, China Business Weekly*, and *New Straits Times*.

If we want to teach our students how to read texts globally, we should change our point of view about the content of language education concerning that part of it which is connected with "knowledge". If we have the global idea in mind suggested by N. Ryabchenko (2012), it is possible to single out the components of global idea presented in newspapers and magazines.

The first component "Unity" comprises the following problems:

1. The present time: globalization and civilization.
2. Man and nature, ecological ethics.
3. Health: healthy society, healthy mind, reasonable decisions.
4. Integrity.
5. Correlation in the global world.
6. Opinion systems.
7. Security.

The second component "Harmony" includes:

1. Types of cultures, their characteristic features. Western and eastern cultures.
2. Positive characteristics of cultures.
3. The best features of cultures.

The third component "Progress" is characterized by:

1. Development.
2. Stagnation.
3. Scientific and technological progress.
4. Innovations.
5. Ethical and moral achievements.
6. Intellect.

So, when we read texts globally, we should pay special attention to development or stagnation processes in some countries, define interests in the problems of unity such as global governance, global management, global civil society, the global environment, global village, global epidemics, global citizenship, global personality, etc.

When some cultures are eager to discuss harmonious ideas the reader may prefer to analyze the existence of a harmonious world where civilizations have equal opportunities for development. Students should find out whether the countries respect life, freedom, justice, honesty and mutual aid or not. It is of great importance to find a global tendency in a culture-oriented text.

If the text touches upon economic problems the reader can find lexical material describing global financial crises, global economic recovery, foreign exchange markets, and cultures' hopes to attract global readers by high global standards. Special attention should be paid to brilliant global ideas, meticulous planning, energy-saving programs, bilateral trade in telecommunication and network protection.

Teaching texts globally is a new approach to broaden students' range of interests and enrich their vocabulary.

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"Unplugged Narrative": A Dogme ELT Writing Lesson

Gerald Von Bourdeau
Gimcheon University, Republic of Korea

Abstract

This lesson plan demonstrates how Teaching Unplugged may be applied in an EFL writing course. All three tenets of Teaching Unplugged are fulfilled, i.e. the lesson conversation-driven, materials-light, and focuses on emergent language. In this lesson, students collaborate to create a biographical narrative and focus on rhetorical devices and lexical items associated with narrative. The lesson was developed for sophomore students taking Introduction to Practical and Academic Writing at a small, private university in South Korea. The students' writing proficiencies range from intermediate mid to intermediate high according to the ACTFL guidelines.

Keywords: *Teaching Unplugged, Dogme ELT, Meddings&Thornbury, narrative, writing*

Rationale

Richard Hugo's *The Triggering Town* is a collection of essays on poetics that argues for poets to stop writing what they know (1979). Instead, writers should explore their imaginations and seek out "triggering" landscapes, themes, and language. For Hugo, it is a foreign town (usually rural and run down) that triggers the imagination and music of the poem. Too often writers have an overwhelming attachment to relating our surroundings honestly and accurately according to our memories and experiences. Writing what we know makes it nearly impossible to write honestly and stilts the imagination. In Hugo's view, we should be true to the language and not to the experience. This connection to the imagination and the music of words is what personalizes the language and themes of a poem.

I believe Teaching Unplugged, which is also referred to as Dogme ELT, in the EFL writing classroom provides the 'triggering town' students need to write personally and communicatively. A Teaching Unplugged lesson is materials-light, conversation-driven, and hones in on the language that emerges during the lesson (Meddings&Thornbury, 2011). Not primarily relying on coursebooks and handouts that teach students *the* writing process, instead of creating their *own* process, as well as, *the* essay model, instead of *discovering* essay models, frees students to collaborate and develop autonomy in their writing. Meddings and Thornbury (2011) explain:

> [A] Dogme approach is not anti-materials nor anti-technology *per se*. What it rejects are those kinds of materials and aids that don't conform with the kinds of principles outlined earlier. Materials that might just conform to these principles would be those that support the establishment of a local

> discourse community, and which foster the joint construction of knowledge, mainly through mediated talk. (p. 12)

Too often current EFL/ESL writing textbooks teach grammar and essay models before communicative composition, which is putting the proverbial cart before the horse. This does not mean that textbooks need to be rejected. Dogme ELT instructors often use textbooks and materials to generate ideas and can analyze or work against these materials with students. Authentic texts should be used alongside traditional course materials. I have used texts from reddit.com, Wikipedia, and from books of creative essays. However, in the classroom setting, the most authentic texts are student-generated. One caveat is that it is necessary to ask permission from students to share their writing with the class and make sure learners possess the confidence and motivation to analyze their writings in class.

You might find a conversation-driven writing class to be counterintuitive; however, according to Gee (2005), conversation is our primary discourse. Meddings and Thornbury (2011) argue;"There are at least five reasons why conversation should occupy a key role in language learning. These are: Conversation is language at work. Conversation is discourse. Conversation is interactive, dialogic and communicative. Conversation scaffolds learning. Conversation promotes socialization" (p. 8).Much "real-world" writing done today is discussion-based. These days, text message, email, blogs, social-networking, and internet commentary constitute a large part of learners' writing. Communicating via text has become a preferred and free means of communication for smart technology users, e.g. Kakao Talk, Skype, and Facebook Messenger. Our students' writing is primarily conversational; therefore, our writing classes need to reflect this dialogic discourse. The majority of my writing courses tended to be centered on the discussion of language, themes (including the social), and ideas. Why would I deny this communal and collaborative dynamic to my EFL writing students? It is my belief that students will feel more confident writing a particular style of essay, or on a subject, after that style and subject have been a topic of conversation in class.

Students need to be aware of and to learn the genres and models required of them by academia. I suggest that a conversation-driven course leads to the acquisition of these genres and models. As can be seen in the next section, the learners in the course where this lesson takes place are just being introduced to essay writing. An open and spoken dialog helps foster what Canagarajah refers to as a "safe zone" in language learning classrooms (1999, p. 192). I want my learners to feel safe and to view the writing done for class as a means for creativity and expression instead of a burden or academic chore. Buripakdi (2011) states, "the use of personal writing [is] a means to help smooth students' transition from personal or non-academic discourse to academic discourse. Simply put, we should promote personal writing by encouraging students to expand their personal writing into academic writing" (p. 33).Elbow (1995) reflects:

> In my first year writing course I feel this conflict between the interests of readers and writers. Yes, my larger self wants them to feel themselves as readers and academics, but this goal seems to conflict with my more pressing hunger to help them feel themselves as writers. That is, I can't help wanting my students to have some of that uppitiness of writers toward readers. I want them to be able to say, "I'm not just writing for teachers or readers, I'm writing as much for me—sometimes even more for me." (p. 77)

Conversation, personal or extensive writing, and collaborative writing on a topic provide, in my opinion, a pathway to academic writing.

Explicitly analyzing lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical elements in class with learners fosters acquisition. Is not this what happens in virtually any EFL classroom? Yes, but often before production, especially if a lesson is textbook-driven. When to correct mistakes and errors can be a touchy subject. Some instructors can be overly critical and correct every little grammatical, lexical, or phonemic mistake or error; on the other hand, we never want to damage a learner's affective state and wish to foster a friendly learning environment. In my experience, learners want to produce and do not want that production to be hindered; moreover, learners want constructive feedback and will often complain that they are unsure of what they are learning if no correction is offered. Ellis (2008) gives an analogy for form-focused instruction. He explains:

> Form-focused instruction pulls learners out of their implicit habits, their automatized routines, by recruiting consciousness. Habits are implicitly controlled attractor states. We never think of walking, until it breaks down; as we start to stumble, then the feeling of falling is the negative evidence that recruits conscious control. (p. 240)

Meddings and Thornbury (2011) propose, "even advocates of usage-based acquisition admit that the process can be speeded up by some kind of direct intervention," and go on to state, "If learners are having trouble identifying and abstracting patterns, their attention can be purposefully directed at them" (p.19). Explicitly focusing on mistakes, errors, and the positives in class together kills two birds with one stone. First, the students save face because they are not directly called out on their mistakes, and secondly, learners receive the feedback they desire. I do not remember learning grammar or syntax from textbooks but from all the red murdering my first academic essays. Of course, I hope my emergent language instruction is less brutal than that I remember receiving from professors.

Learning Context

This lesson took place at a small, private university in Korea. The learners involved are sophomore English majors. There are eight women and two men enrolled in the course. The students' writing proficiencies range from intermediate mid to intermediate high according to the ACTFL guidelines. The course is titled Introduction to Practical and Academic Writing. This lesson occurred during the second semester of the course. In this lesson, students collaborated to create a biographical narrative and focused on rhetorical devices and lexical items associated with narrative. The learning format included group collaboration, class discussion, and class as well as instructor analysis of student generated texts. A "jigsaw" activity is borrowed from TBLT to scaffold group conversation and collaborative composition of a narrative text. The groups was mixed in terms of speaking and writing proficiency. The more fluent students were given a role which was more challenging and required them to speak quite a bit more than their group mates. The lesson is divided into three parts: 1. Conversation (Jigsaw) 2. Generating text 3.Analyzing texts. I have been teaching the same students for four semesters. According to instructor evaluations and student interviews, the teacher-student rapport is generally strong, and the students are used to the collaborative nature of my courses. During the time of this lesson, students were not timid in sharing their writing. In fact, learners would be disappointed if time constraints did not allow them to share their writing in class. I always get students' permission before sharing their writing.

Materials and Resources

Following the mantra of Dogme ELT, this is a pretty bare bones lesson when it comes to materials. The primary content of the lesson is six photographs of writers compiled on a Powerpoint slide. A computer and projector are the tools used to deliver the content. All of my students own smartphones. We utilize their smartphones as a convenient means to produce their texts. I provide a QR Code which the students scan with their smartphones. This QR Code links the students online with a Google Doc. Once the texts are composed on Google Docs, I can easily bring them up on the projector and we can analyze them as a class (Kent and Jones, 2012). If the class is not equipped with smartphones, the internet, or a projector, I section off the whiteboard for each group to compose their text, or in some classrooms I provide a rolling whiteboard to each group. If whiteboards are not available, white posters work great, taped or tacked up around the room. Also, printed off photos or pages clipped from magazines do just fine. This use of technology is not anti-Teaching Unplugged, since it is conducive to the precepts of Dogme ELT. The technology is simply a convenient way to deliver the content.

Implementation

I put the Powerpoint slide featuring six photos of writers I admire on the projector screen (see Appendix). I do not tell the class anything about the people in the photo. I want the learners to use their imagination in creating a narrative for the people in the photos. We talk about the class' first impression of the photographs.

The class organizes itself into groups of four. I nominate the most proficient student from each group to choose someone from the photo and become that person for this activity. I will refer to this student as Student 1. I tell the groups that Student 1 will now become whatever person he or she has chosen from the screen. I let the class know that Student 1 will speak in the voice of the chosen person and create a new identity. I tell Student 1 to choose a name for their character and tell Students 2, 3, and 4 to refer to Student 1 by that name. The groups are told that their task is to collaborate on a narrative about Student 1's life.

This is when the jigsaw activity begins. Student 1 brainstorms the details of his or her life including childhood/family, education, and career as well as failures or achievements. Students 2, 3, and 4 will now

brainstorm questions to ask Student 1 about her life. Student 2 will ask questions about childhood and family. Student 3 will ask questions about education. Student 4 will ask questions about career and accomplishments.

After the brainstorming, students 2, 3 and 4 will converse with Student 1 about his or her life. Any questions that Student 1 did not anticipate will have to be answered on the fly. Students 2, 3 and 4 take notes on the answers given by Student 1 about her life. After the group feels they have sufficient knowledge about the person's life, they will put the pieces together to create a brief outline. I walk around helping students with language and ask them questions about their outline to make sure they have sufficient information for the next step. Student 1 helps with the outline by giving extra details and supplying information that her groupmates may have forgotten.

Once the groups are happy with their outlines, I have them collaborate on a short biographical narrative on Student 1's "life". I only have the students compose about a paragraph in class. The students compose the text with their smartphones using Google docs. I mingle with the class helping with language, narrative techniques, and content.

Once the paragraphs are complete, we review the texts as a class, on the screen. I generally ask the class for their first impressions of the text, and ask questions such as, "What did the authors do well?" or "What could the authors have done better?" We then analyze the lexical items, grammar, narrative techniques and rhetorical elements in the text. I make sure to give as much or more praise than criticism or correction.

This is one lesson in a series targeting narrative. This lesson is employed to further the students' understanding of biographical narrative and to encourage collaboration and community building. Students will complete extensive writing directly related to this lesson as homework. Each student uses the paragraph composed in class to create their own biographical narrative essay. The students will add an introduction and conclusion as well as organize the body of the essay, integrating the existing paragraph and adding supporting details. At the beginning of the next class, learners will share their extensive writings. It is interesting for the learners to see how their writings compare and contrast as well as possibly "steal" some ideas from their classmates. A possible alternative to this extensive writing is to have learners find or take their own photographs of people they do not know and write a biographical narrative about or in the voice of that person.

Objectives Realized

This writing lesson is conversation-driven, promotes collaboration, and fosters a safe and dialogic discourse community. The texts analyzed in the classroom are as authentic as possible as they are student generated and written for a specific audience. Each student is instrumental in composing a text which utilizes lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical items common in narrative. Therefore, the language that emerges in each group's text is the focus of explicit instruction in the final section of the lesson. Most importantly, I hope the learners enjoy themselves and are motivated to write.

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Academic Speakers: Accuracy Makes a Difference

Galina Tarasova
Russian Academy of Sciences (Far-Eastern Branch), Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Russian contributors to international scientific gatherings have gained more presence in global exchange of ideas which testifies to the value of their input. However, the speakers often have problems discussing their findings. The key is speech accuracy which adds clarity, saves time and provides for overall confidence. First, the paper briefly characterizes our EAP target-based course for adult professionals and our learners' typical traits. Then, we substantiate the need for improving the course on the basis of course feedbacks. Next, we consider the resources used for adding corrective activities, to provide a thoughtful and purposeful approach to speech accuracy building. Finally, we give an overview of corrective activities added to the course.

Key words: *adult professionals, accuracy, oral presentation, feedback, Internet ELT community, corrective activities, fossilized errors, noticing*

Introduction

In this paper I would like to share some findings of practical work with a considerable group of highly motivated adult professionals. The focus on communication has become the cornerstone of ELT classroom activities in recent decades. This approach has played its healthy role and assisted adult professional learners in their quest for broader international contacts of all kinds. The language barrier is no longer an un-surmountable obstacle for most

Russian speakers/participants in international scientific conferences, considering certain tolerance to the lack of speech accuracy of non-native contributors. However, we see or, rather, we would like to see that the days of slack standards in oral proficiency are gone. What makes me believe in new reality as to higher expectations concerning accuracy both on the part of listeners and especially on the part of the speakers (my learners)? The long practice of collecting the learners' course expectations and course feedbacks, actually, from 2001, and the habit of reviewing them for looking into actual needs and course recommendations has finally revealed something of importance for reconsidering and updating it to better serve the needs of the users.

So, first, we will have a look at the course in question. Then we will give an overview of the characteristic traits of our learners. Next, we look into the resources used to upgrade the course design and, finally, we give a detailed report on the corrective activities added to the in-class and out-of-class work.

Briefly speaking, the course in question is designed to prepare academic contributors to be effective international scientific fora participants. The crash course encompasses 70 hours of class work plus at least 70 hours homework. Besides, we admit learners of varying EL proficiency and age, from 25 to 60 plus. This implies a multi-faceted work aimed at developing the skills of oral scientific presentation and of effective participation in Q&A sessions.

This is an ambitious aim, as it is, considering the limited timeframe allotted. Mostly ambitious (though oftentimes timid) men and women in the group are interesting people to deal with. The group interaction makes the role of the teacher extremely sensitive. We have to manage the class activity so as to dig the best of their potential and make use of their rich prior learning experience without ruining the self-esteem of the folks who are not used to publicly exposing their linguistic weaknesses. At the end of the course, as a rule, we come up with a closely-knit group of people respecting each other and capable of presenting and discussing their ideas clearly and distinctly.

One more trait of such a group is the presence of people who frequently speak to international conferences and who are overconfident in their ability to communicate easily and fluently as their experience has convinced them. Remember the tolerance mentioned earlier plus the scientific international language and graphic tools to aid in communication, greatly contributing to non-verbal clarification of content. These individuals are hard-line believers in their "impeccable", "top-notch" English while they cannot notice deep-rooted, even fossilized errors as their prior "success" has void them of the ability to notice their own inaccuracies. Another extreme are the over self conscious who fear speaking publicly, fear the judgement of others and whose grammar, usage and phonetic competency also leave much to be desired. This of course opens rich opportunities for pair/group work, for project work and, eventually, for peer teaching.

So, if we look in the feedback forms (117 collected between 2003 and 2012) again, most of the learners, notwithstanding valuable content which is undoubted, want compositionally, phonetically, structurally and usage-wise accurate presentations and meaningful, no gray zones and puzzled looks Q&A sessions which plays a considerable role in improving the quality of communication. Thus, the new look at the needs of the learners brings into the course a new focus which is a tool, not an aim in itself, but an important one.

What does a teacher do in case there is a new turn in a seemingly successful course that has earned scores of positive feedbacks from the learners? Look at your resources and help your learners to finally be led to more grammar work, still not formal, as expected by some of them, sill directly connected with their practice. There is one more resource we are fortunate to have now. It is the easily accessible Internet ELT community. There we find multiple sites and groups focused on accuracy where one can find and organize the information on types of errors, on when and how to correct errors, on "noticing grammar" (Rod Ellis, 2002, in Francis J. Noonan III, 2005), on "internalizing" grammar rules (Batstone, 1996 in Francis J. Noonan III, 2005). You may either compare the wealth of these tips and be assured that what you are already doing is in line with the methodology of other experts or pick new approaches suitable for your particular learners. Just a few of the resources are, for instance,

1) http://teflbootcamp.com/tefl-skills/correcting-errors-in-efl/,
2) chipperchina@hotmail.com,
3) http://www.onestopenglish.com/support/ask-the-experts/methodology-questions/methodology-fossilized-errors/146396.article,
4) http://kalinago.blogspot.com/2009/03/fossilized-errors-in-foreign-language.html,
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6) http://eltnotebook.blogspot.com/2007/04/deciding-what-and-when-to-correct.html,
7) The Internet TESL Journal.

As it was stated at the outset of the paper, our presentation looks into the ways of adding corrective activities into lesson plans to provide a more profound approach to the on-going accuracy building both in class and in a long-term perspective, when the course is over and our learners are on their own.

Concrete corrective activities

1. In class. Presentations: work with the model text, analysis of its structure, vocabulary, discourse markers;

2. In class. Practice: making a) skeleton Introduction b) skeleton Outline, c) skeleton Main Body, d) skeleton Conclusions. The word "skeleton" was made up for in-class use to imply a brief text to cover key information without supporting details basically for practicing the compositional structure of a future presentation with the use of discourse markers found in model texts and in additional sources.

3. Homework. Full Introduction, Outline, Body, Conclusions. Checking in Class. Listening to each other – Noticing/Elucidating gray areas thru questions. Error correction: common errors in the form of Russian-English pairs; noun-verb agreement, word stress, prepositional phrases, meaning –differentiating sounds, inaccurate word usage. Individual errors are corrected without indicating the learners' names, to save their self-esteem. No Judgment! This form of correction is usually appreciated by our adult learners.

Next stage: Choosing topics for Presentations of Round 1+plus signing up for the date on the presentation calendar. Enough lead time should be given for two proof readings by the teacher, thus the text for the oral presentation is in the correct grammatical form. Home preparation includes working with word pronunciation (transcription), taping, listening to the recorded text and timing it to 10 minutes of presentation.

Next Stage: Presenting to the bigger group; Elucidating gray areas thru Q&A.

Preparation for the Q&A: From the start of the course – audio-lingual work with the textbook English for Scientists by L. N. Smirnova (Leningrad, Nauka, 1990), doing the "mantras" (repetitive exercises to practice correct question word order). Why the mantras? Learners like flashy words, creating a sense of their own closely-knit LL community of initiates, with a language known to the members. Complete internalizing of grammar is not guaranteed but is considerably enhanced. Plus students trust textbooks more than handouts!

Throughout the course: Oral controlled activities: 7-step work with recorded texts and dialogues from the course book American English for Everyday and Academic Use, St. Petersburg, Nauka, 2004. To avoid the de-motivating impact of the recordings that have normal/high speed and rather complicated vocabulary, and include idiomatic language, we practice, in class, a non-threatening start, that is listening for answering one simple question. At home they do 1) reading the script; 2) making its meaning crystal clear; 3) shadow reading with the speakers with vocal cords turned out; 3) catching up in whisper; 4) reading out loud with the speakers, still following by the script; 5) the same for gaining more confidence); 6) the same almost without the script; 7) the same without the script. Thus, the learners get more confidence step by step and take up the next listening comprehension activity less apprehensively. In class: act out the dialogues, aided by the back translation if needed. This work is challenging and exciting to the students. Not all can cope in class. Their English proficiency levels had been different from the start anyway. The overall result is still positive.

Thus, this differentiated step-by-step approach leads to improving listening comprehension, fluency and to grammar model internalizing. It also leads to developing the skills of noticing and self-correction in the final analysis.

It should also be noted that in the final self assessments the learners remark that the above work helps them to improve their level of confidence to a great extent.

Besides, it should be noted that our own correction of mistakes has also been done and now the new course assessment forms, along with the other items, include one more: **What will be your concrete steps for further strengthening the improved or newly acquired skills?** The answers vary from doing the "mantras" to reading more professional literature, listening to tapes in the course book, speaking on the Skype with international colleagues/friends, attending international conferences as contributors and as listeners, visiting the Internet sites for developing different skills in English, watching films in English, to name just a few.

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Reading for Cultural and Communicative Awareness

Ludmila Vinnikova
Amur State University after Sholom Aleikhem, Birobidjan, Russia

Abstract

Home reading, viewed as an intensive type of reading, has the potential to help students to increase their linguistic, communicative, socio-cultural and other competencies, if reading for information and enjoyment go hand in hand. A teacher elicits from students both linguistic and extra-linguistic information at various levels of analysis, namely, linguistic analysis, content and composition analysis, sociocultural analysis, theme and message analysis. Each level of language and literary analysis corresponds to a definite group of communicative activities that students are exposed to. The activities aim to develop students' literary aesthetic skills, critical thinking, communicative skills and cultural awareness.

Key words: *cultural awareness, communicative skills, reading comprehension*

Introduction

To effectively improve English learners' language abilities, teachers need to introduce them to reading literature at home and provide essential guidance for it. It is necessary to emphasize the paradigm shift in the use of literature for teaching language, communication and culture, based on the principle that literary works can give students intellectual pleasure. Immanuel explains:

> Bearing in mind the mixed-ability classes, literature:
> - has the power to motivate students to learn a language they might not learn otherwise,
> - is readily available and applicable to a wide range of learners, and
> - is increasingly being used as a language learning resource in other parts of the world (2011, p. 11).

The teacher elicits from the students both linguistic and extra-linguistic information at various levels of analysis, namely, linguistic analysis, content and composition analysis, theme and message analysis. Thanks to home reading the students make improvements in many aspects of their language skills and come to know the variety of cultural worlds that reading can present. Each level of language and literary analysis corresponds to a definite group of communicative activities that students are exposed to.

Discussion

Reading is a powerful means for raising cultural awareness. Intercultural knowledge and intercultural differences have always been a major focus in teaching EFL. As Kaikkonen says: "As part of the need to increase multicultural collaboration, *intercultural communicative competence* is now generally seen as an overarching goal in foreign language education. It involves essentially a capacity for encountering cultural diversity in intercultural communication between people coming from different socio-cultural settings. It also emphasizes the importance of being able to critically reflect on one's cultural identity and values and to develop an awareness of the complex relationships between language, society and cultural meanings" (2001, p. 65).

Cross-cultural awareness, which is very close to the above-mentioned intercultural awareness, may be defined as follows: Cross-Cultural Awareness is critical to basic cross-cultural understanding and develops from cross-cultural knowledge (a surface level familiarization with cultural characteristics, values, beliefs and behaviors) as the learner understands and appreciates a culture internally. This may also be accompanied by changes within the learner's behavior and attitudes such as a greater flexibility and openness.

Cross-cultural awareness supposes knowledge and juxtaposition of cultural characteristics of lexical units: their stylistic values in this and another culture, functional synonyms, socially oriented background and other. Robinson says: "The main concern has traditionally been with so-called *realia,* words and phrases that are so heavily and exclusively grounded in one culture that they are almost impossible to translate into the terms – verbal or otherwise – of another" (2007, p. 186). According to the cross-cultural approach, any word with a sociocultural coloring needs explaining in its native (foreign for a learner) linguacultural context, on the one hand; and its meaning and usage ought to be viewed from the point of view of a learner in the framework of the native (his or her own) culture.

Home reading provides an opportunity to develop the cultural awareness of learners while analyzing cultural characteristics of socially-oriented words, values, beliefs and behaviors of the main characters from a cross-cultural angle. Let us take the institution "Homes for Old People", mentioned in the book *Taxi Driver's Daughter* by Julia Darling. Students may be asked to ponder over the issue: *Why and for whom are Homes for Old People in Britain and in Russia designed? Is there any difference in the social status of their inhabitants in Britain and this country? What is the socio-cultural background to the existence of such Homes?*

As for choosing a book, it might be a good idea to take in a novel which fits in with a topic in the textbook, in order to give another slant on it, or let the students experience a different style. This book (Darling, 2003) is a suitable sample of intelligent and sharp prose touching upon many life issues and capturing aesthetic, moral, psychological and cultural aspects of human relationships.

It is recognized that three levels of reading comprehension are relevant to activities at the pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages.

Motivation Stage (Pre-reading)

It is a good idea before reading a text to activate students' schemata (background information) with pictures or questions relating both to the text and their own lives.

The following pre-reading questions can be asked: *How can you determine the genre of the story you are going to read? Read the keywords from the story and speculate on the main ideas; What questions do the keywords raise for the reader? What would you like to find out? What is the story going to be about, judging by the title?* This apparently counter-intuitive idea of asking specific questions about a story yet to be read can produce stimulating responses. The questions are best presented in the order in which they occur in the original story. This allows a narrative structure to be formed from the outset, and leads the students to give their answers naturally in the form of a narrative (Bessert and Kolesnikova, 2005).

When you are ready to pre-teach the vocabulary, write it on the board and give your students time to brainstorm their ideas with a partner before you define the new words as they are used in the context of the reading. If there is enough time allotted for home reading classes, students may start reading (for the main idea) in class. According to C. Nuttall's (1996) time-tested self-study reading strategy of five steps first comes "Survey: skim for relevancy and for main ideas", which is followed by "Question: then ask yourself questions that could be answered in the text".

The motivation stage can precede both reading single short stories and reading novels. The difference is that pre-reading prognostic tasks in the case of reading novels might deal with predicting a further plot development, theme dynamics, shaping out of main characters, the writer's style variation or other aspects of a literary work.

Overall Comprehension Stage (Reading)

The most important thing is to read for understanding. The readings are followed by a series of comprehension questions that concern both linguistic and extra-linguistic information at various levels of analysis, namely, linguistic analysis, content and composition analysis and build up a basis for critical thinking. If the students have composed predictive stories before reading, they are encouraged to compare the original content with their anticipated variants.

Checking general understanding (extra-linguistic information analysis) after reading another part in the novel *Taxi Driver's Daughter* is achieved with questions and comments:

1. *Why does Mac long for trips to the airport as a taxi driver? Why does driving in the city infuriate him?*
2. *What were the girls busy doing that evening? In what ways are they different?*
3. *What news broke the evening peace and quiet?*
4. *What was the girls' first reaction to the shoplifting?*

5. *How did Mac and Nana Price try to explain what caused the crime?*
6. *Comment on the following lines "Caris loathes the way they chew, their jaws moving in a synchronized rhythm, and the sound the food makes as it slumps down their throats. She can't stand it any more" (p. 11). How did she feel about the incident?*
7. *How did the family react to her running outside?*
8. *Why is one of the chapters called "Lovely Girls"? Summarize it.*

The activities given here are in full accord with Nuttall's guidelines for students concerning self-study reading strategies (1996):

> Read: then read for the answers to your questions; make a note of other interesting or relevant points.
> Recite: then reprocess the information by saying the answers out loud to your questions to help cement the information in your mind.

Checking comprehension is accompanied by vocabulary or phrase practice and some activities to activate the readers' interest (linguistic analysis). Looking up the words in a dictionary enables students to find and identify the literal meanings of lexical units. While analyzing the imagery created by connotative meanings of these words, the students come to know the shift from literal to connotative meaning and this puts them more effectively on track for language learning.

One of the connotative components is the sociocultural meaning of the word that readers need to learn while reading a text, recognize and use in their practice activities. This may be achieved in the following way: *Give the Russian equivalent for the idiomatic expression "to make the veins stand up in one's head" (p. 30). Comment on the semantic differences of the original and translated variants. What different conceptual elements are in focus in the two cultures? Match the English colloquial words and phrases with their meanings (some may have more, than two colloquial meanings):*

1. *junkie (p. 73)*
2. *to keep smb cooped up in (prison) (p. 75)*
3. *to get one's head kicked in (p. 78)*
4. *a fag, to fag (pp. 80 and 82)*

младший ученик, оказывающий услуги старшеклассникам; сигарета; наркоман; шестерить; пробить башку; корпеть; посадить в клетку.

Critical thinking is attained through analysis that goes hand in hand with synthesis. Subject matter and structuring analysis (content and composition analysis) may contain various tasks. Here are but a few:

- Divide the story into several meaningful parts, give each a title and explain it.
- Make key-questions for each part.
- Write down words belonging to the same semantic field.
- Think of a possible plot development, if a character had taken another decision in a problematic situation.
- Think whether the characters are flat, round, dynamic or static. Enlarge on this.

On the basis of this analysis students develop their skills in linguistic and stylistic interpretation of the text, its gist and key ideas.

Tasks aimed at content and composition synthesis may include the following activities:

- Summarize the story.
- What circumstances keep a character from attaining his goal?
- Give a character portrayal using the cluster method.
- Suggest various ways of settling a conflict situation.
- How do the characters relate to each other? Consider their conflicting attitudes.
- Think of possible questions that you may ask the characters and the answers they may give. Act out the interview.

These activities enable students to summarize all the information elicited from their peers and learning materials about the characters, the setting, national character and so on. Students learn to put themselves into the target culture's background, identify themselves with native speakers and feel empathy for them.

Reflection Stage (Post-reading)

Organizing a class discussion (theme and message analysis) on the issues tackled in the book and related to the students' cultural and social background is the prime aim in the post-reading stage. Make sure that activities not only check comprehension, but also are graduated from controlled to semi-controlled to freer activities.

- Comment on the use of imagery. How does it help the author to engage the reader's attention (epithets, metaphors, metonymies, similes, parallel constructions…)?
- What is the tone of the chapter? Find evidence to support your answer.
- What do you think is the theme of the chapter? Does part three suggest the theme?

The turns of the plot are mostly situations English learners encounter in their daily lives, which provides students with plenty of opportunities to use and practice social scenarios they have learned in real life. Students are encouraged to work in pairs/groups and confirm answers with another pair before coming together as a class (Copeland, 2012, p. 8). And here is the final advice from C. Nuttall: "Review, later, rethink about the information and put it in the context of your previous experience or knowledge. When the students tell the class about their personal article, I like to encourage them to do that from this perspective … the second step in effect makes the student responsible for guiding himself" (1996, p. 129).

Consequently, with plenty of time for class discussion, a teacher can walk around to take questions during pair and group work activities, and create additional class assignments or homework related directly to the text:

- *What problems emerge in connection with the sentencing policy in Britain? Find out the relevant information about Russia;*
- *What do you know about takeaways? Are they popular in our country? Why? What social attitudes does it give rise to?*
- *What is the procedure for dealing with difficult children in British schools? Comment on Mr. Fortoba's suggestion: "I can arrange for you to see a counsellor." (p. 88)*

Then the lesson moves on to production, or the final stage of post-reading activities. Sometimes the students are expected to write character sketches or essays on the main themes of the novel and sometimes they are guided to websites to get information before completing a task:

Choose one of the following propositions and write an essay. Give your arguments:
Only a person who has no children can be happy;
Only a person who has children can be happy;
Only a person who has siblings can be happy;
Only a person in a nuclear family can be happy.

With more advanced learners, the teacher may consider incorporating a debate if the topic is controversial.

Conclusion

So, home reading viewed as an intensive type of reading has the potential to help students to increase their linguistic, communicative, socio-cultural and other competencies, if reading for information and enjoyment go hand in hand. "Keep it simple! And enjoy!"(Corwin, 2012, p. 11).

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The English Lounge: Fostering a Cooperative Language Learning Community

Elizabeth Yoshikawa
Muroran Institute of Technology, Japan

Abstract

Japanese students are often noted for exceling in reading and writing English, in comparison to their apparent lack of oral communication skills. Recently, the Japanese Ministry of Education has had increased pressure from the business market to foster a potential Japanese workforce with spoken English skills. In an effort to fulfill the Education Ministry’s objective of Japanese with spoken English abilities, some universities are creating English spaces where students can autonomously improve their English. This paper presents the challenges faced when setting up such an autonomous space as exemplified by one university’s experience in the creation of the English Lounge.

Key words: *autonomous learning, English training center, administration*

Introduction

In effort to fulfill the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology’s (MEXT) objective of improving Japanese people’s spoken English skills, many universities are considering different options. One route some universities are taking is the creation of English spaces where students can come freely to improve their English. This has lead to the creation of (English) Language Training Centers such as: the English Lounge at Toyo-Gakuen in 2004, the World Plaza at Nanzan University in 2006, and more recently the English Lounge at Hirosaki University in 2012. The purpose of these language centers is to create an autonomous language-learning environment for university students to improve their foreign language skills.

There are many challenges in setting up and the running an autonomous language learning space. Each institution will face these challenges differently; the situation at Hirosaki University’s language learning center, the English Lounge (EL) will be presented here. Hirosaki University is a national university in northern Japan. The educational goal of the EL is to develop students’ English, both in terms of their confidence and ability, however as the university is essentially a business there are influences from the administration. These in addition are also influenced by language policies and ideologies. The following is a brief discussion of the setting up of the EL in terms of the student users, its daily operation, and influences from the university administration.

The English Lounge

The English Lounge, when it opened in April 2012, was officially a part of the International Exchange Center (IEC). It comprises two rooms on the second floor of Hirosaki University's General Education building. These rooms were renovated from what was the former IEC, and were originally classrooms. The first room is primarily for conversation. In this room students can converse with native English teachers, play games, or read books or English newspapers. There is also complementary tea and coffee. Glass paneling and a door separate the two rooms. In the second room there are five computer stations, English/ Japanese dictionaries, TOEIC and TOFEL self study books, a TV and DVDs. The goal is to help students to take the leap from being English learners to becoming users of English in an EFL environment; not only students who aim to study abroad, but all average students who need to join the workforce (Nakamura, 2012).

The University Student

The EL was created on the concept that generally most Japanese students lack conversation skills in English. The EL's aim is to allow students to develop their ability to converse freely in English as well as to improve their overall English skills autonomously. This is in recognition that after six years of English education at the compulsory level, even at the university level, English classes are not reaching the MEXT's goal of Japanese with English abilities. While MEXT does have complete control over compulsory level English education, at the university level it has limited influence. In fact, at the university level, as Iino (2002) states, although MEXT outlines the required courses, it has no control over what actually happens in the classroom. Teachers, can individually choose their own text books, and what direction individual classes will take. While an overall aim for many native speakers of English instructors is, as Barker (2004) suggests, to get their students to use English outside of the classroom, in Japan many students have little or no need to use English in their daily lives. Furthermore the Japanese student is often characterized as being shy and overly dependant upon their instructor (Moritoshi, 2009), which leads to few or stilted conversations in English. The obligation then lies with both instructors and the university administration to create opportunities for students to use English outside the classroom and to appreciate the value of communication skills in a second language, in a stress-free environment.

Student Users

Hirosaki University has approximately 6700 students, including about 100 foreign exchange students enrolled in five different faculties. The EL is open to all students, university wide. As a new service available to students, advertisements of the EL were posted within each faculty as well as on bulletin boards all over the university grounds, to encourage a wide range of students to take the steps needed to improve or maintain their level of English. For incoming first year students, in April at the new student orientation, brochures were given along with an introduction about the EL by the EL instructors. Instructors of the EL also teach compulsory English communication classes. Students of these classes, as a part of their course work, were required to attend two 30-minute EL lunchtime classes throughout the term. Due to these efforts, the EL has had 2690 of visitors as of the first week of August 2012.

Administration and the English Lounge

Over the last decade many national institutions have been given greater autonomy over their programs from the central government. However, it is still common for some national universities to have stronger ties with the central government than others. At Hirosaki University, there is a representative from MEXT, who is known as the Dean of Academic Affairs (DAA). The duty of the DAA is to oversee university academic programs and to insure that the university follows mandates from MEXT. The DAA, as Inoki (2001) explains, is considered to be on loan from the central government, and his duties include creating and maintaining the flow of information from the central to the local governments. This system allows the university to implement new programs with accountability. However, as the DAA is held accountable for program changes, he has the authority to intervene and adjust policies wherever he thinks necessary.

The purpose of the EL at Hirosaki University, as stated above, is to improve its Japanese students' English abilities. The DAA has played a pivotal role in ensuring that the objectives of MEXT are met within the EL. However, this has caused controversy with the Director of the EL in terms of how these objectives are turned into realities. The first major problem was the spending of the EL budget. Like any other department at a university, the EL has a budget; however, as a new department, the regulations on how this budget could be

spent were not decided upon before the EL opened. As an incentive for creating a regular base of returning students, the manager of the EL created point cards, where students received a point for each visit to the EL. These cards, however, were put into circulation before what or how prizes would be rewarded to students was confirmed. While debates about what would constitute an acceptable educational prize were conducted between the EL's Director and the DAA, students where left wondering about the purpose of the point card. When several students had completed their cards, it was decided to award students with a Lounge Dollar to save and exchange for a prize at a later time. The issue of acceptable prizes has yet to be resolved, while the instructors of the EL would like to pass out English books or specialized EL products such as t-shirts, mugs, or pens, the DAA disagrees with the appropriateness of these prizes.

The EL is advertised as a "Fun and relaxing place to study English" on posters throughout the university. One part of this poster invites students to come and chat with native speaker English instructors while enjoying tea or coffee. The funding for these drinks was provided by the university. The idea behind offering beverages to students was to help create a relaxing atmosphere for students to practice their English. However, the DAA decided that as the university is an educational institution it should not be offering free beverages to students. Therefore, even though the funds for this were not provided by the central government, the DAA, through his academic authority, had this incentive stopped. Many regular students to the EL were surprised to find that the supply of beverages had ceased, and as one student stated "The drinks made conversation easier, more relaxing. When I had a coffee I could focus on that while I think about what I want to say." Having a budget, but not being able to use it, as the regulations of how to spend it have yet to be officially sanctioned, is clearly affecting the running of the EL as well as students' impressions of it.

The EL, as part of an academic institution, must be held accountable. However, as students are not required to attend the EL, it then becomes questionable as to how accountability should be reached. It was officially decided in June that to achieve accountability the EL would be assessed on students' TOEIC results. Students at most universities in Japan are required to take a university-wide TOEIC exam. This is typically done within each department, and usually takes place sometime during the students' first and again in their third year of study. This does, however, vary according to the institution. As the EL accountability is now based on students' TOEIC scores, the focus of the EL has turned towards providing mini-classes to improve students' abilities in taking this test. In addition, reaching the MEXT's (2009) Japanese with English academic abilities goal, the EL will also assist students with their English education through help with debates and speeches, and presentations. This, according to a proclamation sent by the Director of the English Lounge (Nakamura, 2012) is "to increase the outgoing force for employment, and is also important for students seeking their way through research" (translated from Japanese). Thus, as Liddicoat (2007b) suggests, in this context English is only a tool. Through these functions, the EL is creating an avenue for students to develop their English communication skills but also allowing them to express their Japanese ideologies and points of view through the use of English, and their development of English through language placement tests such as the TOEIC test.

In order to be successful, the EL must have recognition. In the mind of the students, that would translate to academic recognition. Accordingly, creating a mini-TOEIC class schedule, and assisting student with other English language placement tests is not a hindrance to students. It is solely that the accountability of the EL is based on the overall student population of the university's attaining higher TOEIC scores. One of the main reasons why compulsory English education has not changed in Japan is the high school and university entrance examinations. Students and their parents want schools to be accountable for their instruction. This accountability is typically based on students' successfully completing entrance examinations (Hagerman, 2009; Liddicoat, 2007a; Yoshida, 2003). This same mentality carries over to students' use of the EL. On the university campus there is a privately owned and run English language school, which focuses on grammar instruction, TOEIC test taking skills, and conversation. Depending on their course of study, students pay 60000 yen or more per term. Students feel a sense of academic recognition as upon completion of a course they receive a certificate. This, combined with the fact that the classes are not free, creates a desire for completion of a course at the private English school. In contrast the EL is free, there are no completion certificates, and according to the university students are not required to attend classes at the EL. This then creates an issue of legitimacy from the stance of the student.

It is necessary for the English lounge to develop and maintain student motivation to attend the center. In order to do this, the EL must clearly post a schedule of activities and mini-courses available. However, merely offering courses isn't enough. As it is part of the university system, the EL cannot charge students for its additional lessons. Therefore, while it does offer classes, students are not obligated to attend, and they may

not feel it necessary to attend each week. This would then create problems for instructors, as each class may not only have a different number of students attending, but also different students. This would be counterproductive, as it would inhibit the natural run of a course. In the creation of mini-courses, it is necessary that EL creates a contract with students, which obliges the students' regular participation. One possible method is to offer students English study books at the completion of the course or to offer scholarships for the TOEIC test. It was suggested to offer students certificates of completion, but as the DAA pointed out, the mini-courses offered in the EL are not officially sanctioned courses by MEXT, it would therefore be impossible to offer an official or unofficial certificate in the name of the university.

Use of the EL and Activities

In order to maintain statistics when students attend the EL they sign in using their university ID number. The original goal, as set by the DAA, was to have 100 visitors a day. This was later revised to 50 visitors a day. In June there were a total of 666 students visiting the EL over a 21-day period. The average number of students per day for this period is 32. This is short of the 50 visitors a day. However the average time each student stays per day is more than one hour. The quality of learning and using English in this time frame is far higher, than if students were to only visit the EL for a few minutes. This longer time allows for students to learn and practice the kind of English they want, both individually and in groups, with a range of activities. Furthermore, as the rooms were originally classrooms and the capacity of the rooms is limited, more than fifteen students per room at one time is uncomfortable.

During its first term of use, the EL provided a range of activities with a heavy emphasis on speaking. In the beginning, students had several options for how they could make use of the EL: chat, play games, have discussions; get help with homework or one-on-one English consulting; use English audios and videos; read English books and manga; and make friends. Once it become clear that the EL was to be held responsible for improving students' TOEIC results, in June a weekly schedule was created to provide students with the opportunity to improve their TOEIC testing skills. In addition to this schedule the EL offers a movie night on the second and fourth Friday's each month. These take place after 5th period and run from 17:40 until 19:00. Furthermore, as the EL is open from 10:00 to 13:00 and 14:00 to 17:00, it is recognized that these times are not convenient for all students. To offer students additional opportunities to practice their English the EL offers extended hours on alternating Tuesday and Wednesday nights, each week, until 19:00.

The instructors of the EL make continual efforts to improve what the EL offers to students. A major point does need to be considered in tandem to these efforts: that of student motivation. While the scope of the issues surrounding motivation are complex and beyond the limits of this paper, student motivation should be briefly addressed. Learning English in a Japanese environment is difficult and presents many challenges to both the students and the instructor. In the first language environment there is little opportunity to use English outside of the classroom; to do so would require a commitment and desire on the part of the ELF user, it would necessitate intrinsic motivation. Japanese students are well aware of the external forces upon them to student English, by the fact that they must complete first and second year English courses at university in order to graduate (Hirosaki University, 2011). While their extrinsic motivations may be high, often their intrinsic motivations are much lower. This combined with the Japanese ideology that it is difficult to learn a foreign language acts as a barrier for low-level EFL students (Liddicoat, 2007b; Iino, 2002; Yoshida, 2003). In this situation, the challenges in motivating these students to use a language-training center such as the EL autonomously are enormous. Therefore, while the EL should make every effort to reach the student body at large, the fact remains that if students do not like English, and feel no need to improve their English skills, those students are unlikely to take advantage of the EL. Accordingly, the EL should ensure that programs are offered not only to the low-level students, but also to students who are motivated to improve and expand their EFL competence. In this way the EL will succeed.

Conclusion

English Lounge at Hirosaki University is working toward improving the English abilities of its students. How this is done is influenced by Japanese ideologies of second language learning, which at times interplay and at other times are at odds with the goals of the EL. Many low-level EFL speaking Japanese students have the misconception that learning another language is extraordinarily difficult, so difficult that it is in fact impossible. Despite these challenges, the EL is attempting to assist students with their English language learning, to enable them to become more confident and competent speakers of English. Through its daily activities and weekly schedules, and by adjusting these to suit the needs of students, the EL aims to reach as

much of the student body as possible. The challenge for the EL, then, is to integrate itself with all the faculties of the university, and to offer faculty-specific assistance in English to students, thereby becoming an attractive place not only to high-level English speaking students, but also a safe and encouraging place for lower English level students, where students of any level can improve their English skills.

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CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES

Intercultural Communication and Language Teaching and Learning

Zoya G. Proshina
M. Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia

Abstract

Intercultural Communication has become a very important direction of research and a comparatively new discipline at universities. However, the applicability of this research to English language teaching in Russian schools still leaves much to be desired, beginning from the goals of language teaching, which are conservatively oriented towards the native speaker only. This paper discusses new approaches to English Language Teaching resulting from the World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca Paradigms, covering some controversial issues that arise from these theories, realistic implementation of these education theories into classroom and real life practice, the controversy over prescriptive norms, and functional strategies in language use.

Keywords: *intercultural communication, International English, English as an International Language, English as a Lingua Franca, World Englishes*

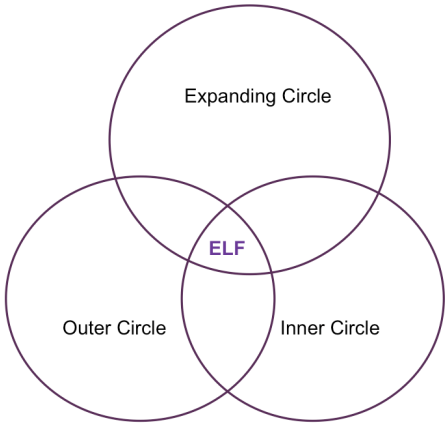
Introduction

Globalization, a pivotal feature of our era, has led to the emergence of a new research interest in intercultural communication, which has become a new scholarly approach and an academic discipline in great demand in Russian academic life; we have been witnessing the opening of new departments and launch of new programs at various educational institutions. Today, we can hardly find a university in Russia which does not offer a major or minor in intercultural communication studies.

But is this new discipline coordinated with English language teaching (ELT) and learning? I cannot argue that the teaching and learning of the English language, which has also become a salient feature of globalization, has kept in line with the requirements of the new discipline in our universities. English Language teaching and learning will comply with the intercultural communication paradigm when and if it conforms to the World Englishes (WE) Paradigm. These two paradigms are so close to each other that they cannot be separated and should be considered to be mutually complementary, as was wisely emphasized by Stephanie Houghton (2009) in her presentation at the IAWE conference in Cebu. WE Studies are based on the cultural diversity that accounts for intercultural differences and, therefore these studies promote building intercultural competencies in our students. Diversity of cultures leads to diversity of Englishes and these Englishes spread the cultures. But can we study the overall diversity of Englishes in class, and need we? Or should we keep studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as something steady and integral, oriented towards native speakers' standards, as our curricula require? Neither one nor the other. To answer in a more positive way, we need to discuss some more concepts - English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), English as an International Language (EIL), and International English (IE).

ELF

One of the main postulates of intercultural communication studies and the WE Paradigm is that nowadays English-speaking people do not communicate only with native speakers of the language. They use English as a *lingua franca*, as a mediating means of communication with people of diverse cultures and languages. The concept of English as a Lingua Franca, re-introduced into the modern linguistic paradigm by Alan Firth (1990), has become one of the most controversial issues in current linguistics and pedagogy. In his paper "The Discursive Accomplishment of Normality: On 'Lingua Franca' English and Conversation Analysis" (1996), Firth defined English as a Lingua Franca as "a 'contact language' between persons who share



neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture" (p. 240). This is a broad understanding of the current term: ***lingua franca* is a means for intercultural communication between speakers of different first languages**. However, Firth continues and narrows his definition: "and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication" (p. 240). Following him, some linguists exclude native speakers from users of English as a Lingua Franca, e.g., Barbara Seidlhofer in her early work (2001) argued that "ELF is conceptualized and accepted as a distinct manifestation of 'English' not tied to its native speakers" (p. 152), Allan James (2000) pointed out that ELF is "used by speakers of first languages (L1s) other than English" (p. 22).

Other linguists, e.g., Luke Prodromou (2008), point to the fact that "ELF is not a separate entity but the outcome of all circles interacting. It is neither one L2-user talking to another L2-user nor L1-users imposing their norms on everybody else. ELF is, by definition, the result of global uses of English by members of the original three circles: the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles" (p. xiv). His modified scheme of Kachruvian circles is not concentric but overlapping. The place where the three circles overlap is termed ELF, which means that native speakers from the Inner Circle are also included among ELF users.

Seidlhofer in her later work (2011) changed her understanding of ELF. This concept, she says, covers "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (p. 7). Now she believes that "ELF interactions include interlocutors from the Inner and Outer Circle" (p.7).

Edgar Schneider (2012) also argues that ELF is a language of "participants in a conversation who do not share each others' native tongues" (p. 60), "it applies to interactions which involve native speakers as well" (p. 60). In fact, to communicate interculturally, native speakers have to accommodate their speech to their interlocutors, which means they have to use a form of English intelligible internationally rather than their idiomatically localized or dialectal variety. This implies that *lingua franca* is an inclusive term for native speakers and non-native users.

In 2004 - 5, in her article published in the *IATEFL Newsletter*, Jennifer Jenkins suggested substituting the term English as a Foreign Language with English as a Lingua Franca, since the former has become negatively connoted due to the component "foreign" and owing to the fact that the majority of English users nowadays are those who use English as an intermediary means, i.e. *lingua franca*, rather than their native language. No wonder that we are witnessing a new trend now of including the concept of *lingua franca* in TESOL programs, colleges, and institutes; for example, in Indore, India, there is a Lingua Franca Language Academy; Washington Baptist University includes a Lingua Franca Institute; the University of Helsinki has launched the SELF (Studying in English as a Lingua Franca) project.

IE and EIL

The word *international* proves to be another buzz word in the names of departments, programs, and courses. One of the most impressive programs, for both undergraduates and graduates, can be found at the Department of English as an International Language, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia. Other Australian universities also have EIL programs: Bond University (Robina, Queensland) provides a Bachelor's degree in EIL; the University of Melbourne (Parkville, Victoria) offers the Master of English as an International Language program. In the USA, the International English Language Institute (IELI) has been established at Hunter College in the City University of New York; and an English as an International Language Program has opened at Park University, Parkville, Missouri.

This brings us to the distinction between the terms *English as a Lingua Franca*, *International English* and *English as an International Language*. The term *International English* implies the global spread of English and its orientation towards an international standard for the language to be intelligible for any communicator using it. In other words it is a standard derived from native English norms and thus the term is hardly different from EFL. The first part of the definition was emphasized by Larry Smith (1983) who was one of the first to introduce the term *International English* in the academy: "My operational definition of an *international* language is one which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another. English is the most frequently used international language" (p. 1). As we see, this definition is very close to that of *lingua franca*.

Sandra McKay (2002), defining the concept of International English, points to the fact that "International English is used by native speakers of English and bilingual users of English for cross-cultural communication. International English can be used both in a local sense between speakers of diverse cultures and languages within one country and in a global sense between speakers from different countries" (p. 132).

As her book is named *Teaching English as an International Language* (2002), we can infer that McKay does not delimit International English from English as an International Language, for her the main factor being that "English is used to communicate across linguistic and cultural borders" (p.38).

However, not all scholars interpret International English this way. The book *International English: A Guide to the Varieties of Standard English* by Peter Trudgill and Jean Hannah (1994) is based only on Inner and Outer Circle Englishes, to employ Kachruvian terms (B. Kachru, 1985; 2006), i.e varieties used by native speakers and postcolonial varieties. These authors focus on standard and standardizing varieties of English, such as British, Scottish, Welsh, Irish, Australian, New Zealand, South African, North American, Indian, West and East African, Singaporean, and Philippines Englishes. They exclude from their consideration varieties of the Expanding Circle, like Russian, Japanese, or Chinese Englishes. A similar approach is characteristic of Loretto Todd and Ian Hancock (1987) who in their book *International English Usage* made an attempt to offer a balance between description and prescription.

Nowadays, the terms International English and English as an International Language are understood differently. The first term emphasizes the centripetal force of English through its maintaining Englishness in all possible linguistic settings and focusing on what is common to all the varieties, while the latter (EIL) highlights more the diversity principle. Farzad Sharifian (2009) argues that "EIL in fact rejects the idea of any particular variety being selected as a *lingua franca* for intercultural communication. EIL emphasizes that English, with its many varieties, is a language of international, and therefore *intercultural*, communication" (p. 2). In other words, EIL is a concept of centrifugal orientation: diversity within unity, the principle which Alastair Pennycook has labeled "worldliness" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 30), meaning that English is both globally general and locally specific. In this sense, EIL can be used to refer to any variety of English, from any Kachruvian Circle, provided that this variety is geared to international communication. Local specifics implied in EIL results in a great degree of variability applicable to the diverse unity. Thus, the term EIL correlates with the idea of intercultural communication and is worth calling attention to in the academic curricula and syllabi.

It is an English that should become an object of study in schools at any level, replacing the model of English as a Native Language as prescribed, for example, by the Russian Federation educational standards which read that the goal of teaching EFL is to facilitate an individual's social adaptation to the ever-changing polycultural and multilingual world; which can be done by developing a communicative competence in a foreign language, i.e. students' ability to communicate with and achieve mutual understanding with ***native speakers*** (Primernye programmy po inostrannym yazykam, p. 1).

EIL, as a standardized unity with great variability resulting from diverse varieties, should become an ideal model for teaching and learning rather than the English, as metaphorically defined by Seidlhofer as, "kept in the conceptual straightjacket of ENL" [English as a Native Language] (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 23). I would like to stress here the phrase "an ideal model", a model kept in our head, for the idea of *internationalism* in English is quite abstract, as is the idea of *language* as contrasted to *speech*, or *discourse*. This was indicated by Yamuna Kachru (2001) who noted: "It is clear that there is no entity called 'International English' which every English-using person is competent in. Instead, what we have are world Englishes with their cultural underpinnings and rhetorical strategies" (p. 66). English as an International Language is also an abstract concept, which in every educational institution is implemented in the form of a world English, or a variety used by the teacher and imitated by learners. The ideal input in our ELT is EIL, while the real life output is one's cultural English, or a world English.

Pedagogical inferences

I cannot but agree with Seidlhofer (2011) who points out that "[t]he English language that is documented and presented as reference bears little resemblance to the actual language that individuals experience as use" (p. 73). And one more quote from her in-depth book (2011): "…the English that is taught, it is usually not the English that is learnt, and… it is the English that is learnt that is put to use in international communication" (p. 194).

In Russia, the output from English lessons is Russian English, in Japan it is Japanese English, in China Chinese English. When polished to the acrolectal level of a proficient, fully competent (Ur, 2010, p. 86), or successful (Prodromou, 2008, p. ix) user of English, and employed in a formal context, as is the case with diplomats, anchorpeople, or tour guides, this variety is named China or Russia('s) English. Its functional potential to be used as a means of communication for people with different mother tongues results in its

becoming English as a Lingua Franca, the term that is in extensive use among scholars in Europe and implying just the functional role of a world English.

This dialectics of the concepts EIL – WE – ELF has a very important impact on teaching practice. To communicate interculturally, we should teach EIL which embraces diverse varieties and serves as a normative model for teaching. However, this norm is neither British nor American. It takes into consideration a great variety of norms, typical of diverse Englishes. The increased variability of forms is what our students should be made aware of while studying English. Which form they will use depends on their idiolect and on the context. For example, when a Russian physicist talks with an Indian scientist, it is quite appropriate for them to say, "We've been working with special equipments", which, despite the plural *–s* of the noun considered uncountable in British or American English, is quite appropriate in Indian English whose users understand it as a discrete concept. This has become, if not a codified norm, then definitely the norm of usage in Indian English.

The normative approach, associated with the grammar-translation method, is gradually and quite naturally giving way to the communicative approach with its principles of functionality, pragmatism, and appropriateness. This approach implies learning and teaching English to be able to communicate with interlocutors from different cultures and with different linguacultural mentalities. To be sensitive to this, we should be aware of the huge potential variability of English, of pragmatic appropriateness when selecting a form, and of possible strategies and tactics in negotiating meaning in intercultural communication – the last goal being prolifically described within the so-called ELF Paradigm. We cannot restrict our goals to studying mostly native speakers' cultures through English. This language is in the ownership of all cultures and this idea should be integrated into our lessons. Intercultural communication awareness should be raised through teaching and learning English as an International Language, manifested in diverse world Englishes.

This implies a change of attitude towards world Englishes, especially one's native variety (for us, Russian English) as well as other varieties of the Outer and Expanding Circles that are sometimes stigmatized as deficient varieties or fossilized erroneous interlanguages. Each variety should be understood as a form of English that expresses its users' culture and values. Russian English aims to identify, first and foremost, Russian culture and Russian values.

This thesis proves to be in sharp contrast to the idea of a denationalized English. Yano Yasukata who spoke in favour of "liberating the use of English from constraints of individual societies' norms of language use" and "promoting culture-free varieties of English use for international communication" (2001, p. 130), thus rejects ethnic varieties of English and, as it were, follows the traditional EFL model, a "franchised copy of ENL" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 19) rather than transnational English.

What are the major ways to integrate knowledge of intercultural communication and world Englishes into ELT? Among the possible ways are the following: introduction of various cultures through English; activating skills for communicating one's own culture in English; developing tolerance towards various accents, and, for this purpose, exposing students to diverse varieties and developing receptive skills. This can be done through textbooks and mass media, including the Internet. One more way is to acquaint students with intercultural, or ethnic literatures in English, i.e. fiction written in English by bilinguals whose first language is other than English. Russian authors writing in English include not only the renowned Vladimir Nabokov but also contemporary authors: Olga Grushin, Lara Vapnyar, Anya Ulinich, Gary Shteyngart and others. All of them are now living abroad, published in the USA, Canada, and Great Britain, but their works reveal Russian culture, life and ways of thinking

To sum up, it is high time we reconsidered the goals of ELT in compliance with the growing needs of intercultural communication, paying more attention to the pragmatic appropriateness of speech patterns rather than their correctness, to the strategies and tactics of communication than to its perfection. This is the requirement of time, world development, globalization and self-identity. We should keep in mind EIL as a teaching model, realizing that the real output is a world English underpinned by our and our students' culture.

Does globalization imply building the global village? Definitely yes, but there should be diverse cultural districts reflected by varieties of the global language for various communities to own, use, and live in.

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http://coursesearch.unimelb.edu.au/grad/1469-master-of-english-as-an-international-language

http://indore.olx.in/lingua-franca-language-academy-iid-96705333

http://www.bond.edu.au/degrees-and-courses/undergraduate-degrees/list/bachelor-of-arts-english-as-an-international-language/index.htm

http://www.helsinki.fi/englanti/elfa/self.html

http://www.park.edu/esl/

http://www.wbcs.edu/content_pages/academics_content_frame.php?ext_filename=contents/academics/esl_linguafrancainstitute.html

Reflections of Ethnic Stereotypes in the English Language

Natalya Bogachenko & Tatyana Padusenko
Sholom-Aleichem Priamursky State University, Russia

Abstract

Modern linguistics pays great attention to language studies in close connection with culture. One of the leading areas of enquiry is the investigation of stereotypes. A stereotype is said to be an evaluation of an ethnic group from the point of view of a personal experience and system of values. We are living in an era of broadening economic, scientific and political contacts. It is necessary to understand potential problems of intercultural communication and try to overcome them. People judge experiences relying upon norms and values from their own culture.

Keywords: *stereotype, ethnicity, ethnic stereotype, ethnic nicknames, ethnonym, intercultural communication*

Modern linguistics pays great attention to language learning in close connection with the culture of the people who speaking the language. One of the leading areas of enquiry is the investigation of stereotypes, settled conceptions of cultural and national characteristics.

According to Walter Lippmann, the father of the concept of public opinion, stereotypes are culturally ordered and determined "pictures of the world" in the human mind, which, in the first place, save a person from too much effort in the perception of complex social objects and, in the second place, protects the person's values, positions and rights (Ослон, 2006, pp. 125 - 141).

The approach to the concept "stereotype" of Lublin Ethnolinguistic School under the leadership of Professor E. Bartminsky is one of the closest to us. Following E. Bartminsky and E. L. Berezovich, we regard an ethnic stereotype as a "stable set of naive views of a people, a nation that reflects the peculiarities of people and xenophobia" (Березович, 2009, p. 23). We believe that this definition exactly reflects the essence of the term "stereotype".

Among the most important features of stereotypes, many researchers point to their striking emotional and evaluative character, that is, their ability to convey various patterns of affective reactions (e.g., fear, sympathy, admiration, hatred, etc.), mood, preferences, evaluations, etc.

Ethnic stereotypes reflect generalized conceptions of characteristic features of some nation. They are considered to be a standard view held by the majority of people that make up a particular ethnic group about people belonging to a different ethnic group or their own (Крысин, 2003, p. 458).

Anthropological features and the appearance of a person often form the basis of ethnic stereotypes; for example, skin coloration, hair and eye shape, hair texture, eye split, the shape of the nose and lips and shape of face and head. As a result, ethnic stereotypes and labels appear to characterize the members of a particular ethnic group anthropologically, that is, in terms of physical and anthropological traits attributed to race and ethnic group. But most ethnic stereotypes are derived from a judgment of the most distinct features of national character.

The most popular source of stereotypes about national character is so-called international jokes. For instance, how people of different nationalities would behave if they found a fly in a glass of beer. A German (efficient) would throw the fly away and drink the beer. A Frenchman (sentimental) would fish out the fly, blow at it, have it spread its wings but not drink the beer. A Russian (unpretentious and boozy) would drink the beer without noticing the fly. An American (confident of his rights) would call the waiter, make a row and demand another glass. A Chinese (Chinese cuisine includes the most unexpected dishes) would fish out the fly and drink the beer and eat the fly. A Jew (mercantile) would drink the beer and sell the fly to the Chinese.

This anecdote is based on a series of clichés: representatives of different nationalities react in different ways to the same situation in accordance with those characteristics of their national character which are attributed to them in the country of origin of this joke (Тер-Минасова, 2000, pp. 139-140).

Ethnic stereotypes are fixed in the language and can occur at different levels, using marked linguistic units in different ways. The main lexical unit fixing ethnic stereotype is an ethnonym. In this article the term "ethnonym" refers to "the names of different types of ethnic communities: nations, peoples, nations, nationalities, tribes, tribal unions, clans, etc." (Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь, 1990, p. 598).

Indeed, the term “ethnonym” can be used not only for a whole group of people but also for a single individual. If we take such a group for a single whole, then the ethnonym matches the characteristics of a proper name. It denotes a specific ethnic community. So, it singles out this community from all other possible ethnic communities. At the same time, any particular ethnonym is a generalization, because it contains information about the features that a person must possess in order to be referred to as a member of a particular ethnic group.

Following V. A. Nikonov, we consider ethnonyms to be a notion with a broad meaning and include among them the names of the inhabitants of cities, regions and countries, traditional nicknames of different groups and the names of ethnic groups (Никонов, 1996, p. 8).

Ethnonyms are an integral part of the English language. They can have synonyms or can be a part of idioms or proverbs. In this case such linguistic units illustrate the attitude of one nation to another.

Based on the material analyzed, we can say that the French cause the English to have mixed feelings. They seem to be rude people: for example, *to take French leave* (to leave without saying a word); *to assist in the French* (to attend without participating); *French* (a rude, obscene expression, used in a phrase *pardon my French*), short-tempered and cheeky, for example, *French kiss* (a passionate kiss); *French postcard* (a pornographic photograph, card) (Кунин, 1984, p. 367).

The idea that Arabs value freedom and have a wild temper has influenced the perception of the English ethnonym *Arab*, for example *the Arab of the gutter* (the homeless), *city Arab* / *street Arab* (guttersnipe).

Linguistic analysis reveals the perception of Gypsies as a cunning and criminal nation. It is well clearly illustrated by the following examples: *Gypsy* (a cunning, deceitful woman); *gypper* (swindler, liar); *gyppo* (to cheat, to deceive); *googg* (to vanish without permission or without paying a debt); *gyp artist* (a professional swindler, liar); *gyp joint* (an institution where the customers are rooked). Gypsies love of freedom is reflected in such a word as *to gypsy* (to lead a vagabond way of life, to picnic).

In most cases, stereotypes have a long history. When using an expression in our speech, we do not think about what exactly was the reason for the appearance of such a stereotype? Here is an example: in English there are a lot of phraseological units and phrases with the ethnonym *Dutch*. They have strong negative connotations and usually stylistic coloring. This goes back to the Anglo-Dutch rivalry on the seas and the wars in the 17th century. So, everything associated with the Netherlands and the Dutch was considered to be bad. Any negative event was given the epithet *Dutch*.

For example, the expression *Dutch* (to disrupt or break other people's plans or career), *Dutch bargain* (bargain followed by a drunken feast), *Dutch lunch* (if people have Dutch lunch, each of them pays for their own meal, drinks and entertainment), *Dutch concert* (to sing incoherently, very badly), *I'm a Dutchman if* (I'll be damned if), *The Dutch have taken Holland* (*iron*. to reinvent the wheel) (Скоробогатова, 2007, pp. 97-114).

China’s remoteness, its culture and the appearance of Chinese people are fixed in the minds of British people in the stereotype that it is a different world, with people who have absolutely incomprehensible traditions and language. Such a judgment can be seen in the following word-combinations: *a Chinese puzzle* (a mystery beyond solution, a complicated case, puzzle); *from China to Peru* (from one end of the world to another); *Chinese man's chance* (*Am. slang* smallest chance of succeeding, miserable wages).

Ethnic stereotypes can be expressed as nicknames, which are assigned to members of different ethnic groups. They are formed by means of different derivational morphemes in inflectional languages, for example *the Frogs* (French), *Dagos* (Spanish, Portuguese), *Gipp* (Egyptian), *frog, froggie, frog-eater* (French).

The subject of ethnic nicknames can often relate to skin coloration, as a steady racial and ethnic criterion. For example, *yellow-belly* (Chinese); *Red Indians, the Reds, redskins* (American Indians), *white, pale* (Caucasians). There are also "labels" of this kind which are used by the Indians themselves, *Red Apple, Radish*. They are used scornfully to name those relatives who are "red outside but white inside," that is, they give up their culture and imitate white Americans.

Nicknames based on the specific features of a national culture are also interesting. For example, pieces of clothing: *blue bonnet, kiltie* (Scot), *wooden-shoe* (Dutchman); gastronomic preferences or name of national dishes: *rice-belly* (Chinese), *sauerkraut, sausage* (German), *potato-eater* (Irishman), *pepper* (Mexican).

The above-mentioned examples reflect the real language situation only partially. The study of ethnonyms raises several questions such as *What is the real British attitude to other nations? Has it changed over the past decade?* and *Are these words and phrases used in modern English?*

We are currently engaged in researching these issues with the help of a survey of native English speakers about their relations to other nations. However, the analysis of the material collected has already shown that ethnonyms play an important role in the system of a language. Studying ethnonyms in terms of their semantics helps to deepen understanding of the formation and functioning of ethnic stereotypes that reflect, though in a distorted and transformed way, objective reality, namely properties and characteristics of interacting groups, and the relationships between them.

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Nepal: Language Learning in an Ethnically Diverse Society

Ravi Maharjan
Daito Bunka University, Japan

Abstract

In this paper, I would like to analyse how the Nepali language gradually became a necessary factor for the Newars, an ethnic group indigenous to the Kathmandu Valley which was formerly independent and possessed its own language and a very rich culture expressed by that language. Although there has been a Newari language movement, it does not seem to have been very effective in halting the process of linguistic assimilation and a growing number of Newars nowadays appear to be forgetting their language. In this light and in an age of globalization, should language diversity be considered an asset or a liability?

Key words: *ethnic diversity, multilingualism, language preservation*

Introduction

In this paper, I will discuss how a multilingual country like Nepal, where more than 60 languages are spoken, established the Nepali language as a *lingua franca*, derailing other, minority languages from participation in the main sectors of the government. Particularly, I will focus on how the Newari people, indigenous inhabitants of Kathmandu Valley, came to be caught up in the process of learning the Nepali (as well as English), the recognized national language until recently.

A brief overview of the linguistic situation in Nepal

Sandwiched between two major civilizations, India and China, Nepal occupies only 0.1% of earth's land space; however, it is characterized by cultural diversity, multi-ethnicity, and multilingualism. According to the 2001 census, there are more than 100 ethnic groups existing here largely in a state of harmony. The major languages spoken today in Nepal are Nepali (48.6%), Maithili (12.3%), Bhojpuri (7.5%), Tharu (5.8%),

Tamang (5.1%), Newari (3.6%) and more than 60 languages that are spoken by less than 1 percent of the population of Nepal each (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2001). Despite being multicultural and multilingual, the state language, Nepali, occupies a dominant role in almost every sector of the country, including education. (English also occupies an increasing domain in Nepal in such areas as tourism, education and international trade but still cannot be compared to Nepali). Eagle (1999) says that Nepali is the language of the people in power and, as such, it occupies a number of significant domains and registers throughout the country, for example in national trade, the political system, the courts of law, the military, the police, and the national education system (p. 325). The impact of making the Nepali language powerful and prestigious has resulted in replacing, to a great extent, the minority ethnic languages. Since the scope of Nepali as well as English is growing, it is predictable that some minority languages will be extinct soon if necessary steps are not taken to preserve them. Besides, in Nepal, the issues of caste and class are also indirectly related to language problems such as the exclusion and marginalization of ethnic languages and cultures. Therefore, the language problem is a very complex issue that cannot be solved easily.

The rise of the Nepali language and its dominant role in society

The Nepali language, which belongs to the Indo-European language family, is the language of hill people commonly known as *Khas* and is very closely related to other dialects of Sanskrit. Traditionally, Nepali was known as *khas kura* or "the language of *khas* people" until it was renamed *Gorkha bhasa* (Gorkha refers to the place of origin the Shah kings who invaded the Kathmandu Valley in 1769 and ruled Nepal until 2006) by the hereditary Rana prime ministers during their dictatorship from 1848 to 1951 (Gellner, 1986). In 1920 it was once again changed to *Nepali*. The language became more powerful when rulers adopted a "one language policy", deliberately aimed at eliminating other languages from use in mainstream politics and education in order to promote nationalism and unity. This was reflected in educational policies. The government of the time considered that the medium of instruction should be the national language in primary, middle and higher educational institutions. The official position was that the use of the national language could bring about equality among all classes of people, could be an anchor for Nepalese nationality, and the main instrument for promoting a national literature (NEPC, 1956). This created a gap between Nepali and other ethnic languages giving the former more recognition and prestige. In addition, educational degrees obtained in languages other than English and Nepali were not valued and not counted when, for example, seeking employment (Shrestha & Hoek, 1995). Naturally, the publication houses and media gave preference to the Nepali language.

As a result, many began to speak Nepali (and English nowadays) as a means of achieving better opportunities and social status. Although it started with elite groups associated with the ruling class, the trend of speaking Nepali spread to the local level when the government made Nepali the medium of instruction in schools and the language of government offices. In this way, Nepali became the dominant language, though it was once just the language of a somewhat isolated hill people.

However, at present, the English language has captured the attention of Nepalese people. Most parents send their children to English language private schools which are rapidly replacing the Nepali language government schools. The use of English in offices and other sectors, such as tourism, international trade and international organizations is increasing.

The significance of the Newari language and its decline

Newars, the indigenous inhabitants of the Kathmandu Valley in which is located the present day capital of Nepal, are rich in culture and tradition; and, in the context of Nepal, should not be viewed as an insignificant ethnic group, but rather as a diverse and distinct civilization. They speak Newari, a Tibeto-Burman language, which has its own unique writing system, a writing system which is still used today for specific purposes. In a discussion of the language's name Kansakar (1981) writes that, "The common name for the language is Nevari or Newari, but indigenous publications by Newari writers consistently refer to it as 'Nepal Bhasa'" (p. 1), literally meaning the "language of Nepal". Historians believed that the language originated in Kathmandu Valley where the indigenous Newars have lived from before the appearance of written history. In addition, there is an abundance of historical documents, manuscripts, and narratives written in the Newari language from the 12th to the 18th centuries in stone scriptures, on leaves, and traditional paper, all of which goes to support the assertion that the Newari people have not only a rich cultural tradition, but possess a literature with a history longer than that of many European languages.

Unfortunately, the defeat of the native Malla kings at the hands of the Shah Dynasty during the 18th century became the major cause of the decline of the Newari culture and language (Shrestha, 1999). Moreover, migration from around the country to the Kathmandu Valley was a significant factor in displacing Newars from their homeland. The media, which mostly uses Nepali, has also played a factor, as has the rapidly spreading use of English in education. With regard to trade, Nepali is used as a communication tool, which is another reason for the rapidly falling use of Newari and other ethnic languages. Though Newari language activists seek to glorify the Newari language by relating it to a glorious past, they have failed to capture the sentiment of the common people, perhaps because language movements were greatly politicized and focused only on blaming the government for suppressing the language, while ignoring the fact that their members themselves did not teach their own children the language and spoke Nepali when in communication with other Newars.

Nevertheless, they have been successful in causing some Newari people to feel that the Newari language has a cultural value in the context of Newari society. The main contribution of these movements among Newari people was the awareness that language was not only a necessary tool for maintaining cultural diversity and promoting intercultural dialogue, but was also essential for preserving their ethnic identity. These days, there are hundreds of cultural and literary organizations that are working to preserve and promote not only Newari but also the other languages in Nepal. In a sense, the dominance of the Nepali language has served to make both Newars and other ethnic groups feel more determined to promote language preservation and development and, as a result, new attempts have been made to build communities that will make them stronger than before, as well as distinct from others.

The present situation in Nepal

With the establishment of democracy in 1990, the political developments thereafter and the changes of 2006, people have become even more aware of their culture and identity. The proposed constitution of Nepal has many provisions to preserve the culture, scripts and languages of each ethnic group. It also recognizes that languages in Nepal other than Nepali are national languages and makes provision for the use of the other mother tongues of the Nepali people in primary education.

Nevertheless, relatively few are interested in giving their children a mother tongue education because the influence of foreign culture and language has very much affected the multicultural composition of the society. The discussion focuses on how to preserve ethnic identities and languages in an age of globalization. Many ethnic and political leaders as well as local people are eagerly waiting to see how and when the provisions of the new constitution will be carried out. (Actually, by this is meant the draft of the new constitution which was finished in May this year (2012), but which is not yet in force due to the constituent assembly's collapsing without having officially promulgated it, the reason for this being that agreement could not be reached on the point of making federal states according to the various linguistic communities.)

Conclusions

Language in Nepal plays a vital role in social balance and ethnic harmony. Linguistic variety and cultural diversity have made its culture different from others. Therefore, the state should not look at language only as a tool for communication and knowledge (and should stop promoting or recognizing only one state language) but also as a tool of cultural identity. Additionally, in a multicultural nation like Nepal, peaceful cohabitation is only possible if the government recognizes and respects the ethnic languages. From this viewpoint, multilingualism should be seen as a way of life in the age of globalization, rather than as a liability.

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English as a Compromise Means for Intercultural Communication

Yulia Maximova
Far-Eastern State Transport University, Khabarovsk, Russia

Abstract

Intercultural communication is predominantly associated with the idea of a dialogue between cultures, which is viewed as a means of solving possible problems within cross-cultural contacts. As a suggestion, this paper puts forward the idea that certain properties of English, both inherent and acquired, enable the language itself, functioning as a *lingua franca*, to succeed as a compromise means in the process of intercultural communication.

Keywords: *intercultural communication, compromise, communicative strategy, lingua franca, link-language*

Introduction

The study of communication as it is carried out among people from fundamentally different cultures is called intercultural communication, according to M. S. Findlay (1998, p. 91). Intercultural communication has become an important applied (practical) field of study since the late 1960s. Concern about culture and communication barriers reached a critical stage when business personnel from Western industrial countries began to conduct business in other parts of the world (particularly in Africa and Asia). At that time executives from non-Western business firms also became aware of communication problems stemming from cultural differences. This growing awareness fueled the growth and expansion of intercultural communication. Since the late 1960s intercultural communication has extended its influence into such areas as education, international diplomacy, and various legal domains (court cases involving litigants of differing cultural backgrounds) (Findlay, 1998, p. 91-92).

Any communication is associated with the idea of a dialogue. A "dialogue" between cultures is viewed as a means of solving possible problems within cross-cultural contacts, but may seem, according to some scholars (Тер-Минасова, 2007), a politically correct wording for a "conflict" of cultures. Such a conflict mainly concerns differences between the cultures. These differences and difficulties in understanding each other lead to "cultural bumps" and make "cultures collide", as M. Lebedko (1999) puts it. As soon as a conflict appears, successful communication seems to be under threat. Interlocutors have to choose whether to quit the process of interaction or alter it in some way. There is no doubt that a dialogue is more desirable than a conflict.

English as a Means of Compromise

In our previous study we suggested that there is usually a way of eliminating some or all reasons for conflicts by means of compromise (Максимова, 2011). The scope of research in the humanities includes a variety of topics among which one can find the notion of compromise. Compromise seems to belong to many spheres of the humanities except linguistics. Nowadays the word "compromise" is widely used in philosophy, political science, and psychology, though originally it was a term in Roman law and was used in the judicial sphere (Tolchinsky, 1992, 1994).

As a phenomenon, compromise can be characterized as both struggle and cooperation realized by means of "givings and takings" which are not always equal but are always mutual. Thus, compromise is "an agreement made between two people or groups in which each side gives up some of the things they want so that both sides are happy at the end" (Hornby, 2000, p. 249). It can be regarded both as a result and a process or a strategy for achieving success in communication.

Compromise is a complicated phenomenon which can be applied to communication as well. The focus of our research was an investigation of linguistic means of compromise manifestation in English (Максимова, 2011). We found compromise worth investigating from the linguistic point of view, since it can be deciphered by speakers in communication. As a communicative strategy compromise helps interlocutors either eliminate or minimize their disagreements or contradictions, it converts a conflict situation into a cooperative one, and allows communicants to reach enough understanding to promote cooperative communication. We consider it important here to specify that the English language possesses linguistic means to express compromise in order "to be able to communicate successfully" (Proshina, 2003, p. 25).

When speaking of a dialogue between cultures, we presuppose equal possibilities in an interaction which is based on mutual understanding of interlocutors as representatives of their cultures. Such understanding regarding language, socio-cultural background and other aspects is rather idealistic and hardly possible, to our mind. Natural and social conditions for every culture are very different, according to G. Elizarova (Елизарова, 2005). It is difficult, if not impossible, to compare or match cultures in any aspect. As contacts between cultures are inevitable, intercultural or cross-cultural communication is impossible without employing link-languages, or *lingua franca.*

English has become a *lingua franca* due to certain reasons or factors, which Z. Proshina categorizes as follows: historical; political and economic; informational; cultural; linguistic (2007, p. 19). This last is of great value for the purposes of this article since, we believe, nowadays English as a link-language creates a new type of domain in the sphere of intercultural communication.

As it is used by an enormous number of people all over the world – it is spoken by approximately 1.5 billion people (Crystal, 1997, p. 5) and in the next 10-15 years is expected to be used by around 2 billion (Graddol, 2006, p. 14) – English has developed, as we assume, a unique property. It possesses a great variety of means to express compromise for the sake of successful communication from the linguistic point of view, as we discovered in our research (Максимова, 2011).

The English language has become a means of compromise itself, being able to operate as a tool to achieve understanding in communication regarding its role in cross-cultural contacts, according to our perspective. As a *lingua franca*, English creates a "nobody's" area, a so-called neutral zone, in which its ESL/EFL users can abstract themselves from their cultural identity. As Z. Proshina (2007) puts it, English "is a neutral language in the context of multi-ethnic hostility. It is able to make relative peace in a multilingual country with struggling national languages, as it happened, for example, in India" (p. 25). It has become "denationalized", according to Yasukata (2001), which also contributes to the property under discussion.

In this function, English does not belong to any communicator's personal background; it creates a tertiary, or mediated space for intercultural communication, and the mechanism of compromise works as follows, under such conditions: Beginning intercultural communication in English, each participant in a communicative interaction, on the one hand, represents his or her culture, and on the other, has a clear picture of the role the language performs in the interaction because it is nobody's mother tongue in this particular communicative process. Possible mistakes of both a linguistic and behavioural nature may not necessarily lead to misunderstanding or misattribution since every participant can *a priori* be excused for misusing the language in self-representation or self-expression. This understanding can minimize the damage to the communicative outcome which is the goal and true result in a case of compromise.

We attribute such a function of English to some of its qualities. The most significant are the following, to our mind. English is widespread due to several factors, as mentioned above; as an analytical language, English is easier to learn compared to synthetical or agglutinate languages; thus, English can be called "affordable" for learning and using. Moreover, the World Englishes paradigm (Kachru, Kachru & Nelson, 2006) makes any codified variety of English with its legitimate deviations and innovations (Прошина, 2005) and their users "feel at home", so to say, under conditions of intercultural contact.

Conclusion

As it is pluricentric and acculturized (Berns, 2006), English demonstrates its capability to acquire new qualities and functions. Due to these properties described, English serves as a compromise means for

intercultural understanding and for promoting cooperative communication. The goal of this paper is to broaden our view of English as a *lingua franca* in its contribution to achieving success in communication.

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How Learnable is a Foreign Culture?

Marina Rassokha
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

English language teaching very often concerns itself with culture teaching which aims at enhancing cultural and language proficiency of EFL learners. Cultural competence, therefore, is the key issue for the field of culture education. This paper briefly explores the concept of cultural teaching and gives an overview of current thinking in the field. In more detail, however, it considers the notion of cultural competence of EFL students and the issues of culture appropriation.

Keywords: *culture in ELT, intercultural competence, L2 culture appropriation*

Introduction

Teaching language and culture or – slightly changing the emphasis – teaching language through culture has been the focus of the intercultural approach to a foreign language education since the 1980s. Issues discussed included approaches to intercultural competence of learners, educators' views on cultural training and materials, students' motivation and methods of teaching about culture. There are hundreds of theoretical as well as empirically oriented books and papers on how to teach about culture. As any other approach of applied linguistics being engaged in controversial discussions, intercultural teaching over time has developed different views regarding, first of all, the cultural teaching model and the type of cultural competence learners should attain. These issues will be discussed in the paper with a particular stress on a shift from a native speaker cultural model.

The cultural dimension of ELT

The present understanding of the nature of culture is mainly determined by an ethnographic approach: culture is viewed as a system of patterned elements and behaviors (Benderly, 1977). In other words, culture is something that every person takes part in (Benderly, 1977). Furthermore, culture, as Davis (2007) contends, is a system of meaning. Living in a culture people construct a reality associated with specific meanings. When members of culture interact with each other they communicate the meanings they need to be involved in particular activities and solve problems together.

Generally speaking, in foreign languages education a similar approach is applied to teaching about culture. Students are exposed to different cultural phenomena (ideally systematically) and learn how cultural meanings are expressed in lifestyles, traditions, literature, films, other cultural products and events. The most important thing, however, in cultural education is to teach foreign language students that culture is reflected in the language, that certain cultural patterns exist behind linguistic patterns and largely condition communicative behavior. Thus an ultimate objective of ELT is to stimulate an awareness of significance of culture while one communicates in a foreign language.

Clearly, cultural dimension of ELT is a complex issue. When teaching culture we have to take into consideration the fact that culture has two main aspects: they are often referred to as objective and subjective culture. Objective culture is the part of culture that can be easily observed and that includes such things as history, literature, and customs. Subjective culture which includes attitudes and feelings, on the contrary, is not easily observable (Davis, 2007). Earlier ELT most commonly focused on objective culture, nowadays educators increasingly tend to teach subjective aspect of culture understanding that it makes a decisive impact on interaction, first of all, translation of meanings and comprehension.

Cultural competence of language learners

Cultural (or intercultural) competence is typically developed along with language skills which include skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking generally described as communicative skills. But when using a foreign language to communicate with someone from a different culture, mere language competence is not sufficient (Byram, 2000, p. 97), learners should acquire intercultural competence. It is important to stress that intercultural competence is not one skill but rather a multi-aspect and multi-skill phenomenon. M. Byram (2000), for example, points out that intercultural competence is part of communicative competence. The latter includes three parts: linguistic competence (the ability to produce the standard language and interpret spoken and written language); sociolinguistic competence (the ability to communicate meanings and interpret social meanings negotiated by the interlocutor); discourse competence (the ability to use strategies for the production and interpretation of texts which follow the conventions of an interlocutor or are negotiated as intercultural texts). Intercultural competence also has a number of aspects and includes attitudes (for example, curiosity and openness); knowledge (of social groups, their products and their practices); skills of interpreting and relating (ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events form one's own culture); skills of discovery and interaction (ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real time communication). And finally, apart from knowledge and skills, it includes critical cultural awareness, that is, ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, particular perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (Byram, 2000, pp. 97-98).

In the same line of thought, Dignen (2010) defines intercultural competence as a blend of knowledge, mindset and behaviours which enables individuals to interact successfully within a certain context. In the

author's words, firstly, this means understanding the scope of culture (for example, national, corporate, functional, team, etc.). Secondly, it means self-understanding to manage one's own ethnocentrism, becoming aware of one's own assumptions and cognitive filters, so enabling the use of a more flexible and curious mental process when dealing with others (Dignen, 2010, pp. 22-23).

Actually, dealing with intercultural competence as a combination of knowledge, attitudes and performance (Mader, 2010) one has to consider the essential point: what culture to teach and what kind of cultural model to select for developing intercultural competence in the EFL classroom. Should a teacher target at the culture of a native speaker of English? Or should the students be exposed to a variety of cultures students' home culture including? More questions have to be invited along with these two. If we teach the culture of a native speaker of English, what culture should be highlighted British or American or other? At the same time, we all recognize the fact that both British and American societies are actually multicultural and multilingual. But, perhaps, even if we decide to teach, let us say, an American variety of English and hence move towards an objective of building native speaker cultural competence of a user of American English, we should address a question: Is it possible to develop native-like cultural competence in an EFL learning setting?

In special literature there exists a whole range of opinions regarding this last question. On the one hand, there are views that learning a target language presupposes learning only a target culture and to be functional in a language means following the culture patterns of this language. Alternatively, according to quite a number of educators who have addressed this issue, we need to realize that native-like cultural competence of an EFL learner is practically unattainable. Hence in the overwhelming majority of cases the answer to a question *Can an EFL learner attain the cultural competence of a native speaker?* is no. The learning, as is obvious, is limited by the EFL setting whereas culture is acquired through everyday exposure and cultural involvement in all activities of the members belonging to this culture. However, that does not mean to say that EFL teachers have to reject completely the native speaker cultural model as a fruitless effort. It depends on what we look at when we refer to this model. One aspect of its usefulness cannot be doubted, that is the relationship between language and culture and the rich material of the English language to demonstrate how the Anglophone culture is reflected in the language. Viewed in this light, the culture of the native speakers of English is expected to be part of culture education along with other cultures.

Issues of acquiring culture

The agenda of appropriating culture in EFL setting includes quite a number of issues. In this section, I will deal with the questions that have come to dominate the current language and culture teaching discussion: ways of acquiring cultural skills, the role of home culture and students' cultural identity.

Agreeing that cultural as well as linguistic behavior should be instructed, a clear understanding should be developed about classroom activities that lead to building intercultural competence. The authors of *Discovering Culture: An Introduction to Anthropology* (Benderly, 1977) point out that "true education consists not of accumulating lots of facts and definitions in a notebook, but of assimilating some important concepts in the mind." They continue emphasizing that "ideas that clarify, that explain, that help one to approach the world creatively and critically are the only things that make the hard work of studying worthwhile." (p. iii). Thus it is most important that students acquire those concepts about culture that would result in skills of interpreting, comparing and relating facts and, consequently, in behaviours that would facilitate intercultural communication. Upon completion the training programme, students would have developed an ability to critically evaluate cultural practices and products both of their own culture and other cultures.

The intercultural approach to language teaching is generally placing a lot of emphasis on acquiring practical cultural skills by learners. In her research into cultural competence of EFL learners, Davis (2007), for instance, states that cultural competence should be developed as practical skills through particular communicative activities. She contends that understanding of culture and cultural behavior is best imparted through analysis of concrete examples of cultural incidents (case studies) rather than through learning some complex and abstract theories. She included as part of her textbook *Doing Culture: Cross-cultural Communication in Action* a variety of cultural situations analyzing which learners not only realize how representatives of different cultures act, but they also are able to recognize cultural problems and to evaluate their experiences with them. Within this approach, students are regularly engaged in problem solving cases, thus their knowledge developed on the basis of experience, analysis and interpretation is likely to be less abstract. To mention only one concrete example about guest-host culture. Students start with *Exploring Ideas* activity when they make a list of responsibilities hosts have towards guests in different cultures (in this case,

Chinese and Western) and a list of expectations guests have; then students read the text *Dinner with Friends* about a visit of an American couple to a home of a Chinese couple, one of whom is their co-worker. Finally, they answer questions and discuss cultural discrepancies in guest-host relationships in Chinese and American cultures. The topics students are expected to delve into are food culture, guests' entertainment, communication difficulties between representatives of American and Chinese cultures, etc. The discussion of the case-study finishes with a role-play when students explain the emerged cross-cultural problems to each couple (Davis, 2007, pp.70-73).

Thus it can be argued that the only way for acquiring intercultural competence is first-hand experience. At the same time, students have to realize that there might be hundreds of different communicative situations in which they can interact with representatives of different cultures. Thus learners should be aware that what they need is some common framework to apply to a variety of cultural encounters. This may be built on the following important concepts and learning goals:

- cultures are communicating communities with socially determined practices thus communication across cultures is always culturally-based;
- learning a foreign language presupposes leaning about foreign cultures and involves a process of language socialization;
- successful intercultural communication is based on knowledge of cultures and involves using the skills of observation, interpretation, comparability, empathy, and tolerance;
- new cultural knowledge and skills enhance linguacultural identity of EFL students and lay a special emphasis on the importance of home culture for learners' cultural self-identification.

In developing these important concepts EFL students' home culture, their language and cultural identity are crucial. "We now know, Hall (2007) writes, that rather than being peripheral to learning, the sociocultural worlds into which learners are appropriated play a fundamental role in shaping their language and cognitive abilities and, more generally, their cultural beliefs about language and their identities as language users" (p. 72). Davies (2007) is particularly right pointing out that "each of us is programmed by our home culture" (p. 19). Thus, it is clear that students' culture should become part of a foreign language classroom as an available resource to be used in many ways: to demonstrate the link between learning and acculturation, to reflect on sociocultural values of home culture and other cultures, to explain conventional social meanings behind language forms, to raise awareness about culture bumps, etc. This involves a fundamental change from a more traditional perspective of aiming at a native speaker cultural model to a shift of emphasis on students' cultural identity.

Few would disagree that the interactive behavior of people articulates their culture or, more specifically, their cultural identity, which determines the ways how meaning is constructed. Learning how to make cultural and linguistic meanings while socializing into one's own culture is a long and socially complex process which, according to Vygotsky (1978), needs scaffolding, modeling and training. These are the types of activities in which more responsible and competent members of culture help less experienced members to acquire sociocultural knowledge and patterns of communicative behavior. For example, in our home cultures, "in addition to learning how to take action with our words, we also develop a shared base knowledge about the world, including frameworks of expectations for what counts as knowledge and for what we can and cannot do as individuals and as group members in using the resources to build upon our understandings of this knowledge" (Hall, 2007, p. 49).

However, the essential thing about acquiring home culture is that it shows a lot of unawareness of the processes and means involved, much of culture is not learned through instruction. Looking at students' home culture as a rich and existing resource for enhancing intercultural competence, special classroom activities should be aimed at relating L1 culture to other cultures. There is reason to argue that they should become part of the instructional practices: activities based on scaffolding when teachers (materials writers, etc) as more experienced educators assist learners in competences building; activities based on modeling and training by providing examples and models of successful intercultural behavior for students to observe, follow and learn from. By doing that teachers socialize learners into culturally specific ways of thinking and knowing (Hall, 2007) and facilitate the change from one cultural perspective of looking at communicative situations to multiple perspectives of other cultures. As Byram (2000) stresses, "The teacher should only help learners to identify values and assumptions, and to become conscious of their own standpoint. This awareness then helps them to interact more successfully with others, recognizing points of conflicting views, negotiating resolutions or, where this is possible, clarifying where difference has to be accepted." (p. 98).

The point to make here is that though language learning – as any learning – is a process of sociocultural transformation (Hall, 2007), students should not set aside their cultural identity but through acquiring new knowledge and skills become much better equipped and enriched. "In other words, learning a foreign language does *not* mean losing one's identity and assuming new cultural roles. Rather, it entails having a clearly defined identity, a strong sense of self" (Porto, 2000, p. 91). Thus addressing the issues of L1 culture and other cultures in a comparative perspective will help learners getting a better awareness of what their cultural identity entails and what makes them the representatives of their culture. This also will give them the isights into how their identities are expressed through a foreign language in intercultural encounters with linguistically and culturally diverse interactants. In the intercultural situations identities serve as a framework of reference to look for similarities and differences both in verbal and non-verbal behaviors. To provide this understanding, teachers should be encouraged to use the materials and activities demonstrating that identities are the products of cultures.

With greater awareness of their own culture learners will be better prepared to communicate across cultures effectively. Many would agree that what is happening in the great number of cases is that an overwhelming majority of EFL learners do not aspire to become a member of L2 culture. They learn the language to become functional in international activities: to publish, do research and business, study and travel, etc. This changes the whole focus of culture learning and means that the ultimate goal of learning English is not to approximate the native speaker cultural model but to become a proficient user of the language who can express her identity through a foreign language.

A final point worth noting is that expressing identity also involves showing attitudes to cultures being learned. It is another key theme that dominates intercultural teaching. Lantolf (2001) points out that "work on culture learning and teaching has been more interested in attitudinal issues relating to learner's development of tolerance and understanding of other cultures as well as in the degree to which the study of other cultures enhances cultural self-awareness."(p. 28). Cultures, no doubt, can be perceived as exciting and exotic, unbelievable or frustrating. That is why teachers should pay a constant attention to the attitudinal aspect of culture learning and teach students to try to look at the culture objectively and try to recognize that there might exist a different system of values and cultural meanings. Increased realization that difference is not a deficiency, that cultural and linguistic diversity is a natural thing should become part of learning. True understanding, therefore, occurs as a result of assimilation of experience (Benderly, 1997) and "personalizing learning by applying it to our own lives" (Davis, 2007, p. 2). Thus it is useful to place a special emphasis on organizing opportunities and instructional activities engaging students to practice empathy, adaptability and tolerance. While presenting a challenge in the classroom, they, no doubt, mean emotional engagement and sensitive appreciation of the people and the culture of other countries.

Conclusion

Samovar (2007) points out that culture that we acquire from the moment of birth has a "most important characteristic – *it is learned*"(p. 21) (emphasis in the original). Can a foreign culture in the EFL classroom be learned similarly to home culture? Obviously, no. And mostly due to the fact that a leaner has already acquired cultural constructs of his home culture and through one course cannot be transformed cognitively, emotionally and culturally to become a person with new identity. Using a foreign language, students still demonstrate the behaviors of representatives of their home culture. Then what goals do we work towards to while teaching interculturally? The essential point is that the intercultural approach to a foreign language education does not anymore encourage mimicking a linguistic and cultural behavior of native speakers of English. Educators voice a lot of doubts about the learnability of native speaker culture and about learners' capability to acquire a native speaker cultural model. Thus the goal is to teach EFL learner to capitalize on his/her own culture and a variety of other cultures. In other words, intercultural education is mainly about cultural explanations and clarification why we behave like that, why we think in that way, why we are different and distinct. Developing learners interculturally through assimilating these important concepts helps a learner to be prepared to speak about their culture using resources of a foreign language and generally approach a representative of another culture critically and creatively with empathy and understanding.

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Cross-Cultural Communication as a Challenge to a Pragmatic Outlook

Svetlana Soboleva
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

The power of the native language usually passes unnoticed by naïve speakers and listeners while the power of a foreign language never fails to produce a mesmerizing effect. When deciding on what foreign language to choose, learners are seldom guided by esthetic incentives, their choice being completely motivated by practical and pragmatic considerations. However, it is the esthetic aspect of the language that facilitates interaction. This aspect closely correlates with the cultural background. The current spread of international contacts makes the need for a coherent and well-balanced core course on "How to learn to love a foreign language" especially pronounced.

Keywords: *esthetic function, communicative strategy, lingua franca*

Introduction

Most learners of foreign languages aim at fluent and adequate communication along with a smooth and sonorous sound. The esthetic function of the language becomes most obvious in the course of learning a foreign tongue. Intelligent students sooner or later come to understand that words have power. The feeling of magic is part and parcel of communication in a foreign language. Aldous Huxley points out that "the technical, verbal part of literature is simply a development of magic…With language the man created a whole new universe; what wonder if he loved words and attributed power to them!" (1972, p.172).

Millions of people prefer English over any other language these days. In fact, most of them are indifferent to its beauty and power and find English grammar and phonetics too much of a strain. They rely on pragmatic needs for their choice rather than on vague considerations of rhythm and harmony. But it is rhythm and harmony, or melody, in other words, that are responsible for the comprehensibility of oral speech. All communicatively committed members of society are supposed to maintain comprehensible discourse. A person's failure to follow this tacit agreement is usually painfully perceived by the public who expect the person to belong to the group.

Harmonious communication is differently interpreted by different language communities. Assessments of specific manifestations of particular cultural and linguistic traditions, which are provided by outsiders, may not always be easy to predict. In most cultures, "Western" and "Eastern" alike, impropriety and roughness are viewed as reluctance to enter into discourse offered by the originator of the communication.

This reluctance can be expressed in a variety of ways. On the level of interaction it is manifested as a refusal to give feedback. For example, a person may feel offended when receiving no reply, whether verbal or non-verbal, to a "Hello". On the syntactical level the reluctance to communicate may reveal itself by means of a breach in the dialogic cluster. For example, when responding to a question with another question, though a statement is the expected communicative strategy, the addressee may offend the other person. On the level of pragmatic strategy the principles of correct communication are integrated into different social and gender roles and their corresponding expectations. For example, women are considered to be more anxious about successful discourse than men. Hence the feminine tactics of asking questions, inserting interjections, and showing their negative emotions by keeping silent rather than by uttering discouraging remarks.

By contrast, men are likely to cut in and speak up. Seldom do men hesitate to pronounce their negative opinions. Another person's conflicting viewpoint will not prevent a man from insisting on his own opinion. No wonder that when analyzing such gender contrasts some American linguists arrive at the conclusion that most US citizens have come from different sub-cultures in terms of social and gender paradigms. American men and women have adopted opposing skills of verbal and non-verbal communication based on opposing cultural traditions.

On the level of cross-cultural interaction lack of knowledge of a foreign conversation partner's traditions of verbal and non-verbal communication may lead to most undesirable effects which can be taken as a negative attitude to the partner. The people attempting to communicate may explain this attitude in a variety of ways, from the partners' race and nationality to their religious affiliation and gender. In such an unhappy situation, a satisfactory and mutually beneficial exchange is out of the question. Communicative clashes caused by conflicting strategies pose a threat to efficient global interaction.

This is how a Chinese student of English characterizes the American approach to verbal communication: "I don't find the American style, where the topic sentence appears first, to be effective. It's not necessarily more persuasive or convincing than the Chinese style, where the speaker at the same time as he is speaking, is reasoning with the listener to allow the listener to see whether what he says makes sense or not. This Chinese speech style is more open-minded, less biased, not constrictive like the American style, where it immediately sets you up to a particular frame of mind. You see, with the American style you can react immediately to what the speaker says without listening to the rest of his explanation". (Young, 1982, p .82)

The above passage is a sample of a sharp criticism of English communicative strategy. It comes from a person whose cultural outlook was predicated by antipodal stratagems. Strange as it may seem, Europeans, for some reasons, also appear reluctant to adopt the English language as a vehicle of intercultural communication. Maybe it is because they fear lest their language and cultural identity should be jeopardized.

"English has come to represent a specific cultural tradition… including industrial society, commercialism, free-market orientation, individualism, media dominance, and unfortunate colonial histories. While not all these things are necessarily bad (and are in fact emulated), they are not appealing to everyone, especially countries who feel that their cultural traditions are slipping away under the bombardment of the English language movies, radio, television, music, products, and now the Internet," writes Alan Corre who started creating Lingua Franca Nova, a blend of Romance languages as early as 1965 (Corre, 2012).

The critical Chinese student expressed his disapproving attitude to the English language in a well-known journal in 1982. The situation has changed dramatically since then. In Asian countries English is given a red carpet welcome across the board, whereas Europeans persist in their rejection of English.

"Although many native English speakers would rarely consider common speech to be offensive, at times, it would not be suited for an international *lingua franca*, which should be as culturally neutral as possible… One of the goals would be to remove phrases with inappropriate or culturally specific associations (for example, sports terminology). While this is derided by some as political correctness…this is necessary for a *lingua franca*, because otherwise some Europeans who adopt the English language as a means of everyday communication would be forced into adopting the customs, traditions, and modes of thought specific to the major English-speaking countries, many of which are embedded in the language" (English as a Lingua Franca for Europe, 2012).

No matter what objections the global status of the English language may inspire, the English-speaking community has been expanding for the last two dozen years. As some scholars point out, "English as a *lingua franca* has taken on a life of its own, independent to a considerable degree of the norms established by its native speakers" (Кльотцл, 2009), And this is where the first pitfall threatens the very basis of the *lingua franca*. It is the English language rather than its foreign learners who should experience pressure and discomfort.

And indeed, English is going through a very troublesome period. The *lingua franca* status involves many negative consequences, the most unpleasant being that millions of people are forced to learn it. The above quotations show that the cultural aspect which is closely associated with the language, seems especially irritating.

In my view this is because a vast majority of foreign learners of English actually feel no inclination to learn it or learn about it. Computerized, pragmatic civilization relies upon other modes of pastime. Why do people learn English, then? Everybody knows the answer – in order to prosper in life and climb the corporate ladder. A prospective career is a poor incentive to learn to love a foreign language.

A well-known Soviet writer Ilya Ilf once remarked, "You should love the language and caress its subjects and predicates."(Петров, p. 892) Unfortunately high school curricula do not provide for teaching students to love and enjoy the English language.

A foreign language will always be compared unfavorably to the native tongue by ignorant learners. This state of things cannot be described in terms of "good" or "bad". This state of things is natural and inevitable. A foreign language will always be "weighed in the balance and found wanting". This has been the case since people began learning languages, and it never caused any concern. The schools were well equipped with thick grammar books and strict teachers. Methodology, though in its infancy, was not afraid to call a spade a spade, that is to say, to call a mistake a mistake. Mispronunciations were not permitted automatically, and no allowances were made for the fact that interdental consonants were too difficult for the Russian learners of English. Nobody would have thought of tailoring phonetic courses so as to meet the demands of those who were too lazy or too busy to project the tip of the tongue between the upper and the lower teeth. Students were given advice on how to avoid or eliminate mistakes. No one was stigmatized, of course, for mispronouncing English words, but everyone knew the difference between "the right" and "the wrong", and everyone was encouraged to pronounce correctly.

Globalization has produced new doctrines and concepts in social and political sciences as well as in linguistics. Political correctness, tolerance, and multiculturalism have shaped new schools of thought and have had a huge impact on the methods of teaching English. Millions of people around the world attend English language classes at school and in college, at their workplaces and after office hours, in their native villages and in local community centers. Their teachers' qualifications vary from quite reputable to non-existent. Educators have found themselves in a rather awkward situation – while it is all right to say that a number of English language learners are apt to mispronounce some English sounds, it is politically incorrect to say anything to this effect if the number of English language learners who mispronounce most English sounds exceeds two hundred million.

Recent developments in Europe have convinced us that the value of multiculturalism and political correctness has been considerably overestimated. There is nothing wrong with politically correct terms, though. They are designed to provide a theoretical framework for theoretical research. And what does this research reveal? It reveals that there are many more who speak bad English than speak good English. Educators are facing an unpleasant dilemma again: which of the two groups of speakers should be relied upon in setting up teaching standards? Experts who are willing to be politically correct and tolerant have adopted a conformist stance which leads to degraded teaching standards and, in the long run, to the decline of the English language. As John Simon puts it in his sincere book *Paradigms Lost*, "There are things which are worth fighting against" (1980, p. 84).

Conclusion

When working out a method to teach foreign languages, specialists will inevitably have to decide whose interests to pursue. Their decision will have a huge impact on the future of the English language. Consideration of the esthetic function of the language, along with the professional assessment of its linguistic properties, may tip the scale so as the English language will be able to preserve its high communicative potential as well as its beauty and power.

The power of the native language usually passes unnoticed by naïve speakers and listeners while the power of a foreign language never fails to produce a mesmerizing effect. When deciding on which foreign language to choose learners are seldom guided by esthetic incentives, their choice being completely motivated by practical and pragmatic considerations.

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The Oriental Institute in Terms of Interaction of Cultures

Olga Trubich
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

By the end of the 19th century the territory of the Far East had become a point of integration of the interests of Asian countries. But insufficient knowledge of culture, economics and history led to conflicts between Russia and Asian states. It was necessary to create a higher educational institution which not only trained interpreters of oriental languages, but promoted the study of the cultures of their native speakers. So, the Oriental Institute was opened in 1899, on the 21st of October.

Key words: *the Oriental Institute, Primorski Military District, specialists, translators, interpreters, students*

Introduction

In the second part of the 19th century, the southern part of the Far East region became a part of the Russian empire. The Russian government had to settle a great number of matters, such as the development of transport and industry. However, not only economic matters needed to be settled.

First of all, the Russian government considered the territory of the Far East as a military territory on the Pacific coast, but as there were a lot of matters to settle, the government considered it a vulnerable region. Besides, close neighborhood with such Asian states as China, Korea and Japan required security in the Far East. Thus, it was necessary to take measures to strengthen state security and Russian authority in the east of the country.

Migration activity and the development of commercial and industrial relations with Asian states raised the need for communicative interaction, both on a social and a state level. However, misunderstandings caused difficulties in communication. For example, the newspaper *The Far East* wrote: "People, who live in the Far East actually face extremely comical episodes from mutual misunderstanding of two parties not understanding each other, often not having even ten mutually intelligible words" (1895, p. 2).

Thus, the lack of specialists with knowledge of oriental languages caused difficulties. In particular, the first state institution which faced this problem was the local police. As immigration activity from Asian

countries increased, it was necessary for translators and interpreters to work for the police, as without their help communication with Chinese, Korean and Japanese inhabitants was impossible. So, from the beginning of the 1890s, the duties of translators of the Chinese, Korean, and Japanese languages were established. The duties of interpreters were established too, but they were considered to be lower, because they could only speak, not write.

It should be pointed out that the question of their professional qualities was under the personal control of the military governor of the Primorski region. Financing the work of the interpreters, the government focused on educated people who could work for the police. So, in the letter to district chiefs of August 14th, 1897 the military governor specified: "I will try to make sure personally that their knowledge is sufficient and that they are not people who have been picked up from the street" (*Russian State Historical Archive of the Far East*, F. 1, p. 18).

As the personnel question was not solved completely, quite often native speakers among the Chinese, the Koreans and the Japanese who lived in the Far East territory, were involved in translating and interpreting. However, their low educational level complicated the work of the police, as their translations were not trustworthy. Quite often native speakers, who worked as interpreters, interpreted things to their own advantage, which caused distortion of reality.

As for Russian translators and interpreters, their educational level was fairly low, because they had only a secondary education. Thus, "the language barrier" with the eastern countries increased and influenced the development of the Far East.

The governor of the Primorski region, P. F. Unterberg, noticed that the lack of higher oriental institutions or universities was a serious problem for the preparation of translators and interpreters. Preparation of these specialists was very important, as on the one hand, they would eliminate misunderstanding among countries, and on the other hand, they would represent Russian culture and would promote the establishment and consolidation of relations with Asian countries.

So, the remoteness of the territory, the lack of higher schools and the small number of specialists were the main factors holding back the social and economic development of the Far East. At the end of the 19th century there was an objective necessity for the creation of a higher education institution which would be capable of preparing specialists in the Far East with knowledge of oriental languages for civil, military, trade and economic activities.

So, the Oriental Institute was opened in Vladivostok on October 21, 1899. At that moment Vladivostok had come to occupy a favorable geopolitical position in the Asia-Pacific region and was a developing seaport. One of the committee-men wrote about the choice of the centre for oriental education: "It's difficult to find out any other place where so many nationalities of Europe and Asia would converge, and Asians prevailed over Europeans. Vladivostok in some places looked like absolutely an Asian city, where among the Koreans, the Japanese and the Chinese, the Russian person was not visible". Actually, the presence of foreigners in the city gave students a chance to communicate with the representatives of Asian countries, to improve their conversation skills, and to understand peculiarities of life, culture and the economy.

As the Oriental Institute acted as a place for studying the cultures of Asian countries, a great deal of attention in the programme was paid to teaching oriental languages. So, in a conference session on August 18th, 1900, the Director of the Institute A. M. Pozdneev remarked: "Attention should be given to studying oriental languages, and besides, it's necessary to acquaint our students thoroughly with the economic conditions and legal rights of states of East Asia" (Russian State Historical Archive. F. 740. Inv. 44. C. 57, p. 3). The practical character of oriental education consisted in training in the so called "live languages" with a variety of their dialects, using examples of private correspondence and administrative, civil, criminal office-work inherent in each country.

The students studied for four years: the first year was general for all students and during the second year the students had specializations and were divided into four branches – Chinese-Japanese, Chinese-Korean, Chinese-Mongolian, and Chinese-Manchurian. Oriental languages became the means of international dialogue.

Graduates of St. Petersburg University were the first professors of the Institute. They were: A. M. Pozdneev, P. P. Schmidt, A. V. Rudakov, G. V. Podstavin, E. G. Spalvin and G. T. Tsybikov. Their aim in teaching oriental languages was to understand the culture of eastern countries and to avoid stereotypes.

One of the main activities of the professors was the creation of practical textbooks for learning the foreign languages. The professors tried to take into account the modern position of Asian countries and

modern features of their culture. To achieve this, the professors went to China, Korea and Japan to study the life of the people, the traditions and culture of the countries through dialogues, literature, ethnography and study of the economy.

To gain a complete understanding of Asian countries, the professors coordinated a training process so that through the languages they could inform students about philosophical, moral, ethical and cultural values and also reveal key problems for intercultural communications. Thus, by means of the material presented in the textbooks, the communicative function of languages was strengthened.

The professors of the Institute combined in the educational process and in educational texts different kinds of language work and conversations about cultures. The language material reflected the system of moral and cultural values, national features, way of life and traditions of the country whose language was being studied. The main aspects of training were the consideration and learning of foreign languages through the prism of national cultural heritage and huge spiritual riches. The professors understood that on the basis of this knowledge, intercultural dialogue could occur at a higher level, and students joined other national cultures. The material helped to grasp not only geographical and historical realities, but also what is most essential in spiritual life – the ideology of a society.

Conclusion

Thus, the influence of Asia brought a number of important political problems to the Russian empire, including the need to provide security on the eastern frontiers and to protect the interests of Russia. It in turn induced the imperial government to actions which led to the opening of a higher educational institution which included the study of oriental languages. Thus, the formation and development of oriental education became a state action, which defined it as one of the priorities of state policy and a factor in national security.

Speaking Through Silence

Nikolay Borovik
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper discusses meanings and roles of silence for Japanese people, as reflected in fictional discourse in English. The aim of this study is to explore what linguistic means of verbalization of silence are employed by authors of Japanese origin writing in English, depending on particular forms and functions of silence in their correlation with different factors of individual, situational and socio-cultural levels of communication.

Keywords: *silence, non-verbal communication, Japanese culture*

Introduction: Silence in Communication

Absence of speech during communication does not necessarily mean absence of information or lapse of communication. Silence belongs to the sphere of non-verbal communication and most researchers rank and study it along with mimics, gestures, eye-contact, etc. In discourse, silence may be represented in "pure" form, i.e. without any other non-verbal components. In such a case silence is equated with them. But very often we can witness the usage of silence in combination with other elements of non-verbal behavior, which allows the amplification of the communicative potential of silence. However, though it is included in the sphere of non-verbal communication tools, silence stands apart from all other non-verbal elements of communicative behavior. Although it did not receive enough attention from researchers in the past, in recent years, there has been increasing interest in the role of silence in communication from a linguistic perspective (Bakhtin, 1986; Bogdanov, 1998; Nakane, 2007; Inubushi, 2002; Jaworski & Stephens, 1998, etc.). Researchers have indicated that silence is not simply an absence of noise but constitutes a part of communication which is as important as speech (Inubushi, 2002). Yet, as silence is such a multifaceted and ambiguous phenomenon, it is a challenging subject to study.

Forms of Silence

Silence can take various forms. At a macro level silence may be performed by the *whole group during a communicative event* like a ritual; or the *permanent silence of certain people or a group of people in a speech event* (for example, during a court hearing) or a *total withdrawal of speech, while others are talking* (Nakane, 2007).

One other form of silence which is not as explicit as the above-mentioned types is "hidden" silence. According to Jaworski (2000, p.113, cited by Nakane, 2007), it can be described as the "absence of something that we expect to hear on a given occasion, when we assume it is 'there' but remains unsaid."

At a micro level the smallest units of silence are *switching pauses* (which take place at turn transition relevance places (TRPs) or when another interlocutor takes the floor) and *in-turn pauses* (pauses occurring during a monologue). Sacks (1974, cited by Nakane, 2007) describes another form of silence that occurs at TRPs when no interlocutor wants to take a turn. This form is named a *lull*, or a discontinuation of talk. As many scientists note, how much silence is perceived as a lull may vary and depend on cultural factors. Also, when switching pause takes longer than expected this may be interpreted or intended as a turn-*constituting pause*, or a response without words (Nakane, 2007).

Functions of Silence

First of all, silences in communicative situations have to be distinguished from silences in non-communicative situations, as silence can only have communicative functions in communicative situations (Nakane, 2007). Moreover, silences which structure communication and regulate social relationships have to be differentiated from silences which carry meaning (Saville-Troike, 1985). The latter type of silence which carries meaning in communicative situations is described as silence which is either meaningful but without

propositional content, or "silent communicative acts which are entirely dependent on adjacent vocalizations for interpretation, and which carry their own illocutionary force" (Saville-Troike, 1985, p.6). The first type of silence in this distinction can be represented by hesitations and pauses, which may play a role in the projection of impressions, attitudes or emotions. The second type can include silence accompanied by non-verbal communication such as gestures, but it can also be silence without any accompanying non-verbal signals.

The functions of silence investigated in the existing literature can be grouped under the headings **cognitive, discursive, social** and **affective** (Nakane, 2007).

1. **Cognitive**: pauses, hesitations required by the speaker for cognitive processing and by the listener for thinking over and accurate comprehension of what has been said.
2. **Discursive**: indicates junctures and meanings or grammatical units in speech.
3. **Social**:

- **Negotiating and maintaining social distance**.
- **Impression management** through pause length, frequency and speed of talk. Length of pauses, as well as overall tempo of speech, can be associated with personal traits such as extroverted or introverted. Therefore, we see in this instance the clash between silence as a means for cognitive processing and silence as a factor in impression management
- **Conversational styles** through pause length, frequency, speed of talk and overlapping. Tannen (1985, cited by Nakane, 2007) demonstrated how features of discourse such as preference for overlap rather than silent switching pauses and relatively fast rate of speech characterize the conversational style of New York Jewish people.
- **Means of social control** by avoiding verbal interaction with specific individuals. In the Akan community in Ghana where community members refuse to talk to "people who violate socio-cultural norms" to deter "future violators" silence is used as a punishment.
- **Defining or maintaining role relationships and negotiating power**. For instance, in the Akan community, the king uses silence to mark his "power, authority, rank and status".
- **Means of emotion management**. Avoidance of talk with a person who is extremely angry among the Western Apache (Nakane, 2007) is also a way of managing intense emotional states.
- **Politeness strategies (negative, positive, off-record, not doing FTAs)**. According to the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987), almost all communicative acts are face-threatening, and thus can be considered face-threatening acts (FTAs). To perform an FTA without causing a conflict in social communication, there are certain strategies to be applied, depending on the level of threat to face. As many researches (Sifianou 1997, Scollon & Scollon, 1995) (cited by Nakane, 2007) have demonstrated, silence may be used to perform various politeness strategies rather than just the "not doing FTAs" strategy, as might be supposed. For example, silence can be used as a positive politeness strategy when it functions as a sign of solidarity and good rapport, while it can also be a negative politeness strategy if it functions as a distancing tactic

Verbalization of Non-verbal Elements

Verbal language is a universal tool for reflecting the real world. Likewise, non-verbal means of communication can be verbally manifested. This mostly occurs in written communication when an author is constrained by having only one information transmission channel – the written one. Through this channel the author sends his or her massage, which is perceived as a product of the interaction of verbal and non-verbal tools.

Means of verbalization of non-verbal elements are of great interest due to their metalingual character (Kobzeva, 2009). Many researchers compare the verbalization process to the process of translation. As with every translation, a verbal representation of non-verbal acts involves the loss of part of the information. On the other hand, while in oral communication some non-verbal elements may remain unnoticed, the written mode of communication allows the author to make what we might call semantic infusions, as it is up to the sender (the author) to select means of non-verbal verbalization that best match his or her goal in communication.

Vereshyagin and Kostomarov (1981, cited in Kobzeva, 2009) note that non-verbal components are represented verbally in two ways: verbal nominations of the **outer form** of non-verbal signs and verbal manifestation of their **meaning**. At the same time, as noted by Poyatos (1981, cited in Kobzeva, 2009), non-verbal elements may find their verbal representation at **both the level of form and the level of the content.**

Besides the above, according to Kobzeva (2009) non-verbal sign verbalizations differ in terms of synchrony and diachrony. Unlike locutions related to speech acts and created by the author each time they are

necessary in the text, there are locutions that have come into permanent linguistic use as standard verbalizations of non-verbal signs.

Also verbal representation as well as non-verbal elements themselves can be polysemic and thus highly context-dependent. As a tool to remove polysemy communicative context, as described by Е.И. Беляева, includes a set of the relevant components of the communicative situation which affect the usage of specific verbal or non-verbal forms (Kobzeva, 2009).

The Verbalization of Silence in the Context of Fictional Discourse

Empirical data for analysis was taken from fictional literature written in English by authors of Japanese origin. Continuous sampling yielded about one thousand empirical units, with the proportion of silence elements at around 20 percent.

The most frequently used form of silence was turn-constituting silence or silence as a speech act, which in the overwhelming majority of cases was used with a social function: for power negotiation or as a politeness strategy. Besides, significant number of lulls and intra-turn pauses serving cognitive and social functions were found during the analysis. The second most often used form of silence was the switching pause, which usually takes place before an interlocutor takes his or her turn speaking and is employed with cognitive, social and affective functions. These facts indicate that silence is very often used by Japanese people in communication and plays a significant role in maintaining social and interpersonal relationships and contributes to the wide-spread stereotype of the "silent Japanese". Thus, the functions for which silence is most frequently used are cognitive and social, which indicates a measured and relatively slow tempo of speech in Japanese native speaker encounters; on the other hand, the dominance of the social function reveals high dependence on context and avoidance of concrete statements. At the same time negative politeness strategies were registered as most commonly used, which indicates the importance of social hierarchy in Japanese communication.

Very often deducing the function performed by silences in a text was not an easy task due to ambiguous context and lack of explicit markers and we still have some instances which require more elaboration.

We found three types of verbalization of silence:

a) direct statement of silence ("He remained silent", "I did not reply to this" (Ishiguro, 1986)) which is highly context-dependant
b) indirect indication through the description of a character's surroundings or actions – frequently the description of the inner thoughts of interlocutors:

> "'Indeed,' I said. 'I have much to be thankful for'" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 58).
> "Again, a splashing sound came from the pond outside, and it occurred to me it could be birds bathing at the water's edge.
> "'Your garden sounds distinctly different to mine,' I remarked'" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 58).
> "'The China crisis posters,' I said, thinking to myself. 'Yes, I remember your posters now.

c) indirectly through description of other non-verbal signs, which often serve as a clue to the interpretation of the silence

> "What do you mean, 'too proud'? What are you suggesting, Noriko?" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 72).
> "'Tomorrow?' Noriko looked at me, then turned to my grandson. 'Well, we can't go tomorrow, can we, Ichiro? We're going to the deer park, remember?'" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 22).

d) verbalization of the meaning of the silence

> "I wouldn't presume … He faded off into embarrassed giggling" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 45).
> "'Forgive me, Sensei, but as it happens, the matter has come to have some significance. The committee is obliged to be reassured of certain things. After all, there are the American authorities to satisfy…' Shintaro trailed off nervously" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 64).

As has been mentioned, the influence of contextual factors is very significant at every level of social organization:

– Individual:

"When amongst family, or in the company of close friends, Noriko is in the habit of adopting her somewhat flippant manner of address, and often achieves a wit and eloquence of sorts; but in more formal settings, I have often known her to have difficulty finding an appropriate tone, thus giving the impression she is a timid young woman."

- Situational (communication of two and more participants requiring shorter inter-turn pauses:

"...now that's a healthy thing, don't you think so, Mr. Ono?" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 76).
"Perhaps I hesitated for a moment; in any case, Taro Saito spoke before I could reply" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 76).

- Socio-cultural (norms of participation: when speaking to a person of a higher social standing an interlocutor may not speak up on his or her own).

"He appeared still to be preoccupied with my paintings, and for some time, he ignored both my mother and me, seated before him in silence. Then finally, he gave a sigh, looked up and said to me: <…>" (Ishiguro, 1986, p. 28).

Conclusion

As has been shown, our research revealed different strategies for the verbalization of silence used by authors, among them being direct indication of silence, leaving space for including more context in the interpretation of silence; indirect indication through the description of participants' actions or non-verbal behavior that may be used as a clue to the explanation for a particular form of silence.

As a multi-faceted phenomenon, silence may bear culturally-charged characteristics and thus lead to miscommunication across cultures. We believe that further study of silence in fictional discourse from a linguistic perspective may provide more insights into its meanings and factors influencing its usage and perception, as an author may apply different means (including linguistic ones) to the verbalization of silence and contextual circumstances affecting its usage and perception. As rightly mentioned by Kobzeva (2009), the effectiveness of verbal representations, and thus the effectiveness of communication between the author and the reader through a text, depends on how adequately the encoded information complies with cultural, ethnic, and national specifics.

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Measuring Idiostyles: Some Methods and Techniques

Olga Bukach
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

Idiostyle, being very intangible and hard to define, turns out to be hard to measure as well. However, since the majority of researchers define idiostyle as "a complex of artistic and stylistic devices and the way they are used to create a piece of literature, that is unique for each author", we consider that idiosyncrasies of authors' expressive language can be measured using the following methods: thematic net, quantitative analysis and frequency analysis. It is also important to note, that, because the so-called "interpretation code" "hidden" in each piece of literature, is unique, the methods for uncovering the idiosyncrasies mentioned above should be unique in each case as well.

Keywords: *idiostyle, translation, stylistic idiosyncrasies, stylistics, text interpretation*

Idiostyle plays a crucial role in understanding the text and interpreting it, which is particularly important when it comes to theatre plays. Failure to understand and uncover the unique "interpretation code" that, according to S. M. Shakirov (2006), is already present in each text, can lead to misinterpretations which can further result in a performance which is dull and hard to follow. Therefore, it is vital to suggest certain methods aimed at uncovering idiosyncratic methods and techniques used by authors, which can also be used while working on translating the texts. If this "interpretation code" is uncovered, the interpreter, being aware of special techniques the author has used while creating the original text, will be able to search for and use equivalent techniques while creating the translation of the text, thus making this new translated text as close to the original in terms of artistic value and the impact it has on the reader, as possible.

According to A. I. Efimov (1954) idiostyle can be defined as "the system of organization of verbal means" (p. 88), which is developed by the writer as he creates a piece of writing. Here we can talk about syntactic constructions, choice of vocabulary and rhythm all being key elements of a particular author's style. Before we talk about particular methods, aimed at uncovering those key elements, we need to turn to S. M. Shakirov again. The researcher claims that a so-called interpretation code already exists in each text, and the goal of the researcher and/or the interpreter is to uncover it. Thus we can conclude that if the code is unique for each text, so should be the methods aimed at uncovering it in each particular case. In other words, we will need a different set of tools as we deal with each text in order to be able to single out particular key elements of the author's style.

So far we have come up with three methods that can be used to uncover the interpretation code. They are: quantitative analysis, comparatison and thematic net. Each of these methods has been applied to one of the plays that have been analyzed – both the original and the translated texts: *Desire under the Elms* by E. O'Neil (2010), *Betrayal* by H. Pinter (1994), *Zoo Story* by E. Albee (1995) and *The Real Thing* by T. Stoppard (1984). In each case a different "interpretation code" was found and applied to both English and Russian texts in order to uncover key elements of idiostyle and trace those key elements in translated texts.

The quantitative analysis method was used to analyze *The Real Thing* by T. Stoppard (1984). As rhythm seemed to be the key element of the author's style in this particular play it occurred to us that the interpretation code could be the proportion of stressed syllables that create this rhythm. In three extracts that were analyzed for this report, the correlation between the total number of syllables and the number of stressed ones in the original and translated texts are reported in the following figures:

English text	**Russian text**
Extract one	
35 syllables 14 stressed syllables **40% syllables are stressed**	60 syllables 17 stressed syllables **28% syllables are stressed**
Extract two	
42 syllables	69 syllables

18 stressed syllables **42,8% syllables are stressed**	21 stressed syllables **30,4% syllables are stressed**
Extract three	
81 syllables 26 stressed syllables **32% syllables are stressed**	109 syllables 26 stressed syllables **23, 8% syllables are stressed**

Therefore, it is possible to talk of serious disruptions of the idiostyle in the Russian text, since the rhythmical structure of the original text has not been preserved. It is understandable that due to the fact that the two language systems are different, there will not be complete correspondence in the total number of syllables and in the nature of the rhythmic pattern. However, since rhythm is one of the key elements of the idiostyle of this particular author, it should be somehow reflected in the translated text as well; the rhythmic pattern, while not repeating the one of the original text, still should be transparent in the translated text, and the proportion of stressed syllables can not be that much different from the one in the original text. However, this hypothesis needs further consideration and confirmation; for that purpose, an experiment is planned. Recorded excerpts from the text (both in English and in Russian), delivered by professional actors, will be analyzed using a special software program, and the diagrams will then be compared in order to show differences in pausation and stress accentuation.

The same method of quantitative analysis was applied while working with the play *Betrayal* by H. Pinter (1994). In this case, however, the interpretation code was different – it was the number of repeated words, phrases and constructions, which scholars consider to be key features of Pinter's style. The number of repetitions of various kinds (anaphor, epiphora and anadiplosis) were calculated in both original and translated texts. The figures were as follows:

English text	Russian text
• Scene 1 – 24 repetitions	• 9 repetitions
• Scene 2 – 20 repetitions	• 8 repetitions
• Scene 3 – 13 repetitions	• 5 repetitions
• Scene 4 –12 repetitions	• 8 repetitions
• Scene 5 – 15 repetitions	• 6 repetitions
• Scene 6 – 8 repetitions	• 3 repetitions
• Scene 7 – 12 repetitions	• 4 repetitions
• Scene 8 – 15 repetitions	• 5 repetitions
• Scene 9 – 8 repetitions	• 3 repetitions

In this case we can talk of serious disruption of the idiostyle on the syntactical level; as repetition is considered to be one of the key features of Pinter's creative manner, failure to sustain it in the translated text leads to failure to convey this manner as well.

Another method that has been used to work with this play is comparative analysis. It aims to compare words used in the original and translated texts. In order to compare the choice of vocabulary in the English and Russian texts *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2012) and the Frequency Word List of Russian Vocabulary Based on the National Corpus of the Russian Language: Oral Speech (Lyashevsky & Sharov, 2009) were used. While the English words used by the author of the text mostly belong to the list of the thousand most frequent words in oral speech, their Russian equivalents belong to the third, fifth and even eleventh thousand of such words. One may claim that such a situation may be due to the fact that English words are more polysemantic than Russian ones. Consequently, a Russian word used as an equivalent for the English one does not necessarily have to be as widely used, because it might correspond to the third and even the fourth meaning of the English word. However, it is important to note that Pinter uses very polysemantic words in their first meanings, which means that he does choose words for his characters that are the most widely used by ordinary speakers of English in their everyday life. At the same time, Russian words used in the translated text do not belong to the same group, as many of them actually are old-fashioned and not widely used by native speakers of Russian.

The thematic net method was used while with the play *Desire under the Elms* by E. O'Neil (2010). The play was translated into Russian in 1971 and in 2008; both translated texts were analyzed together with the original text. According to I. Arnold (1984), repeated words and meanings transfer the most important information and, therefore, are the key to understanding the text; they also constitute the thematic net. In this particular case the thematic net is constituted mainly by words used in old Cabot's speech. It is the so-called word opposition, created by the words "hard" – "soft", "easy". The word "hard" is used 34 times, "soft" 24 times, "easy" 15 times. In the 1971 Russian translation of the play these repeated words are often substituted by synonyms, which results in the non-observance of idiostyle and thus the Russian text does not fully convey the meaning that the author intended to. However, in the 2008 version the repeated words and, consequently, thematic net are preserved.

In conclusion, we can state that even though key elements of idiostyle are not always easy to single out, there are certain methods which allow us to do that and to "measure" the idiostyle. There are three methods that we have come up with so far and that have been used to analyze a number of texts: thematic net, quantitative analysis and comparative analysis. Based on the findings outlined above, we can further discuss serious corruptions of idiostyle.

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Reenacting Russian Literary Scripts in Contemporary Russian American Literature

Evgeniya Butenina
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

While the twentieth century witnessed a Golden Age of Russian émigré literature, mostly monolingual, the recent decade has witnessed a boom in translingual Russian immigrant writing, which might become a Silver Age for the Russian émigré tradition. This paper discusses how enacting a classical literary script serves as a conscious writing strategy to establish oneself on the international literary scene in two debut Russian American novels: Lara Vapnyar's *Memoirs of a Muse* (2006) and Irina Reyn's *What Happened to Anna K*. (2008).

Introduction

The twentieth century witnessed a Golden Age of Russian émigré literature, mostly monolingual, with the translingual cases of Vladimir Nabokov and Joseph Brodsky unmatchable in significance and stardom. The recent decade has witnessed a boom in translingual Russian immigrant writing, which might become a Silver Age for the Russian émigré tradition. Writing in the current Russian diaspora is to a large extent translingual and while Europe knows individual success stories such as Andreï Makine in France and Wladimir Kaminer in Germany, in the United States a group of authors has become quite prominent and has even inspired American writers with no Russian origins to explore the post-Soviet landscape, constructing a "pseudo-Slavic English discourse" (Wanner, 2011, p. 5) as in Safran Foer's *Everything is Illuminated* (2002) or Gina Ochsner's surreal *The Russian Dreambook of Color and Flight* (2009).

Two contemporary Russian American women novelists chose similar strategies to attract attention to their debut novels: the protagonist in Lara Vapnyar's *Memoirs of a Muse* (2006) sees herself as Dostoevsky's *femme fatale* Apollinaria Suslova, while the heroine in Irina Reyn's *What Happened to Anna K*. (2008) relives the plot of Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina.* For both authors, academic literary studies preceded the writing of fiction as Vapnyar translated Suslova's novella *A Stranger and an Intimate*, whose main characters are a thinly disguised Suslova and Dostoevsky, for her PhD project, and Reyn took a graduate seminar on *Anna Karenina*. This paper discusses how enacting a classical literary script serves as a conscious writing strategy to establish oneself on the international literary scene.

Reliving Russian Literary Classics in the Postmodern Age

Lara Vapnyar's and Irina Reyn's similar writing strategies are partly conditioned by similar biographies: both were born in Moscow in the early 1970s; Reyn's family immigrated to the United States in 1981 when she was seven, while Vapnyar immigrated to New York in 1994 at the age of twenty three. Their partially autobiographical heroines share their authors' immigrant stories. Both are young Russian-Jewish women who live in New York and combine the immigrant dream of social ascent with the fantasy of becoming the heroine of a novel. In pursuit of that dream, both of them become the "muses" of mediocre American writers, who, in turn, aspire to increase their own importance by having a muse. The Russian-American interaction is thus portrayed in both novels as a failed love affair rooted in classical Russian literature. Tanya's and Anna's attempts at seducing Americans with their Russian "authenticity" can be read as a self-parody of the immigrant author who is striving to capture the attention of the American reading public.

The heroine of *Memoirs of a Muse,* Tanya Rumer, grew up in Moscow and has been dreaming of becoming a muse, but to somebody not less gifted than Dostoevsky. As a teenager she reads the diaries of Dostoevsky's wife Anna Snitkina as well as those of his mistress Apollinaria Suslova and feels contemptuous of the former and sympathetic of the latter. So she chooses "Polina's" story as her life scenario, as it is Polina's foot's "maddening imprint" that is found in Dostoevsky's novels and there is no trace of Anna. Tanya inherited Dostoevskian dreams on the maternal side as Anna Snitkina's memoirs was her grandmother's favorite book (her grandfather's name being, inevitably, Fyodor Mikhailovich) and her mother replaced all her father's pictures with those of Russian writers, definitely including Dostoevsky, and thus set the target of her daughter's erotic fantasies.

In her early twenties Tanya immigrates to New York, still cherishing her adolescent aspirations to become a muse. She does meet a bearded writer, named Mark Schneider, in a New York bookstore. First she sees his portrait on an announcement of a reading and a number of blurbs comparing him to Marcel Proust and Philip Roth. Having read neither, she remembers, however, her college professor saying that "if anybody ever surpassed Dostoevsky in his treatment of the human psyche it was Proust" (Vapnyar, 2006, p. 91). She feels she must stay for the reading of the "man compared to somebody who had surpassed Dostoevsky" (p. 91). So she stays and, her eyes closed, listens without really understanding anything but brought to tears by the beauty of "graceful foreign sounds". This does not pass unnoticed: the writer comes up to her, discovers her origins and subjects her to a three-question quiz on Dostoevsky, who is presumably "his favorite" too. Tanya's English will long remain not good enough to realize that Mark Schneider is not exactly a Dostoevsky, though he secretly plays with an idea that he is.

Tanya discovers this secret some time after she moves in with him. First she waits for his new book and hopes desperately to find a "maddening imprint" of her foot in it. Intending not to miss this moment of glory, she starts a diary of a muse, of which Mark highly approves, but has little to write in as he does is in no hurry even to start his new novel. In the end Mark decides to leave his protagonist aged fourteen – no chance for her "maddening imprint" – and on top of that disappointment she discovers a far bigger one. In Mark's favorite book *The Three Loves of Dostoevsky*, next to the descriptions of Anna as "simple and unpretentious" she finds her name scribbled in the margins. "Short of breath", she leafs further hoping to disprove her discovery but instead she finds more proofs. "None-too-developed average girl, not remarkable in any way" – Mark has praised her for those qualities which add to his desired resemblance to a Russian genius.

Upon this discovery, Tanya rebels, leaves Mark and after a while settles into a happy family life and eventually writes her memoirs as a muse. At the beginning she acknowledges her failure as such but in the end she discovers she has become a muse, though not to Mark. At an exhibit in a small gallery she sees a painting of a girl with a "smudge of blue paint in place of a head" and recognizes her own ugly Russian boots and an old coat, "the only one like that in New York". The artist turns out to be Mark's neighbor, Vera Mielich, and the catalogue informs Tanya of Vera's tragic illness, decades of silence and "powerful comeback shortly before her death" with a series of paintings called "A Girl in the Elevator." Tanya tears out a reproduction of one of the paintings to keep in her diary.

At the end of the novel, as a specialist on Russian history, Tanya is invited as a consultant to a new movie version of *Anna Karenina* called *Anna: A Study in Passion*. Irina Reyn seems to have picked up her update of Russian literary narrative from there: she reviewed Vapnyar's novel for *The Moscow Times* and naturally relates to its Russian-Jewish-American identity story and her novel contains a number of allusions to Vapnyar's: for example, Anna worries that she is leaving "no tangible imprint on the world" (Reyn, 2008 p. 11).

Reyn's heroine, Anna Roitman was about Tanya's age when her family immigrated to New York and, protected by the loving though at times annoying cocoon of her Russian Jewish family, she grew up in a literary fantasy world. She felt "genetically predisposed to unhappy love affairs", having "consumed *Wuthering Heights* no less than fourteen times" and identified herself with most classical novel heroines. While "no Darcy alighted" on her way, many "Philip Roth/Updike/Nabokov (sometimes Henry Miller) disciples" did, and they saw her as the heroine of their future, unwritten novels (p. 46). By the age of thirty six she realizes these novels are likely to remain unwritten and love stories with those men unlived. At this time her loving mother arranges another date for her, this one with Alexander K., who turns to be "Heathcliffs's and Darcy's opposite". Anna is always about to end his courtship on the next date but. soaked in luxury, she finds herself unable to, which eventually leads to an almost farcical scene when Alex proposes in a restaurant, with a ring hidden in a molten soufflé, shifting from two knees to "the right one", waiters getting ready to clap, diners "taking surreptitious bites" and cooks calling "chicken livers, thirty two" (pp. 11-12).

In her married life Anna has all the elements of the *Anna Karenina* novel including: a husband in his fifties, a son named Sergei, a cousin named Katia, who introduces Anna to her fiancé David whom Anna recognizes as a brief acquaintance at the Penn train station before her marriage. Already engaged to Alex K. and at the station to meet him, Anna happened to see a bespectacled (and "the bespectacled broke her heart") young man "darting glances at her". Noticing *Notes from the Underground* under his arm, Anna decides to "play the immigrant card" and "bring in Dostoevsky". Similar to Vapnyar's novel, Dostoevsky is forgotten as quickly as he is "brought in" as in the post-Soviet immigrant community even Anna's parents "no longer read Dostoyevsky—haven't they suffered enough, they would say; after thirty years of communism, didn't they *deserve* Danielle Steel?" (Reyn, 2008, p. 8, italics in the original).

Anna Roitman's and David's Zuckerman acquaintance begins and ended with a quick handshake to continue in more Tolstoyan circumstances, with Anna as a wife and a mother and the reader aware "that the sound in the distance is the rumble of that inevitable approaching train", as Jeff Turrentine remarked in the *New York Times* review (2008, p. 14). Being sarcastic with her heroine, Reyn remarks on page five that "ever since she was a little girl, Anna loved trains".

With the adultery about to unfold, one more important literary name is brought into the novel, that of Vladimir Nabokov. While Mark Shneider's self-claimed similarity to Dostoevsky can be observed only in his beard and constant rereading of *Dostoevsky's Three Loves*, David Zuckerman's literary role-models (Philip Roth and Nabokov) are clearly inscribed in his real and chosen names, "pnin76" being his hotmail log-in, his secret longing for *The Gift*, as Anna is soon to find out. Nabokov's *Lolita* and *Pnin* bring Anna and David together. Supposedly being David's favorite novel and at first unfamiliar to Anna, *Pnin* becomes her ruse to invite David for an innocent looking literary chat. She reminds David of their meeting at Penn station – "he appeared genuinely confused" – and of her "Russianness-as-an-asset, the signifier that would set her apart from others" (Reyn, 2008, p. 46): "'I love Nabókov,' she said, careful to pronounce the author's name the right way, the Russian way. There would be no Nábokovs between them" (p. 74). This statement is followed by their effusive exchange of admiration for *Lolita,* one beginning a remark and the other finishing it:

"His wordplay."
"His wit."
"Your favorite scene in Lolita"
"It would have to be…"
"Yes.
"The minute he knows…"
"She's never been his."

Anna is so full of secret appreciation of the "erotic sensation of gulped-back words" (p. 75) that David's forgetfulness of their first encounter does not alert her, nor do his compliments, which she wishes were "more original somehow, writerly" (p. 100). For a while David does make her feel "like Catherine from *Wuthering Heights*" (p. 93) and, in the view of David's "Columbia buddies", she "was exactly the kind of shattered woman a real New York man ought to surround himself with" (p. 140).

Sadly, Anna is soon to become even more shattered as she makes a Humbertian discovery: *she*'s never been his muse. Unlike Vapnya's Tanya, as Anna reads her writer's novel she does find her imprint in it, but the imprint is so idealized that it is really boring, while numerous descriptions of a "dark, Eastern beauty, sheltered by Judaism, threatened by the outside world" are truly touching. It finally dawns on Anna: "it was not she who was the muse, but Katia. Young, simple, Bukharian Katia had been fueling David's creative imagination. It was Katia's story he wanted all along, never her own. Somehow, Anna's story was yet again unpalatable for the writer. The narrative of her life would disappear" (Reyn, 2008, p. 228). Realizing she has put her fate in the hands of a terrible writer, Anna remembers David's handing her the Kramskoy postcard and watching her connect with that the famous unknown woman, "regal in her lonely carriage" (p. 228). Too proud to let the narrative of her life disappear and spurred by what Adrian Wanner calls "frustrated narcissism", Anna makes her final, self-scripted choice.

Conclusion

The issue of triple Russian-Jewish-American identity is most important both for Vapnyar and Reyn. Reyn devotes a short chapter to the question of "The Great Russian Soul", and what happens to it when it is "transplanted to Rego Park, Queens" (pp. 13-15). After quoting Dostoevsky's description of it as a disease and summarizing unattractive Russian-American qualities Anna naturally despises, the narrator concludes that she "might not be an owner of a *velikaia russkaia dusha*". In Anna's own self-ironic estimate, however, "shards of the Russian soul might have lodged themselves inside her." She believes this to be the case because she loves to drink, has a "fatalistic binary mentality", does not believe in therapy, and, "most damningly, even at the height of pleasure…[is] engulfed by an overall feeling of doom." In conclusion, she tells herself that "[t]he Russian soul had come to claim her, extinguishing all that was sanguine and buoyant, all that was American inside her, leaving only the Siberian Steppes, the crust of black bread, the acerbic aftertaste of marinated herring, the eternal, bleak winter" (p. 15). Obviously, such a "Great Russian Soul" becomes "a cultural construct used by westerners as a typecasting device, and by Russians themselves as a means towards auto-stigmatization and auto-exoticism." (Wanner, 2011, p. 165)

Adrian Wanner compares the two women writers' strategies for seducing an American audience with "the erotic charm of Russianness", which they self-parody in their heroines: "Mark and David are both initially attracted to Tanya and Anna because of their Russianness, which they associate with Slavic sensuality" (unpublished paper presented at the conference of American Association of Advanced Slavic Studies, 2009). Both women soon learn to play a "professional immigrant game" responding to popular literary expectations at school and in adult life. Thus, Anna takes a creative writing course in college and entertains her class with a "cozy memory piece" from her Russian childhood about a New Year's celebration featuring Father Frost and Snegurochka. Her enchanted classmates are clamoring for "[m]ore ethnic details," "more food," and "more indigenous scenes" (Reyn, 2008, p. 25). Responding to such Western craving for alimental details, similar to the appetite for "sweet and sour" that maddened Chinese American writers, Vapnyar generously splashes mayonnaise and borsch in her short-story collection *Broccoli and Other Stories of Food and Love* (2008).

The attempts of both authors to root their writing in the tradition of the great masters was most welcomed by American reviewers, who believe Vapnyar's novel "like those of her Russian forebears, possesses great tenderness for suffering" (the book's blurb), while in Reyn, Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* is successfully "updated" and "freshened" and "Tolstoy himself would surely have given a nod to Reyn's re-creation of his Karenina" (the book's blurb). Lara Vapnyar and Irina Reyn parody the novels of the two authors who embody Russian literature for Western audiences, and demonstrate happy and unhappy scenarios of superficially reliving literary scripts in the Promised Land. Vapnyar asserts the possibility of an American success story for her down-to-earth Tanya, even though she is a reader of Dostoevsky, in whose *Crime and Punishment* going to America stood for suicide, while for Reyn's Anna her overly literary expectations predictably become incompatible with life. While in Vladimir Nabokov Russian classical literature constitutes a secret code yielding only to astute readers and scholars, contemporary Russian American authors writing in English compose an explicit literary discourse, which provokes contemporary critics to discuss the "Russian brand" in terms of marketing strategies of popular appeal.

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Evaluatory Illocutionary Acts Realized by Nonverbal Means of Communication

Marya Dyuzheva & Tatyana Vlasova
Far-Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper deals with evaluatory communicative acts, which are used to express a speaker's evaluation of some components of the discourse and are realized by means of nonverbal signals. The study is based on English fictional texts, which are considered to be a reliable source of linguistic information as they reflect real life discourse and real ways of communication.

Key words: *discourse, communication, evaluation, non-verbal means of communication, illocutionary acts*

Introduction

Evaluation is the mental process of comparing the objects of the world and their properties as well as collating them with the system of values existing in the interlocutors' minds. Sidorov (2009) writes that in the process of communication the speakers employ subjective evaluation which is the result of the interlocutors' need to compare some picture of the real world with those existing in their minds (p. 167).

The system of values and ideals determines the content and structure of communication: they lie in the basis of motivation and influence the speaker's choice of means of communication (Sidorov, 2009, p. 62-63). Since the category of evaluation exists in any community, the means of expressing it can be found in any language. The objective of the linguist is to research the process of realizing evaluation of discourse components by means of a language and to form a group of elements used to express the evaluation.

There are different means of evaluation representation in speech; the choice between them is conditioned by the interlocutors' intentions and other discourse constituents. Depending on their way of representation, the evaluatory means can be divided into two main groups, that is, verbal and non-verbal ones. The former include evaluatory words (e.g. "good", "bad", "love", "hate", "awfully", etc.); the latter comprise body language and paralanguage (voice and speech characteristics; unarticulated sounds). In real life discourse both verbal and non-verbal codes contribute to the common process of communication. Let's consider the following examples:

> 'You could have done with a bit more focus on your studies, instead of pie-in-the-sky dreams about being a musician,' *grumbled* Dad. [SM, 4] (The meaning of the word *grumble* reflects the father's disapproval of his son's neglecting his school studies. The evaluation expressed by the tone intensifies the verbal information.).

> "I'm surer than I've ever been of anything that I want to live here with you."
> Andrew *took up her hand from the table and kissed* it. "Good," he said. [PG, 280] (In this discourse both the verbally expressed positive attitude to the partner's decision and the non-verbal signs serve a common purpose, complimenting each other).

This paper presents the investigation of non-verbal means of communication used to realize evaluatory illocutionary acts.

Many scholars claim that nonverbal signs occupy a much greater part in communication and play a much greater role than verbal signs (Bovee & Thill, 1992; Brosnahan, 1998; Dou, Clark, & Prosser, 2007, Pease, 2011). This state of affairs is conditioned by the following factors:

1) continuity of non-verbal communication (it never stops, it can be happening all the time);
2) it happens via several channels simultaneously (gestures, posture, facial expression, eye contact, etc);
3) immediate reaction of the interlocutors;
4) spontaneity;
5) simplicity of performance;
6) reliability: "Most people can deceive us much more easily with words than they can with their bodies" (Bovee & Thill, 1992, p. 29);
7) effectiveness due to its greater emotional force;
8) nonverbal clues give 5 times as much information as verbal ones.

No wonder that authors, striving to reflect real life discourse precisely and completely, give such great attention to the description of the non-verbal behaviour of their heroes, e.g.:

> The Phelans *sat low* in their seats, some *rubbing eyes and foreheads*, others *staring wildly* at the walls. For the moment, all twenty-two lawyers were *incapable of speech*. [JG, 160] (The non-verbal signals described by the author are the signs of the shock experienced by lawyers and their clients after a will had been read: their reaction is extremely negative. The shock is so great that the verbal channel of communication is blocked for a while and the discourse members are capable of receiving only nonverbal signs.)

> The first song…was about losing your virginity in a hedge. Dad *squirmed in his seat* while Sheril…*tut-tutted*. [SM, 147] (The hero and his girlfriend negatively appraise the song

being performed; not saying a word, they convey their attitude with the help of non-verbal means.).

Evaluation is often confused with expression of emotions since in discourse they are often interrelated. However, there is a distinct difference between them. Evaluation is a *logical* qualification of discourse constituents, devoid of an emotional component: it can be expressed in general terms as "good" and "bad" (Vasilenko, 2010, p. 64). However, in discourse, evaluation is often combined with the emotional reaction it causes, or with the expression of attitude to the evaluated object formed as a result of this evaluation. Therefore, in real life discourse the communicative signs used by interlocutors not infrequently have a complex semantic structure.

In real life, discourse evaluation usually goes together with expressing either attendant emotions, or an attitude to the object being evaluated. Therefore, it seems logical to subdivide evaluatory illocutionary acts into verdictive and expressive acts. In some discourse situations a communicative act can have a more complex structure: it happens when the evaluation of the object is accompanied by expressing both an attitude to it and emotions evoked by it. This kind of speech act will be labeled as "verdictive-expressive".

Verdictive evaluatory acts

A verdictive illocutionary act, reflecting a judgment of an object is always based on evaluation of the object. Communicants form their attitudes to discourse constituents on the basis of their evaluation of the constituents: if a communicant decides that the object is good s/he likes it and approves of it, and vice versa. Verdictive evaluatory acts include such acts as expressing *likes and dislikes*, *approval and disapproval, justification and accusation,* etc. We can notice that verdictive evaluatory acts form semantic pairs based on negative and positive judgments.

> … "D'you know what number I am now?"
> "As a matter of fact I do." She *smiled.* "You're are in the top fifty." [ES, 86] (The smile from the girl signals her positive attitude to the situation being discussed).

> "Well, how much I love you." "*Yuk"*' Finn said, and *made a face as if he was going to be sick*. [JF, 4] (Using a sound and a certain facial expression the boy pretends to vomit on hearing words of love said to him).

> "I will tell you my real name if you take off your Batman costume." Charlie *frowned.* [ChC, 313] (The boy's facial expression shows his negative attitude to the interlocutor's offer).

Since non-verbal means of communication cannot name the attitudes of the communicant to the interlocutor, topic or situation constituents directly, the author can verbalize the illocutionary meaning of the non-verbal signal, for example:

> "Are you suggesting we, the lawyers, front the initial five hundred thousand?" Hemba asked, his tone one of *contempt.* [JG, 288]

> There was something like a muted *roar of approval* as he came in. [PG, 252]

> "Dog show? Say dog show?" Drummond was looking at me *with great distaste*… [KW, 97]

Expressive evaluatory acts

An expressive evaluatory illocutionary act is also a complex communicative action in which evaluation is combined with emotional reaction; the two things are so closely connected that it is difficult to determine which goes first: emotion can arise as a result of evaluation, or, on the contrary, the emotion can lead to the corresponding evaluation. NVMs play a special role in expressing emotions, "accounting for 93 percent of the emotional meaning that is exchanged in any interaction." (Bovee & Thill, 1992, p. 29).

Expressive evaluatory acts conveys such emotions asjoy, happiness, pride, irritation, sorrow and indignation:

"Then if we like it, we can get married."
"That's a novel idea," she said, her *face radiant*. [ES, 35] (The radiant face of the heroine demonstrates the state of joy and happiness she is in.)

"I have metaphorical pigs. I have theoretical pigs."
Louise *giggled*... [PG, 243] (The woman reacts to her partner's joke with a giggle, which is a sign of the positive emotions she feels.)

"Besides, I haven't exactly decided to go yet."
Chet *rolled his eyes to the ceiling*. [RC, 264] (The codified meaning of the facial gesture used by the author to describe the man's reaction to his partner's behaviour is an expression of irritation and annoyance).

"Didn't they try to give you any help at all in that place?" I *sighed*. "They tried to help us, you know." [ChC, 210] (The negative evaluation of the results of people's help is expressed in a sigh, which is usually a sign of sorrow or disappointment.)

An author sometimes verbalizes the illocutionary meaning of the non-verbal signal:

He was *smiling* at her, his face filled with *intense affection*. [PG, 247]

"Tony, perhaps you should see to your other guests." There was a *note of sharp displeasure in her voice*. [SS, 397]

"Toby cooks a lot of lentils," Miriam agreed.
Andrew's eye widened in silent horror. [PG, 126]

Verdictive-expressive evaluatory acts

In a discourse in which evaluation of an object is combined with both expression of emotions and demonstration of an attitude toward it, verdictive-expressive illocutionary acts take place:

He *regarded* this Amazon with *astonishment and admiration.* "You must be very strong." [LB, 81] (The author nominates the emotion of the hero as well as the attitude toward the object of the evaluation.)

"Isn't it a bit hasty?...Technically you're still married to me," *growled* Sam. [SM, 218] (The meaning of the verb "*to growl"* contains both verdictive and emotive components: "to say something in an *unfriendly* and *angry* way" (*Macmillan English Dictionary*, 2002). Sam negatively evaluates the appearance of his wife at a party with her boyfriend: he considers it a bit scandalous.)

"But he hated my paintings." She could hear the *pain in his voice*. [SS, 418] (The author names the emotional state of the hero caused by his attitude to the negative evaluation of his works.)

Emotional evaluation can be simulated: the participants in the discourse can play on it to achieve their own goals. Brosnahan (1998) thinks that, in particular, facial expressions can be used to deceive interlocutors: "The face is generally considered the most effective liar among the NVC modes, and, therefore, on the scale of credibility, the least trustworthy of nonverbal signals" (p. 76). Here are some examples demonstrating the intentional use of facial expressions by the communicants where their facial gestures do not reflect their real attitudes and emotions:

"I'm not well." Rose said.
Toby *composed his face into an expression of sincere concern.* [PG, 100] (Using the expression *composed his face into,* the author directly points at the intentionality of the non-verbal signal which only simulates sympathy).

"You bring neither of them any good at all."
Toby *gritted his teeth* and *kept the smile on his face*. [PG, 132] (The author first names the unintentional, uncontrolled negative reaction of Toby to his partner's statement (*gritted his teeth*); however, the external, controlled intentional reaction in the form of a smile demonstrates a positive attitude to his partner.)

Simulation of positive evaluation sometimes does not come easily and requires a great effort:

"I've known your grandmother, Kate, for years." The *smile stayed* on Eve's face, but *it took a great effort*. "Gran's a darling," Eve said. [SS, 490] (Eve hates her grandmother, who left her without means to exist on, but she knows she cannot show this, which is why she does her best to demonstrate a positive attitude to the object of evaluation with the help of a smile.)

From the examples we can see that simulated acts of positive evaluation are used to regulate the process of communication between the discourse participants. Dementyev (2006) writes that emotive evaluatory acts are regulators of communicative relations (p. 218). One of the conditions for successful communication is emphasizing a positive tone in the discourse (Gerasimenko, 2010, p. 106-107), which can be realized by means of evaluatory communicative acts. Communicants who are interested in successful interaction with their partners will always strive to conceal or disguise their negative opinion of the partners' communicative behaviour:

"I didn't have an opportunity to examine Mr. Nodelman," she added.
"I'm certain you would have made the diagnosis instantly had you done so," Jack said, *consciously trying to keep sarcasm out of his voice*. [RC, 69] (Jack does not think much of the professionalism of his colleague, but in order not to make her his enemy and not to destroy the perspective of professional cooperation with her he does his best not to sound sarcastic.)

Conclusion

The communicative activity of people is closely connected with the evaluation of discourse constituents. Gerasimenko (2010) states that evaluation lies at the basis of any statement (p. 104). The analysis of discourse fragments with evaluatory meaning has allowed us to determine that the main types of evaluatory communicative acts are expressive, verdictive and verdictive-expressive ones. The terms presuppose that these communicative acts not only reflect evaluation, but are also able to express emotions and attitudes towards the object of evaluation. Besides, the communicative acts of positive evaluation fulfill the regulative function, thus contributing to the smooth development of the dialogue. In the latter case the positive attitude can be simulated.

By actively using non-verbal signals in evaluatory illocutionary acts, the speakers strive to affect their interlocutors efficiently and to achieve their pragmatic goals in the discourse (Krasavsky, 2008, p. 94).

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Markers of False Utterances in Conflict Dialogue in Different Cultures

Olga Filippova
University of Economics and Services, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

In a conflict situation people often resort to lies. The goal is to convince the counterpart of the truth of the words at any cost. Speech acts determine not only verbal but also nonverbal behavior. This paper aims to identify falsehoods in utterances by observing certain linguistic and extra linguistic markers.

Keywords: *prevarication, false utterance, conflict dialogue, non-effective communication, linguistic markers*

Introduction

Lying occurs everywhere in our life, but people of differing cultures interpret and understand it differently. Some people lie out of fear of being exposed or punished. Others use a lie as a defense mechanism. Lies can be somebody's fantasy or just a joke. This subject has been discussed by philosophers and language experts, psychologists and lawyers, pedagogues and parents. Is lying so amoral and wicked? And is every deception harmful?

Vies on Lies in Different Cultures

Immanuel Kant (1994), the Austrian philosopher, believed that any distortion of the truth should be called a lie. He also asserted that untruth is always detrimental for someone, if not for an individual then for humanity in general (pp. 257-258).

Russian philosopher V. Solovyov (1896) gives the following definition of a lie: "In contrast to delusions and mistakes, a lie is a conscious and morally reprehensible contradiction of the truth" (p. 911).

In naive consciousness, deception is usually associated with negative, socially disapproved actions such as fraud or cheating. The notions "lies" and "deceit" are used to signify the information which is doubtful. However, a lie is interpreted not only as a deception and untruth but also as a fiction, fantasy, product of imagination or even a joke or a trick.

Russian scientists distinguish lies from prevarication. Russians are very indulgent of prevarication. The first person to notice this phenomenon was the Great Russian writer Fyodor Dostoevsky (1989). The idea occurred to him that in Russia even completely honest people may tell a lie (p. 85).

V. Znakov (2009) notes that prevarication is a social and cultural phenomenon, which is typical of the Russian national consciousness. In Znakov's (2009) view, prevarication is not so much a means of deliberate

distortion of facts as a way of making contact and deepening relationships between people. The author believes that prevarication does not involve the humiliation of the listener or obtaining personal benefit at the expense of the listener (p. 247).

Prevarication has penetrated into the structure of society and has become commonplace, hence it is widely represented in Russia's national literature. One can meet characters who are liars in the novels of N. Gogol, A. Chekhov and others. Lying, in Russian culture, is a way of embellishing reality, a desire to escape from dull, everyday existence.

In British culture, in contrast to Russian, lying is considered a violation of the human rights of the person who is lied to. Violation of human rights is inadmissible. This rule is deeply rooted in Western standards of morality.

The American psychologist, P. Ekman (2009), gives the following definition: "… a lie or deceit, then, one person intends to mislead another, doing so deliberately, without prior notification of this purpose, and without having been explicitly asked to do so by the target" (p. 28).

Another American scholar, S. Walters (2010), states that lying is a cognitive mental process. The deception of the interlocutor is a conscious process. Deceiving a person achieves a certain goal. He/she can get personal profit, protect him/herself or avoid unpleasant consequences in a situation that seems unpredictable. The author concludes that the liar makes a decision to mislead the interlocutor. The decision is a conscious and deliberate thing (pp. 22-23).

P. Ekman (2009), referring to the Oxford English Dictionary, notes that "in modern usage the word [lie] is normally a violent expression of moral reprobation, which in polite conversation tends to be avoided, the synonyms *falsehood* and *untruth* being often substituted as relatively euphemistic." (p. 25). Perhaps this is why he does not distinguish between the notions of "lies" and "fraud". However, Russian researchers V. Znakov (2009), N. Gladkikh (2000) and O. Popchuk (2006) do not share this view.

In a false statement the actual state of things is intentionally transmitted in a distorted form (Leontiev, et al., 1977). Investigating false utterances in Russian dialogic speech, O. Popchuk (2006) elaborates the following definition: "the statement deliberately distorts the real situation in order to mislead the communication partner" (p. 7).

When determining what is a false expression, A. Luriya (1927) points to the fact that a lie changes the mindset of the speaker. And this *other* mindset "has its shapes, its rules, its methods" (p. 92). Taking this consideration into account, we propose the following definition of a false statement: A false statement is a statement that intentionally transmits information in a distorted form and is accompanied by a change in the speaker's mental activity, which, in turn, leads to a change in his/her non-verbal behavior (Leontieva, et al., 2011, p.102).

Verbal communication is regarded as a process of interaction between equal partners, in which "the addressee is entitled to receive full information in the communication act, and the sender (source) has the right not to recognize this right" (Popchuk, 2006, p. 9).

False utterances and conflicts emerge in a dialogue or a polilogue.

The Phenomenon of Conflict Dialogue

A conflict dialogue is a speech act that translates the positions of the participants: the addresser and the addressee as well as contradictions between them. Conflict dialogues are intensified by telling lies, concealing the truth and providing half-truths which lead to a refusal to give full information in the communication act. For Tretyakova (2003) a speech conflict or "conflict communicative act" is a state of confrontation of two sides in which each side consciously and persistently acts to destroy the counterpart by explicit linguistic and extra linguistic means (p. 27). A speech conflict develops in time; consequently, it has a beginning, development, culmination, and solution (A. Romanov, 1988, p. 39). Communication may be effective or non-effective. In the case of a conflict dialogue communication is non-effective.

According to Popchuk (2006), there are three forms of false statements that can be represented in conflict situations. *Direct refusal* to acknowledge a communication partner's right to receive information is expressed in categorical unwillingness to begin or continue the conversation. *Indirect refusal* is characterized by either keeping silent or otherwise ignoring the issue. As for *potential refusal*, it is associated with switching the attention of a communication partner away from the "problem information zone" (pp. 14-15). The unity and interaction of verbal and non-verbal means is the basis of the functioning of false statements.

The experience of a people, their language and national character are reflected in fiction. For the illustrative part of this paper, fictional dialogues were selected as they often create a model of a real speech

situation. From the whole corpus of literary texts, only dialogues containing false utterances were selected. What means of linguistic and extra linguistic markers of false utterances in conflict exist in the two cultures? The need to answer this question determined the object and the subject of this study.

Analysis of Conflict Situations Containing False Utterances in Fiction

Let us turn to the analysis of the three types of false utterances in their verbal and non-verbal aspects.

1. *Direct refusal* is a refusal which states the impossibility of granting the information requested.

This excerpt from the novel *Anna Karenina* by L. Tolstoy (1987) can be seen as an example of direct refusal. This communication is non-effective. The interaction between the two speakers does not achieve its goal. The characters touch upon a very private matter discussed in aristocratic society. Anna does not recognize Dolly's right to receive full information in this communication act.

"All the more so! You should clear up your matters if it is possible," Dolly said.
"Yes. If it is possible," Anna spoke in a low voice with gentle melancholy.
"Could you get a divorce? I was told your husband wasn't against it."
"Dolly! **I don't want to talk about it**"
"Don't let's," Daria Alexandrovna said hastily and noticed the expression of suffering on Anna's face."I just see you look too gloomy." (pp. 227-228).

The utterance which contains a means of direct refusal, is highlighted in bold type. An exclamation and negative construction are the verbal means of refusal. A change in Anna's tone of voice (underlined) is a non-verbal means. Anna's sad and quiet speech demonstrates the depth and seriousness of her experiences, the uncertainty of her position.

The second example is British. This is a fragment of a dialogue between Mr. Hunter and his son, characters in the S. Maugham's short story "The Fall of Edward Barnard" (1977).

Bateman and Edward are friends. Bateman was secretly in love with Edward's bride; he feels confused and is reluctant to speak about Edward with his father.

"You haven't brought Edward Barnard back with you."
"No."
Bateman was silent for a moment, and his handsome sensitive face darkened.
"I'd sooner not speak about him, dad," he said at last.
"That's all right, my son. I guess your mother will be a happy woman today" (p. 19).

In the conversation between the father (sender) and his son (the recipient), the recipient's direct refusal to answer the father's question is highlighted in bold type. Extra linguistic means of planned denial are underlined.

It should be noted that British and the American people are exquisitely polite even when they deny a request (in bold type). This is grammatically expressed by the modal phrase *"I'd sooner not + V"*, the meaning of which is not as categorical as the Russian equivalent "*Let's not talk about it*". In addition, the refusal is made by using the subjunctive mood, which is typical for representatives of British and American cultures.

The extra linguistic means used by the author (underlined) to indicate that the subject of the conversation is not easy for the recipient is changing Bateman's mood *(Bateman was silent for a moment, his handsome sensitive face darkened)*. Besides, the expression *"at last"* shows the son's excitement and, of course, his reluctance to answer the question.

The difference between the two cultures is seen in the less categorical tone of the utterances in the English dialogue, cf.: *"I do not want to talk about it"* and *"I'd sooner not speak about him, dad"*.

2. Giving an *indirect refusal* to provide complete information, the speaker pretends that he or she does not understand what the problem is. We should add that half-truths and ambiguities are considered techniques of lying that are used in certain context (Znakov, 2009).

In the following dialogue from the story *Mitya's Love* (1994) by I. Bunin, the young master asks the peasant woman Alyonka for a secret love meeting. He feels confused, uneasy and uncertain. The young woman, who has experience in such kind of affairs, makes him believe that she does not understand him.

She looks at him in great surprise, wondering what he means.
"What are you doing here?" Mitya asked in a low voice.

"I'm looking for Marusya and our cow. And then what?" she answered in a low voice as well.
"Oh, well, are you coming?"
"Why not? Why should I meet for nothing?"Alyonka said.
"Who told you 'for nothing'?"Mitya asked in a whisper "Don't worry."
…"Oh well, don't try to fool me! I don't agree for nothing…" she said looking at him with laughing eyes… (p. 66)

The utterance, which contains a means of indirect refusal to give the information requested is highlighted in bold type. The author emphasizes Mitiya's indecision with linguistic means such as *Oh, well.* Alyonka answers the question with a counter-question, not providing a straight answer and trying to get a benefit from the affair. Mitya's psychophysical state is expressed by extra linguistic markers: *a low voice, whisper.*

Here is an example from a novel by the English writer S. Maugham, *Theatre* (2004). This is a dialogue between an actress, Julia, and Mr. Langton, the director of the theatre where she works. The addresser (Langton) refuses to give reliable information to his communication partner (Julia). At the same time he swears that he is telling the absolute truth.

Julia went up to him and stared into his eyes searchingly.
"Have you done all this to get me to stay on for another year? Have you broken my heart and ruined my whole life just to keep me in your rotten theatre?"
"I swear I haven't. I like you and I admire you. And we've done better business the last two years than we've ever done before. **But damn it, I wouldn't play you a dirty trick like that**."
"You liar, you filthy liar."
"I swear it's the truth."
"Prove it then," she said violently.
"How can I prove it? You know I'm decent really." (p. 53)

To persuade his communication partner (Julia), Mr. Langton uses repetitions, answers with counter-question, changes the subject of the conversation, flatters Julia and offers her some concessions.

The linguistic context, including slang (*damn it, filthy liar, a dirty trick*), makes it possible for us to visualize some extra linguistic means of communication. In this case it is a sharp tone, illustrating anger, the fury of one speaker and the fear of another.

The way of making false statements is similar in the two cultures. Communication partners interpret the reality equally: anxiety, shame, anger, resentment and offence require some linguistic means of expression. The general means include counter-questions, verbosity, repetition, interrogative words, changing the topic of conversation and evasive answers.

3. *A potential refusal* of the right to receive information means not allowing the interlocutor into the "problem information zone", or divert his/her attention from the problem information area. The problem information zone refers to information which the communicant has but does not want to give it to anyone.

In the story *Mitya's Love* by I. Bunin, the mother of the young master wants him to meet with a respectable family where there is an eligible daughter.

"Have you looked for me, mummy?"Mitya murmured awkwardly.
"Oh, nothing special. It only seems to me you are looking gloomy these days," said Olga Petrovna. "Would you like to visit somebody…the Mishcherskys, for example, their house is full of brides," she added smiling.
"**Maybe, I will…one of these days…with pleasure**," Mitya answered with an effort."**Well. Let's have tea on the balcony. It's so nice there…We could continue our talk there,**" he said knowing excellently that his mother can read easily his soul and would not regain this useless talk. (p. 52).

The mother wishes to have a heart-to-heart talk with Mitya but he answers with a false promise. This is clear from the context. The phrase "*Mitya answered with an effort*" is an illustration of this. To distract his mother from the slippery ground, he invites her to the balcony. His speech is *quick* and *wordy*. In this way he

tries to avoid the "problem information zone". Silence, a *non-verbal component*, is as important for communication as verbal components: during this pause, Mitya tries to find new words.

The potential refusal is in bold type; the author's comments on Mitya's non-verbal behavior are in italics.

Here is an example of a potential refusal from the novel *Angel Pavement* by J. B. Priestley (1974). This is a conversation between a young girl from a rich family, Lena Golspie, and Turgis, a clerk working for a company which Lena's father wants to bring to ruin.

> "…he says he doesn't like London, and he's going away soon."
> "Is he?" Turgis stared at her. "What—how do you mean 'soon'?"
> …"You wouldn't be going, would you?"
> "**I might—**pass me a cigarette, will you?**—**and then again, **I might not. It all depends.** But look here, if my father knew I'd be saying anything, he'd be furious, and **though he usually lets me have my own way**, when he's really furious, he's hellish, I can tell you." (p. 281)

Lena uses the same tactics to avoid the need to tell the truth; she avoids answering his question by using vague phrases *"I might… I might not. It all depends"*. She quickly changes the subject and asks Turgis not to tell anyone that her father is going to disappear.

Comparative analysis indicates a poor choice of words, and syntax violations. Extra linguistic signs are also similar, as excitement and uncertainty are expressed in stuttering, changing facial expressions, worsening of mood and gestures revealing nervousness.

Conclusion

As a result of our study of English and Russian fiction, similarities and differences in linguistic and extra linguistic markers of lying have been found:

- Linguistic markers: negative constructions, using the subjunctive mood; calling the partner unpleasant names; repetitions; counter-questions; changing the subject of the conversation;
- Extra linguistic markers: a change in the tone of voice; aggressive intonation; a change in the psychological state of the person (confusion, rage, fear);
- Both the Russians and the British expose themselves by their behavior when lying.

The study of the phenomenon of lying remains a difficult problem when identifying collective and individual attitudes to lying in different cultures. A comprehensive approach by specialists in the fields of psychology, cultural studies, philology and other areas of study to the study of verbal and non-verbal markers of lying is necessary to acquire new knowledge and understanding among peoples and nations.

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The Peculiarities of Speech of a Western Politician

Ekaterina Karavanova
Far Eastern State Transportation University, Khabarovsk, Russia

Abstract

Communication in the political sphere is the means of struggle for power. The speech of a politician is his or her most important tool for influencing people. In this paper a political text is viewed from the point of view of various tactics and strategies of speech behavior. Analyzing the main components of the speech image of D. Cameron, the author pays special attention to the phonetic level. In this paper such prosodic features as melody, pausation, and tempo are reviewed. The analysis of these parameters helps us to understand how D. Cameron creates the image of a competent and responsible person.

Keywords: *political linguistics, image, speech strategy, speech tactics, melody, pausation, timbre*

Introduction

When analyzing speech in politics we turn to the sphere of **political linguistics.** Political linguistics is part of political communication and it is connected with such areas of study as sociolinguistics, functional stylistics, classical and modern rhetoric, cognitive linguistics, and text linguistics.

Theoretical points

There are several methods of research in modern political linguistics: the analysis of particular units in political texts: the study of definite linguistic levels of political language, that is its phonetic, lexical, phraseological and syntactic features; the study of genres and styles of political language (parliamentary debates, speeches at meetings, the language of mass communication, the analysis of wall writings, slogans, election debates, political scandals); and the research of styles of different political leaders, trends and parties; comparative research.

Nowadays linguists pay special attention to political speech genres. Scientists distinguish between the political genres of oral speech (debate, interview, conversation, speeches at meetings) and genres of written speech (newspaper articles, leaflets, and political programs). Also, genres of political speech are differentiated

according to their function: ceremonial (inaugural address, welcoming address), orientational (reports, decrees, contracts, agreements), argonal (slogan, leaflet, speeches at political meetings, cheer-leading), and informational genres (newspaper information, people's address to politicians or to the media). According to the volume of information, genres can be small (slogan), medium (parliamentary speech, newspaper article) or large (party program, political report).

For a modern political leader, a properly chosen image is one of the major criteria of success. The concept of "image" today has a lot of different definitions and interpretations. Image, as the art of personal attraction and part of professional success, has a lot of parameters. There are the following types of image: ideal, real, self-image, perceptible and required image, professional and personal image. In the modern world the concept of image has become a part of any public person, especially a political leader.

A well-made image requires an integrated approach, including all its constituent parts. But the most important is the verbal component, which is a direct way to convey an image, as the politician's professional activity is accepted by people through his or her public speeches.

When analyzing the verbal component of political image, we turn to such a genre as the interview. We may say that an interview is a traditional and characteristic genre for British political discourse. An interview is always directed to the contents of expression and you clearly see the personalities of the two speakers (Shevchuk, 2004).

There are some peculiarities of this genre. An interview is always defined as a polyfunctional genre in journalism. This is a dialogue about what has happened or what is happening at the moment (Kozhina, 2003, pp. 82-83).

There is one more definition: an interview is a genre of social and political journalism, interpersonal verbal communication which aims to get information and create new knowledge in order to satisfy society's information needs (Lukina, 2005, p. 13).

From Mikhalskaya's point of view, the peculiarity of an interview lies in the fact that an interview is a highly conventional speech genre with a very strict distribution of the roles of the participants. The journalist is eager to reveal the most important features of a politician to society, including the unpleasant ones, and the politician giving answers to the journalist's questions is eager to persuade society of his or her good intentions (Mikhal`skaya, 2000, pp. 67-69).

An interview is a very interesting genre because one can be sure here, to a certain extent, that the speech belongs to a certain person, who is giving a spontaneous speech reaction to the questions asked (Mikhal`skaya, 2000, p. 19).

Spontaneous speech reaction belongs to the sphere of oral, unprepared speech, characterized by irreversibility, forwardness, and its linear unfolding in the course of time. One cannot go back to any moment of oral speech, as the speaker should think and speak simultaneously. A speaker should think everything over on-the-hoof.

As psychologists say, a speaker can control the logical-compositional, syntactic, and partly the lexico-phraseological levels of the language, and so can take care of logic and interconnection of ideas in the speech. Phonetic and morphological levels of the language, that is pronunciation and grammatical forms, are not controlled and are produced automatically. In this connection, oral speech is characterized by less logical accuracy, shorter sentences, less complex word combinations and sentences, a lack of participial and gerundial constructions, and the division of one sentence into several communicatively independent sentences.

Research was done on Andrew Marr's interview with the British Prime Minister David Cameron given in the *Andrew Marr Show* of October 30, 2011. This interview is an example of a prototypical interview of a neutral type. It was conducted before the Commonwealth Summit in November 2011, where Britain traditionally plays a leading role.

Text analysis

Structurally an interview consists of three parts: the introduction, body and conclusion. In the first part D. Cameron and A. Marr speak about the British monarchy, in particular about changes to the rules of succession to the throne and about questions of faith. D. Cameron underlines that though British society is tolerant of other religions, the person on the throne should be the head of the Church of England. In the main part of the interview the topics for discussion are suggested by Marr. They are the problems within the Commonwealth (questions of human rights), the problem of piracy in Somali and the struggle against it, the British economy and the work of the Bank of England in the period of crisis, and the relationship between Britain and the European Union. In conclusion D. Cameron speaks about the importance of strengthening

economic and political ties with the European Union, which is one of the most important strategic partners for Great Britain.

Of the possible types of political interview texts (text-description, text-reasoning, text-reminiscence, text-projection), we think that this text is a text-reasoning. It is necessary to mention that D. Cameron not only gave the facts and fully evaluated them but he also constantly underlined the leading role of Britain in the Commonwealth, the leading role of his party in the struggle against economic and political difficulties in the country, and his role as Prime Minister.

In analyzing this interview, I am going to dwell upon two major topics: speech strategies and tactics; and phonological presentation of information

Speaking of **speech strategies and tactics** in this interview, it is necessary to mention that it is more cooperative then competitive. Of course, Marr tries to provoke his interlocutor with some provocative questions and commentaries:

> Isn't that another unpicking of the role of the Church of England as the established church?
> …..and it seems that the Commonwealth has looked in the mirror and thought shall we be toothless or shall we have teeth? Let's be toothless.

In the interview, D. Cameron uses very little hesitation or tactics of deviation from any question or equivocation (deviation from a direct answer). It is not characteristic of him to consider any question for a long time or to try to switch to another, more comfortable, question or topic. He tries to be completely accurate and competent in communication, showing rather quick reactions to all questions, being on the edge of communicative conflict, but without showing any hostility to his interlocutor.

D. Cameron is characterized by his desire to dispute and to defend his point of view. This is seen in his categorical negation of the interlocutor's point of view which appears rather frequently during the interview:

> I think that's unfair. / No, I don't accept that. / No, I don't think it's because……

Also D. Cameron shows an emotional reaction:

> *Well, we have to make choices in this.* (pronounced with emphatic intonation and greater loudness)

We hear such a reaction when he speaks about the Bank of England which, according to D. Cameron, did not cope well with its responsibilities in the time of crisis and the recession that followed. D. Cameron gives rather tough, logical criticisms of his opponents:

> They have got to do the mandate, the job.

When they speak about the European Union D. Cameron used the tactics of agreement: *Absolutely right.*

It is interesting to analyze the role of pronouns in this interview. When speaking on some important issues D. Cameron, intentionally, takes all the responsibility on his own shoulders, using the pronoun "I":

> But I think this is a step forward.
> I've been raising it with a number of the African countries that I've been speaking with.
> I think it's been known that we ought really to do something about this.

Speaking about the poorest strata of society in the period of crisis, he shows his personal attitude to the situation, speaking not as the head of the Government but as a citizen:

> Well I feel every sympathy for people who are facing tight household budgets.

"We" appears in the interview when he identifies himself with his Government, analyzing the questions of faith and the succession to the throne, solving the problems of the Commonwealth and problems with Somali pirates:

> What we're not changing …
> So we chose the two things we wanted to do on the basis.
> We always want the Commonwealth to be the best, to do the most, to have the clearest set of values.

Also, “we” appears when D. Cameron identifies himself with ordinary people speaking about the economic hardships which they suffer:

……what we're seeing is the temporary rise in the price level.

D. Cameron is completely involved in the speech event, showing positive speech behavior with a certain degree of categorical attitude. In his speech, we observe certain highlightings of the most important elements in phrases. He tries to form in listeners’ minds a positive attitude to the information given. But we cannot say that he is eager to create “an illusion of polite conversational behavior”. Several times during the interview, Marr tries to interrupt him, but D. Cameron does not allow him to do so; he pronounces all his thoughts up to the very end without paying attention to his interlocutor’s desire to express his own opinion:

DAVID CAMERON: Well they're not happy about it, and every time inflation …
ANDREW MARR: (over) Well they're not doing much about it.
DAVID CAMERON: (over) … is above 2 per cent, they have to write a letter to the Chancellor and explain why.
DAVID CAMERON: ……. The Conservative Party, the party I lead, is in favor of a lot of rebalancing and would like to achieve that. The difference is …
ANDREW MARR: (over) Eighty-eight per cent of …
DAVID CAMERON: (over) … across the House of Commons, the Labor Party is not in favor of any rebalancing at all. …

Phonological presentation of information

Davis once said that verbal communication is the basic form of passing information from one person to another. It is accepted that in communication one third of information is given through the verbal level and two thirds on the non-verbal level (1982).

Some scholars think that the non-verbal level includes such parameters as intonation, timbre, voice modulations and think that voice changes are much more reliable indicators than facial expressions. Psychologists say that in politics words are as important as the voice with which they are pronounced. There are some other ideas of this kind: “a clever thought badly pronounced isn’t accepted as a clever one” (Shepel, 2005).

According to another approach, 7% of information is expressed in words, 38% in sounds and intonation and 55% in non-verbal communication (Vasil`ev, 2010, p. 15). In this case sounds and intonation are viewed separately from non-verbal communication, and they are defined as extra-linguistic speech factors.

The influence of the voice upon the audience is considerable, as the sound signal goes through the centers in the cerebral cortex, where a very complicated process of accepting information and processing it takes place. Also, very complicated mechanisms of back response start there. According to Freud, the characteristics of the human voice belong to prosodic and extra-linguistic phenomena (Freud, 1989).

The prosodic level, intonation is a rhythmic-melodic part of speech. It allows us to communicate thoughts, feelings, emotions, and volitions not only alongside words but sometimes even in spite of them. The complex of speech intonation includes melody, sentence and logical stress, pause, timbre, and tempo.

Melody

It should be noted that D. Cameron mostly uses descending contours. As the phonetic level is not controlled consciously by the speaker and is produced subconsciously, so on the subconscious level in final syntagms D. Cameron shows a typical psychological feature of going down at the end of sentences. 62% of his final syntagms have the falling tone and have the tendency to “download”. 28% s of final syntagms are pronounced with a rising tone and 10% are pronounced with a level tone. A rather high percentage of rising and level tones is connected with D. Cameron’s great tempo of speech. He shows a constant tendency to miss full stops without giving them any pause, being in a hurry and trying to give information that is as precise as possible on any question. So the thought in this case does not sound a completed and D. Cameron connects it with the narration which follows.

47% of syntagms within a sentence which correspond to a comma in written text are pronounced with a rising tone and 23% of syntagms are pronounced with a level tone. Very often a comma in a written text is shown through the change in pitch level in oral presentation, but not with the help of a pause. Pauses within a sentence are very often swallowed because of the high tempo of pronunciation.

There are some examples when a comma was pronounced with a falling tone. First of all, this takes place in enumeration, which sounds rather categorical:

> We always want the Commonwealth to be the best, to do the most, to have the clearest set of values.

Or when the topic of discussion is very important:

> You have to remember with the Commonwealth.

As scholars point out, the psychological ground for a full quality sound is a person's self-confidence and professional competence. Both of them occur in D. Cameron's speech though his voice is rather high (150-200 Hz). His speech is rather emotional thanks to frequent use of the Accidental Rise for some parts of very important information and thanks to the change in the voice pitch on the edge of syntagms when the beginning of a syntagm is heard because of the higher level of pronunciation.

Also, in the written text there are semicolons and dashes. For semicolons the use of a level tone and a pause at the end of a syntagm is typical. A dash comes on both sides and mostly when there is a parenthetical insertion in the text:

– and it's a good report –

Also, the parenthetical insertion in this text is characterized by a lower level of pronunciation.

Pauses

A pause is viewed as an extra-linguistic factor. For example, the use of logical pauses helps us to understand a politician's speech. A change in the duration of pauses may help to draw the listener's attention to the most important points in a speech.

In this interview, the number of syntagms in the oral presentation is much greater than in the written text and the division of the text into syntagms is different. D. Cameron singles out in a separate syntagm: the stereotyped expression "I think"; subordinate clauses, which are not singled out by commas in writing, and the most important words and expressions, before which he makes a pause in order to attract our attention to them:

> The recommendation about having a Commissioner for Human Rights has not been/ rejected.

At other times D. Cameron makes a hesitation pause, trying to give the most precise definition possible:

> The person who is /on the throne has to be /a member of the Church of England because they are the head of the established church, / so that isn't changing.

Timbre

Voice timbre is a component of intonation which influences the listener very quickly and provokes either a positive or a negative reaction. Voice timbre depends on the joining of some subordinate tones (overtones) to the main tone. If overtones and the main tone are harmonious the voice timbre gives a favorable impression. We may say that D. Cameron's voice has "the right phonation" in which speech specialists train politicians. The phonation passes freely, without any tension, through the vocal cords at any possible heights, typical of this kind of voice. It goes freely from one register to another.

Tempo

Voice tempo is rather quick. It is about 139 words per minute.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we may say that D. Cameron gives the impression of a very confident and well-informed person who is aware of all the peculiarities of the present situation (no false starts or self-interruptions) and he can give full commentary about practically everything. He is not at all aggressive but is ready for polemic. His appearance and his manner show that he is a person who controls the situation and who has his own opinion and can prove that his opinion is right. He is confident that his point of view is the best for his people, his government and his country. All his personality and his distinct speech style, with various

strategies and tactics, and the prevalence of falling tones shows confidence, and everything is pronounced with a rather high tempo. We have an impression that we are seeing a Prime Minister who will keep the whole situation under control whatever happens.

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Name-Precedents in Political Discourse

Tatiana Khlopova
Amur State University

Abstract

Name-precedents are known to be one of the most complex signs possessing cultural information stored through the centuries. The study of such catchy names helps us to understand American culture and its people. Attention is paid to cognitive aspects of name-precedents' semantics, to their functioning and top their actualization in political discourse.

Keywords: *precedential phenomena, name-precedent, situation-precedent, political discourse*

Introduction

This paper is concerned with precedential phenomena in political discourse. The aim of the paper is to consider how name-precedents work in the speeches of major political leaders. At first, the author gives a definition of the term "precedential phenomena", and then the article focuses on the name-precedent **Uncle Tom** and its ability to satisfy the main function of political discourse: to persuade and emotionally influence the audience.

Precedential phenomena are stable units of discourse, they are widely understood in a particular national linguo-cultural community and frequently used by the members of the community in the process of communication. The cognitive aspects of the semantics of these phenomena influence their functioning, the way they are stored in the mind and their actualization in discourse. So, precedential phenomena have a great number of formal, informative and associative features. They are always expressive, symbolic and evaluative. Finally, precedential phenomena are considered to be one of the most complex signs possessing cultural information stored through the centuries (Gudkov, 2003).

Let us examine how this definition works with the help of the word **Watergate**. The Watergate scandal is a well-known historical event that put the American political world in shock. It occurred in the United States in the 1970s as a result of a June 1972 break-in at the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate office complex in Washington, D.C. The scandal eventually led to the resignation of Richard Nixon as President of the United States, on August 9, 1974.

So, when people hear the word **Watergate** they may think of different associations, such as: political scandal; Watergate Hotel; President Nixon; resignation; trial, etc. All these associations cast a negative shadow on the word, as they create the image of a bad guy with a bad reputation. Frequent usage of this word in political speeches shows that this phenomenon has strongly entered American history and become a perfect tool for politicians to draw their audience's attention to facts they find important and worth mentioning.

Let us support these claims with examples taken from speeches:

§ 41 *- We were sure that ours was a nation of the ballot, not the bullet, until the murders of John Kennedy and Robert Kennedy and Martin Luther King, Jr. We were taught that our armies were always invincible and our causes were always just, only to suffer the agony of Vietnam. We respected the Presidency as a place of honor until the* ***shock of Watergate*** (Carter, July, 1979).

This extract reveals the shocking effect of **Watergate**. Honesty stands against dishonesty because of **Watergate**.

In the next example **Watergate** is compared with wars.

§ 12 *- As we bind up the internal* ***wounds of Watergate****, more painful and more poisonous than those of foreign wars, let us restore the golden rule to our political process, and let brotherly love purge our hearts of suspicion and of hate* (Ford, August 1974).

As we observe from this example, **Watergate** is considered even more painful, more disastrous and more disgusting than any war.

In the last example, the word **Watergate** is used to portray a person.

§ 6 *- And a special salute to President Jimmy Carter. President Carter* ***restored honor to the White House after Watergate*** (Jackson, July 1988).

Through the use of the single word **Watergate** the speaker manages to characterize Jimmy Carter as an honest and trustworthy person. The precedential phenomenon **Watergate** is very informative in this passage.

So, we may admit that the word **Watergate** functions as a precedential phenomenon because it is widely used in political speeches, it has different associations and it contains evaluation, negative in this case.

It must be noted that researchers subdivide precedential phenomena into four groups: text-precedents, name-precedents, phrase-precedents and situation-precedents (Gudkov, 2003).

The word **Watergate** serves as a situation-precedent which took place in American history. Its participants, consequences and evaluation are house in the consciousness of the American people and are well understood by them. Situation-precedents are non-verbal phenomena because they belong to cognition. They can be activated in speeches through name- or phrase-precedents. The situation of the Watergate scandal is activated through the name-precedent **Watergate**.

Name-precedents are the most frequently used signs in political discourse. They are mass oriented. Their usage is not aimed at creating new images, but at referring to well-known ones and recognising them in the process of communication.

Any name-precedent has a lot of controversial characteristics. While creating a speech a speaker can imply one or several characteristics to communicate his or her ideas to the audience.

The origin of name-precedents and cognitive aspects of their semantics influence their functioning in speech:

1. They can name an object, as proper names do, but with an obligatory reference to the text or situation they are derived from.
2. They can be used to implicitly characterize an object. In this case an utterance sounds emotional and highly evaluative.
3. They can be used as symbols appealing to the text or situation precedent (Krasnykh, 1998).

Let us examine the usage of the name-precedent **Uncle Tom** in the functions mentioned above, taking Malcolm X and his speeches as source material.

As the reference literature puts it, **Uncle Tom**:

1. - is a pejorative for an African American who is perceived by others as behaving in a subservient manner to White American authority figures, or as seeking ingratiation with them by way of unnecessary accommodation;
- the term *Uncle Tom* comes from the title character of Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, although there is debate over whether the character himself is deserving of the pejorative attributed to him;

- it is commonly used to describe black people whose political views or allegiances are considered by their critics as detrimental to blacks as a group ("Uncle Tom", *Nationmaster*).

2. - a black man who will do anything to stay in good standing with "the white man" including betray his own people ("Uncle Tom", *Urban*).
3. - n. Offensive. A Black person who is regarded as being humiliatingly subservient or deferential to white people. (After Uncle Tom, a character in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a novel by Harriet Beecher Stowe) ("Uncle Tom", *American*).

Having analyzed the speeches produced by Malcolm X in the 1960s, we have come across a unique tendency. He insistently appeals to the name-precedent **Uncle Tom** while talking to his audience. For instance, in his famous speech "**Message to Grassroots**" he mentions this name 14 times. Each time the name has a different meaning and nuance. Let us study some paragraphs of the speech "**Message to Grassroots**" made on October 10, 1963:

§ 29 - *The slavemaster took **Tom** and dressed him well, and fed him well, and even gave him a little education – a little education; gave him a long coat and a top hat and made all the other slaves look up to him. Then he used **Tom** to control them. The same strategy that was used in those days is used today, by the same **white man**. He takes a Negro, a so-called Negro, and make* [sic] *him prominent, build* [sic] *him up, publicize* [sic] *him, make* [sic] *him a celebrity. And then he becomes a spokesman for Negroes – and a Negro leader.*

In the example given above, the name-precedent **Tom** is multifunctional. On the one hand it is used explicitly. In the first part of the extract the speaker retells part of the novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. But if we go on reading this paragraph we discover some implications there. The second part of the paragraph contains an obvious comparison. Malcolm X compares the White Man to America in general, and Tom to Martin Luther King. It is well-known that, in fighting against discrimination, Malcolm X had quite different views from those of M. L. King on the way to get equal rights. He was thirsty for struggle and fighting.

If we look at the next extract we will observe another use of the same name-precedent:

§ 25 *- Just as the slavemaster of that day used **Tom**, the house Negro, to keep the field Negroes in check, the same old slavemaster today has Negroes who are nothing but modern **Uncle Toms**, 20th century **Uncle Toms**, to keep you and me in check, keep us under control, keep us passive and peaceful and nonviolent. That's **Tom** making you nonviolent. It's like when you go to the dentist, and the man's going to take your tooth. You're going to fight him when he starts pulling. So he squirts some stuff in your jaw called novocaine, to make you think they're not doing anything to you. So you sit there and 'cause you've got all of that novocaine in your jaw, you suffer peacefully. Blood running all down your jaw, and you don't know what's happening. 'Cause someone has taught you to suffer - peacefully.*

In this example the name precedent is used implicitly. It creates the image of the Afro - American generation of the 20th century. The generation of so-called modern **Uncle Toms** who can passively turn the other cheek in spite of struggling and fighting.

Now let us concentrate on the next example:

§ 14 - *The Chinese Revolution – they wanted land. They threw the British out, along with the **Uncle Tom Chinese**. Yeah, they did. They set a good example. When I was in prison, I read an article – don't be shocked when I say I was in prison. You're still in prison. That's what America means: prison. When I was in prison, I read an article in* Life *magazine showing a little Chinese girl, nine years old; her father was on his hands and knees and she was pulling the trigger 'cause he was an **Uncle Tom Chinaman**, When they had the revolution over there, they took a whole generation of **Uncle Toms** – just wiped them out. And within ten years that little girl become* [sic] *a full-grown woman. No more **Toms in China**. And today it's one of the toughest, roughest, most feared countries on this earth – by the white man. 'Cause there are **no Uncle Toms** over there.*

In this example, the name precedent **Uncle Tom** functions as a symbol of personal characteristics such as submission, obedience and passivity. The actualization of the name-precedent in this way inspires the idea that all people are created equal, with the same set of merits and demerits; and that only strong-willed nations are able to get rid of complexes and start fighting for justice.

Conclusion

We conclude that name-precedents benefit political speeches a lot. They make them sound more effective and emotional. Name-precedents can both save us time and make the speech more informative, effective and impressive. They can say a lot by saying a little.

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The Transformation of the Epistolary Novel in Contemporary Literature

Irina Kovalenko
Blagoveschensk State Pedagogical University, Russia

Abstract

The epistolary novel – a novel in the form of correspondence – represents a kind of macrotext composed of microtexts, individual letters. The genre emerged in 18th century in England and its creator is considered to be Samuel Richardson with his *Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded* and *Clarissa, or the History of a Young Lady*. After delineating the features of a canonical epistolary novel, this paper dwells on a variety of forms and means employed by contemporary authors who challenge Samuel Richardson's dominance of the genre. Among these forms are electronic mail and LiveJournal entries. As well as a different structure, use of language, degree of the authorial presence, these forms generate a totally new outline for an epistolary novel determined by a style of discourse inherent in society.

Keywords: *epistolary novel, letter, correspondence, model of narration, electronic mail*

Introduction

The genre of the epistolary novel was widely used in the eighteenth century. The epistolary novel represents a novel in the form of correspondence, which exists as a macrotext composed of microtexts, individual letters. The uniqueness of the genre lies in the fact that homogeneous microtexts organically form part in a macrotext, realizing a narrative function in the development of a prevailing subject. Additionally, thanks to the successive combination of individual microtexts, the novel gains a mark of artistic integrity. The novel-in-letters form gives an opportunity to know the inner world of its heroes and to see the surrounding reality as if from within. In the course of the history of literature, with the onset of Romanticism, the epistolary novel gradually lost its significance. However, at the end of the twentieth century, thanks to the World Wide Web, which linked the world in a unified information space, the epistolary genre and novels in letters took on a new form. The objective of this paper is to examine the ways the epistolary novel has been updated under new conditions, comparing its classical and modern versions.

The Epistolary Novel in the Past and Present

The peak of popularity of the epistolary genre came during the Enlightenment, though its first examples appeared in European literature of the seventeenth century (*The Portuguese Letters* by Gabriel Joseph Guilleragues, and others), but the epistolary form was used as far back as Ancient Greece in verse epistles of philosophical or moral character. The epistolary genre became predominant for a number of reasons. The first is credibility, it being at the time synonymous with truth; this led to restructuring of narrative style. Authors strove to convince readers that their books are an authentic, almost documentary record of events, and the epistolary novel served a convenient form for the communication of authenticity.

The second reason for the epistolary novel's popularity in the Age of the Enlightenment is the significance of the emotional sphere, as in the opinion of Enlightenment thinkers, reason is based on sensory perception of the world. It is as though the part and the whole trade places: if the world previously included humanity in itself, humanity now included the world in itself. This shift of emphasis allows for a change of worldview, in which the confined space of home expands to the size of the universe, and all the remaining open worlds are included in this interior, confined world. It is not by accident that Samuel Richardson quotes the words of Juvenal in his novel *Clarissa, or the History of a Young Lady*: "If you want to understand the morals of the human race, a single home is more than enough" (translated by the author of this paper). The formation of the epistolary novel genre is naturally connected with the origins of the psychological novel, which investigates the inner world of its heroes.

The novel in letter form gave readers an opportunity to "look" into a person's emotional sphere, and it allowed writers to present a moral lesson in an entertaining form. Furthermore, the nature of the epistolary novel exemplified "a natural man", who appeared in the culture of the time as a positive hero. Richardson's Pamela, a model of "natural" virtues, can serve as an example.

It is Richardson who is considered, essentially, the creator of the kind of epistolary novel which over time became the canon of the genre. The narrative model he uses in *Pamela* and *Clarissa* influenced all subsequent works written in the epistolary genre, one way or another, including novels of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. Modern epistolary novels, as a rule, appear as electronic correspondence, which comes about via email, internet chats, or instant messages. Examples would be Meg Cabot's novels from the series "The Boy" (*The Boy Next Door*, *Boy Meets Girl*, *Every Boy's Got One*) and Cecelia Ahern's "Love, Rosie" (*Where Rainbows End*). The Joanne Harris novel *Blueeyedboy* represents a different form, that of an online publication run by the primary hero, a blogger who goes by the nickname "blueeyedboy".

We will trace how this model of narration is realized in Richardson's novel *Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded* compared with Meg Cabot's novel, *Every Boy's Got One*. In the first volume of *Pamela,* eight people participate in the correspondence; in the second there are ten; additionally, the central figure, exchanging letters with practically all the participants, appears as the primary heroine, who relates the story. The total number of letters in the first volume is 38, while in the second there are 71. With Pamela's parents appearing as the principal addressees in the first volume (55.3% of the total number of letters), the reader learns of the existence of other correspondents' letters by epistolary insertions in the letters of the primary heroine. Richardson removed the author's personality from the novel as much as possible, leaving himself the role of publisher of the letters: in the first publication the name of the author did not even appear on the title page. The novel begins with a preface in which Richardson renounces his authorship, trying to convince the readers of the authenticity of the events and protagonists; he also contributes an explanatory afterword at the end of the book. We should note that first person narration without indication of authorship is typical for the Enlightenment, when substantial value was placed on the plausibility of events related in the story.

In contrast to *Pamela*, which is based solely on the letters of the primary heroine, Cabot's novel winds through three parallel lines of correspondence. The central correspondence takes place between Jane Harris and Cal Langdon. Although the number of letters between these two totals 43 (as a comparison, the correspondence line between Jane and her friend Holly Caputo numbers 86), the conflict between them essentially drives the plot of the novel. Jane, like Pamela, corresponds with her mother, though this line would seem less meaningful considering the quantity of letters it includes (7.7%). The total number of correspondents in the novel is 19, with around 180 letters. Here the letter, as the basic structural unit of epistolary prose, is additionally complimented by multiple supplemental elements: journal entries, publications in web journals, checks, menus, plane tickets, etc. These elements carry important semantic connotations, indicating the location of the protagonists and their tastes and habits, and allowing the reader to

track the twists of the plot. As far as the author's personality is concerned, it is completely eliminated from the modern novel.

Comparative quantitative analysis reveals the first peculiarity of the modern epistolary novel: a more complex model of narration, not limited to the correspondence of primary protagonists, and including a significant number of secondary characters, who introduce various points of view as to what is going on.

Even a cursory glance at the volume of the letters in Richardson and Cabot's novels makes it evident that the letters in the traditional epistolary novel are distinguished by their length and high degree of detail, whereas in the modern novel, reticence is prevalent, with letters frequently limited to a single phrase. In Cabot's novel, this type of letter makes up around a quarter of all correspondence. It is fair to say that in the modern novel letters from representatives of the older generation (mothers in particular) are characterized by substantial length, as compared with the letters of younger people.

Now let us analyze the structure of the letters. As is generally known, letters consist of three parts: the opening, the body, and the closing. The opening elements include the salutation and greeting, indicating the time and date of the letter. The predominant salutation used by Richardson is the word *dear* or *dearest* in addition to the name of the addressee, which, independent from the letter's style, has a meaning of sweetness or respect. Thus, in her message home, Pamela uses the salutation *Dear Father and Mother,* in which the capitalization of the words *Father* and *Mother* is indicative of her deferential attitude toward her parents. In the modern novel the salutation typically appears as a name, sometimes in derivative form (*Jane* becomes *Janie*) or a word expressing a particular disposition toward the addressee (*sweetie, honey*, etc.). However, in replicating instant messaging, the modern epistolary novel loses this element of the opening, and the letter begins directly with the body. Additionally, typical of an electronic letter is an opening in which there is a subject for the communication and the mailbox address. Of particular interest is the subject, which announces the theme of the letter's body and often serves as its substitute for it, for example:

Subject: Where are you?
?????????????????? (Cabot, 2005)

It is worth noting that the mailbox address appears as an additional source of information, for example:

To: Mary Langdon
From: Cal Langdon
Subject: You (Cabot, 2005)

As is apparent in the example, Cal Langdon presents himself as an employee of *The New York Journal*, but his sister Mary maintains an unsettled way of life, constantly changing her address, which is confirmed by the fact of her registration on the network of an internet cafe. Such an element of character introduction is exclusive to novels of the twentieth century. Of course, the address in the eighteenth century was indicated on the envelope, though it did not appear in the text of the novel. As for who is presented as the sender and recipient of each letter, the reader finds out from the greeting and the signature.

Regarding the indication of a letter's time and date, this element of the opening is for Richardson present only in diary entries, for example: *Wednesday, nearing evening; Sunday, the fourth day of my happiness*. If by chance the heroine writes several entries during a day, a concrete time appears, for example: *Monday, 3 o'clock in the afternoon.* Such dating allows the reader to track the development of conflict and the emotional state of the protagonists. In the modern epistolary novel, this element of the opening is completely absent. It is well-known that a real electronic message bears an exact indicator of the time (date, month, year, hour, and minute), though novel authors omit this.

The body of the letter represents the essence of the message and a central element of its structure. In the canonical novel, for transition to the body and in its conclusion, clichéd phrases are used, such as: *I will assure you; I will continue my letter; Pray for me; I must leave off now.* This sort of phrases can explain the motives for writing, express a reaction to the addressee's letter, yield an apology for silence, and so on, for example: *I know you longed to hear from me soon; and I send you as soon as I could* (Richardson, 1740: letter XVI). It should be emphasized that grandiloquent style, typical of Richardson's prose, reflects not only spoken etiquette, but also the general epistolary style of the time; as is generally known, the *Pamela* novel project arose for Richardson during the time he was working on a letter-writing manual.

As for the letter body in the modern novel, with which, omitting the opening, the letter frequently begins, the use of a stereotypical phrase is not typical. It is not uncommon for a letter to begin with the reaction of the sender to the letter received, for example: *Is that any way to speak to your mother, I would like*

to know? (Cabot, 2005) Thus Mark's mother, offended by her son's harsh message, begins her response letter with a rhetorical question, bypassing introductory phrases and forms of address.

A letter's body is characterized by the presence of transitions, auxiliary words conveying a variety of relationships between components of the text. Transitions permit the introduction of a new segment of the letter, a passing from one idea to the next, and a summary of prior text (Zhukova, 2009). The analysis of the texts in Richardson and Cabot's novels, regardless of the difference in era and style, exposes a broad use of transitions by both authors, among which two groups are distinguished by their frequency. The first one introduces supplemental information (*and, still, by the way, at the same time, indeed,* etc.), while the second is concerned with the order of information placement in the structure of the letter (*now, then, first,* etc.). In the following example from Richardson's novel, three transitions are used: the linking transitions "*then"* and "*so"* emphasize the order of the action and carry supplementary information, while the generalizing transition "*and thus"* is used to summarize previous text: *Then rising from my knees, I went away with another-guise sort of heart than I came in to his presence with: and so I fell to writing this letter. And thus all is happily over* [3: letter XVI].

After the letter's body comes its closing. Typical of the classical epistolary novel is the arrangement of stereotypical formulae asserting friendship, respect or love placed before the signature, for example: *I have only to say, that I am, and will always be, Your honest as well as dutiful DAUGHTER* (Richardson, 1740: letter IV). In the modern novel, formulae of this type are more limited, with phrases such as *Affectionately,* and *Love,* for example: *Love to you both* (Cabot, 2005).

When it comes to the postscript, a similarity is apparent between the modern and classical epistolary novels. It is worth mentioning that in Richardson, such an addendum to complete the letter practically never includes the Latin abbreviation *PS*, though post-scripts are encountered often enough: in 29% of the total number of letters in the first volume (including the epistolary insertions and Pamela's diary entries). We will cite an example: *Your loving FATHER AND MOTHER. Be sure don't let people's telling you, you are pretty, puff you up; for you did not make yourself, and so can have no praise due to you for it. It is virtue and goodness only, that make the true beauty. Remember that, Pamela* (Richardson, 1740: letter VIII). In this context, Pamela's parents persistently ask her to remember her virtues, and the fact that the request is carried in postscripts is evidence of their serious concern for their daughter's fate. A fragment from Cabot's novel, too, shows the postscript of the letter from the heroine's mother: *P.S. Love to The Dude! P.P.S. What is Mark's friend like? Is he nice? I'm sure he must be, if he's a friend of Mark's!* (Cabot, 2005). As is evidenced in these example, the protagonists in modern novel at times make use of several postscripts, stating in them their most crucial thoughts at the time. Thus, in this post-postscript, Jane's mother hints that her unmarried daughter should take a close look at Mark's friend.

In the classical epistolary novel, the correspondence appears as a pattern of dialogue between the main heroine and her parents. In the modern novel, dialogue transforms into polylogue, taking on a multi-subject disposition. In both instances, the letters, being replicas of dialogue, imitate conversational speech. The narrative is from a first person perspective, but the impression of dialogue is achieved with the help of second person pronoun usage, elliptical sentences, exclamation, repetition, etc., for example: *And thus, my dearest, dearest parents, is your happy, happy, thrice happy Pamela, at last married; and to whom? – Why to her beloved, gracious master! The lord of her wishes!* (Richardson, 1740: letter XVI). An abundance of descriptive definitions, the use of repetition (*dearest, dear; happy, happy, thrice happy*), reinforced in the second instance by the adverb *thrice*, in conjunction with figurative syntax, replicates expressive oral-conversational speech. These examples typify the specificity of language in psychological prose that was Richardson's contribution to the art of the novel.

Relying on Richardson's experience, modern authors of the epistolary novel follow his path and try to fully imitate conversational speech. We will observe how this is realized in Cabot's novel. With as much as 98% of the text composed of informal letters, the author attempts to create an illusion of discourse in real time, interlinking a wide ranging arsenal of lexical, syntactical, and graphical devices. First, there is punctuation: exclamation and interrogation marks, ellipses, dashes, and others. Along with the function of text division, punctuation marks fulfill the function of expressing an emotional reaction, for example: *HIS WHAT?????????????* (Cabot, 2005). Multiple question marks in conjunction with capitalized words convey the degree of the heroine's amazement in reaction to stunning news. In some cases, exclamation and question marks used without text alerts the reader to the correspondent's attitude toward what she has read. In these cases this is not only repetition, but also singular usage of punctuation marks fulfills an expressive function, for example: *He's never heard of Wondercat. Never. Heard. Of. Wonder. Cat*. (Cabot, 2005). The heroine

refuses to believe that Wondercat, a character of her creation, popular throughout the world, might be uninteresting to someone. We encounter one more curious example of punctuation usage in the diary entries: writing down her impressions after a long flight, the heroine falls asleep mid-sentence, which is understood through a succession of dashes.

Commonly used graphical devices in the modern epistolary novel include capitalization (He was TOTALLY rude about it), italics (I'm in coach. In *a middle seat*. For a *seven-hour flight*), underscoring (Wait – you didn't change your minds, did you? About getting married), hyphens (Mister Nothing-Comes-Between-Me-And-My-Blackberry), optional quotation marks (I guess his mother left to "find herself" when he was still in high school) and others. These devices take on an expressively emphatic and emotionally evaluative connotation. In all fairness, we should note that instances of emphatic italic utilization and capitalization do occur in Richardson, but they are much rarer. Modern authors exploit these and other devices to the fullest extent. Thus, Cabot experiments with variations of font size, underscoring, and strike-through as well, none of which was possible in Richardson's era for technical reasons. Similarly, at the beginning of the novel the heroine's internet correspondence breaks off when the airline captain requests passengers to turn off electronic devices, which is set off in the text in bold capital letters. The friends continue to communicate after this by means of written notes, which are presented with different font variations. The author plays with font size in a number of contexts. For example, while the protagonists are waiting for their turn at the consulate with ticket No. 92, Jane says, *Oooooh, they're calling a number. 92, 92, let it be 92!!!!! 28? 28?????* (Cabot, 2005). The repetition of the number 28, accentuated by a disproportionate font size, creates an effect of gradation. In addition, enhanced by the repeated use of the letter "o" and exclamation marks, this allows us to imagine the emotional state of the heroine.

As for lexical devices, they differ qualitatively and quantitatively in the modern epistolary novel when compared with the classical. If Richardson's text is characterized by metaphorical style and highly frequent usage of a grandiloquent lexicon, Cabot's novel simulates friendly conversation with its characteristic everyday and emotionally evaluative lexicon, the utilization of interjections, parentheses and others. To crown it all, the text contains shortenings, abbreviations, and icons largely unique to internet discourse: XXXOOO (XXX = big kisses, OOO = big hugs), 4eva (forever), yay (an exclamation indicating approval, congratulation, or triumph), etc.

Conclusion

Thus, the epistolary novel genre, having flourishing in the eighteenth century, has undergone critical modifications in the twenty-first century, which have affected the model of correspondence, the structure and volume of letters, and the language and style of the narrative. The modern epistolary novel, based on electronic correspondence or blog posts, presents a complex model of correspondence involving a large number of correspondents when compared with the canonical. As a result, the traditional dialogue in letters transforms into a polylogue, by nature multi-subject. The structure of the modern novel is complicated by the use of diverse supplemental elements that provide various meanings; at the same time the letters become more reticent, often limiting themselves to one phrase. The structure of letters in the modern novel is less fixed, as instant messaging gives a chance to omit the opening and the closing parts; typical of electronic letters is the presence of the mailbox's address and the subject of the communication in the opening. With regard to language and style, modern authors aspire to create the illusion of a natural discourse in real time, for which they utilize punctuation, capitalization, italics, underscoring, optional quotation marks and others. These devices take on an expressively emphatic and emotionally evaluative connotation. Moreover, modern authors experiment with variations and sizes of font, bold letters, inscriptions, strike outs, font style and other options offered by text editors. When compared with classical novels, the lexical composition of the modern epistolary novels differs in the presence of its everyday and emotionally evaluative lexicon, interjections, and other units, peculiar to internet discourse. In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the epistolary novel naturally reflects the spirit and style of discourse inherent in society.

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Precedent Names in Constructing the Image of the US in the Discourse of *The Independent*

Nataliya Kozhina
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Abstract

This paper explores the usage of precedent names-anthroponyms (PNA) in British media discourse. With such a goal in mind, the author will demonstrate the meaning, role and functions of PNAs used by the British newspaper *The Independent* to construct an image of the US.

Key words: *media discourse, intertextuality, precedent phenomena, precedent name-anthroponym*

Introduction

As a barometer of social change, media discourse plays a key role in the proliferation of social and political ideas. Following T. G. Dobrosklonskaya (2008), we define media discourse as a complex of speech processes and products in the sphere of mass communication in all the variety and complexity of their interaction.

One of the main features of any discourse in general and media discourse in particular is intertextuality. This term was coined by the linguist J. Kristeva in the 1960s. It "signifies the multiple ways in which any one literary text is inseparably inter-involved with other texts" (Abrams, 1993, p. 285). As J. Kristeva states "any text is in fact an 'intertext', that is the site of an intersection of numberless other texts, including those which will be written in the future" (Qtd. In Abrams, 1993, p. 285).

Intertextuality manifests itself through a number of characteristics among which precedent phenomena deserve special attention. According to D. B. Goudkov, V. V. Krasnykh, I. V. Zakharenko and D. V. Bagayeva (1997), precedent phenomena are "stable units of discourse, well-known in a certain national linguacultural community and frequently used by the members of the given community in the process of communication. They are considered to be complex cultural signs transmitting information over centuries" (p. 106). All precedent phenomena, the researchers suggest, should be divided into four groups: precedent names, precedent utterances, precedent texts and precedent situations.

The aim of the present paper is to analyze precedent names functioning in *The Independent*'s discourse. According to D. B. Goudkov (1999), precedent names belong to the nuclear part of language means; they express and store cultural information. As E. A. Nakhimova (2007) states, precedent names are well-known proper names used not only to identify a particular person (situation, city, organization) but also as cultural signs, symbols of certain qualities, events and lives.

Precedent names can fulfill various functions. Generally linguists identify from three to ten functions of precedent names according to the aims of their research. Our approach is based upon understanding precedent names as an important part of national culture in its historical development, closely connected with national values and traditions. As well as being a tool of national "cultural memory" transmission from one generation to another, the system of precedent names, at the same time, seems to be an instrument of national consolidation around traditional values and ideals. So precedent names often appear as national moral

standards, fixing a national assessment of reality. Taking the foregoing into consideration and guided by V. N. Bazylev's classification (2005), we will explore axiological, ideological and consolidating functions of precedent names in this study. Special attention will be paid to the role of precedent names-anthroponyms (PNAs) in constructing an image of the US in the discourse of *The Independent*.

Our research material includes two sets of articles from *The Independent* covering US foreign policy in November 2000 (23 articles) and November 2011 (25 articles). The research question examined changes in the image of the US in the course of time. We collected data mainly from articles of an analytical nature (leading articles, editorials, commentaries and opinion columns). News articles were not taken into consideration because they have a tendency to be more informative than evaluative and usually use precedent names in their nominative function, which is not relevant to our research.

First, we looked over the November 2000 articles and analyzed several PNA parameters – frequency of usage, functions performed in our discourse and contribution of mentioned PNAs to the image of the US. The first tool is the frequency index which shows how often a certain names are used as PNAs in our excerpts. This parameter seems to be very important because it demonstrates the significance of a particular political figure's performance in a country's life and, therefore, in creating a national image.

November 2000 – Frequency Index

Precedent name-anthroponym (PNA)	**Frequency Index**
Clinton	15
Reagan	10
Carter	3
Bush Snr, Eisenhower, Lincoln, Jefferson, Goldwater, McCarthy, Disraeli, Gingrich, Thatcher	1

As we can see, the PNA *Clinton* is used most frequently in the material selected. This is quite understandable because although November 2000 was the time of the presidential contest between G. W. Bush and Al Gore, Clinton was still the US president. Clinton's presidency was both a period of great military and economic success for the US and the time of a juicy sexual scandal in the country's political life. The PNA *Reagan* also seems to be used rather often. This is because the "Reagan era" was infamous for its tax cuts which made the rich richer and the poor poorer.

Analyzing the functions performed by the PNAs *Clinton* and *Reagan* we can see them prevailing in axiological functions which, according to Bazylev (2005), denote the assessment of things, phenomena of the physical world, from the viewpoint of different values – moral, ethical, social, etc. Precedent names – anthroponyms – are used in this function in 64% of the examples from the November 2000 articles. For example:

1) Mr. Bush exudes the same *wide-boy aura* as ***Bill Clinton****,* though *without the intelligence* of the outgoing President (4.11.2000).

2) Bush wants to revive the tax cuts, and *rampant inequality*, of the ***Reagan era***. (5.11.2000)

Through the reference to the PNA *Clinton* in the first example, we can see Mr. Bush Jr. as a person with an ambiguous reputation and an obvious lack of intellect. Example number two refers to the unjust tax reforms of Reagan's time which were passed for the benefit of big business interests and shows Bush as a successor to it. So we can see the prosperous Unites States recently shaken by Clinton's sexual affair at a time of presidential elections. One possible candidate for the presidency G. W. Bush does not look very attractive as a person and he certainly defends the interests of the rich elite.

The next function under study is the ideological one. This denotes the reflection of social reality in the interests of certain classes, groups or communities; it forms the ideology of political systems which dominates in the community and supports current political actions by using high-value priorities (Bazylev, 2005). In the research material from November 2000, precedent names-anthroponyms are used with this function in 21% of the exemples. For instance:

3) Godfrey Hodgson: The call of a second ***Reagan*** …George W Bush promises it can be *'morning in America'* again**.** (5.11.2000)

The PNA *Reagan* is mentioned here to bring back memories of a very successful Reagan political campaign commercial named "Morning in America". It featured a montage of images of happy Americans

going to work and a calm, optimistic narration that suggested improvements to the US economy. So we see that Mr. Bush Jr. uses the reliable ideological method of nice promises to achieve his political goals.

4) Bush asks nothing of anybody. His entire philosophy is *to leave everyone alone*. …It is a message that a lot of people like - here, as well as in the States; "*We're doing fine, stop going on at us*!" In 1952 this message took ***Dwight D Eisenhower*** to the White House. (6.11.2000)

In this example, the reference to PNA *Dwight D Eisenhower* is intended to persuade the readers that everything is great in the US and nothing should be changed and so G. W. Bush should be elected president.

The consolidating function reflects people's consolidation and unity around the symbols of a political creed, the creation of a feeling of involvement in a value system shared by the members of a community (Bazylev, 2005). Precedent names-anthroponyms used in this function make up 15% of all PNAs in the November 2000 articles. Let us consider an example:

5) There are two views of how the new president - whoever he may be - will govern. The first is the optimistic scenario. Optimists believe that there will be a rallying round the flag, and that like ***Lincoln*** after *the Civil War***,** the new president *will reach out to the other party and try to bind up the nation's wounds* (18.11.2000).

Here, through the reference to the PNA *Lincoln*, we see that ideas of unity and national consolidation are still respected and valued in the country. Many people still believe in the possibility of a Cabinet full of both Democrats and Republicans in a kind of power-sharing arrangement.

Thus, regarding the image of the US in the articles from November 2000, we infer that the US remember and honours its past. The ideals of national unity and consolidation are still popular among the people (the reference to the PNA *Lincoln*). We see a prosperous and scandalous America in Clinton's era (the reference to the PNA *Clinton*). The country is on the threshold of the G. W. Bush - Al Gore presidential campaigns. The potential president Mr. Bush Jr. is a person of doubtful reputation and intelligence (the reference to the PNA *Clinton)*. However, Bush promises "Morning in America" again, which means low taxes for the rich (the reference to the PNA *Reagan*) and almost no political and economic changes (the reference to the PNA *Eisenhower*).

To monitor the changes in the image of the US over time, we have articles from *The Independent* articles from November 2011.

November 2011 – Frequency Index

Precedent Name-Anthroponym (PNA)	**Frequency Index**
G. W. Bush	9
Obama	3
F. D. Roosevelt	3
Saddam Hussein	3
Clinton	2
Reagan, Carter, Bush Snr, Lincoln, O. bin Laden, Rice, Palin, Churchill, Truman	1

According to the articles from November 2011, the PNA *G. W. Bush* is mentioned nine times, which is three times as often as other PNAs are used. This fact can be easily explained. The USA in 2011 was involved in the world economic crisis. The crisis originated in this country and it was a result of the poor political and economic management. G. W. Bush, with his tax reform, seems to be one of the guilty parties, which is why his name is frequently mentioned as a PNA. In the following example of a PNA *Bush* used with an axiological function illustrates this idea:

6) Thanks in a large degree *to the tax cuts* ***of George W Bush****,* the state takes in only about 25 per cent of US GDP in tax, compared with more than 35 per cent in most European countries. If America were to close this gap, the problem of rising borrowing would melt away (23.11.2011).

One more example of PNA in an axiological function shows the declining popularity of the incumbent president, Obama, through a reference to the PNA *F. D. Roosevelt.* Obama won the presidential elections in 2008 and was supposed to solve national problems as F. D. Roosevelt did in his time, but it did not happen:

7) The year 2008 was supposed to be another new beginning – not just in terms of the colour of the victor's skin, but in the vista of change, youth and renewal that seemed to open up, despite the worst economic

crisis since the Great Depression that swept ***Franklin Delano Roosevelt*** into the Oval Office. But things didn't quite work out that way (6.11.2011).

It should be noted that 64% of all PNAs in the November 2011 articles fulfill an axiological function, which exactly coincides with the results of the November 2000 PNA analysis (also 64%). The predominance of PNAs used in the axiological function supports the idea of the great manipulative power of PNAs of this type. As they have high expressive and associative potential, and perform the role of key words in the discourse under study, they attract people's attention and affect them deeply.

The role of the ideological function in the November 2011 has obviously increased from the 2000 data – 32% of all PNAs compared with 21%. Let us consider the next example of the PNA *Hussein* used in the ideological function:

8) This demonisation of Iran at times seems to set the stage for a military attack on Iran by the US and Israel. The propaganda build-up is very similar to that directed against ***Saddam Hussein's*** *Iraq in 2002.* …Iran's nuclear programme is identified as a threat in much the same way as ***Saddam Hussein's*** *non-existent WMD***.** (27.11.2011)

The reference to the PNA *Hussein* shows clearly that the Iranian nuclear threat is a great deal exaggerated by the USA; the problem seems absolutely imaginary. In this case US policy towards Iran appears to be aggressive and unfair.

Interestingly, the PNAs used with a consolidating function make up only 4% of all PNAs in the November 2011 articles. The next example shows that the USA can break its promises if those promises contradict its geopolitical interests. Obama's famous call for solidarity with the Middle East was easily forgotten when Palestine joined one of the branches of UNESCO. The US immediately withdrew its funding from UNESCO.

9) ***Obama's*** actions…. certainly fly in the face of his infamous *"we'll extend a hand if you'll unclench a fist"* speeches that characterised his promises to open up a new chapter of dialogue with the Middle East just a few years ago. If any doubts remained they no longer linger (2.11.2011).

As we can see the image of the US in November 2011 is formed at the time of the world economic crisis which was worsening (reference to the PNA *G. W. Bush).* Obama's popularity was decreasing (reference to the PNA *Roosevelt*). The USA was creating hostility towards Iran in connection with the alleged nuclear threat from Iran (reference to the PNA *S. Hussein).* The USA could break its promises to promote peace in the Middle East to satisfy its geopolitical interests (reference to the PNA *Obama*).

Conclusions

To summarize, several observations can be made. First, precedent names-anthroponyms play an important role in creating the image of the US in the discourse of *The Independent*. The use of precedent names-anthroponyms demonstrates that certain personalities and the situations behind them have a major effect on constructing national consciousness, national picture of the world and national value system. Furthermore, the dominant function of precedent names-anthroponyms in *The Independent*'s discourse is axiological due to its strong emotional impact (64% in both time periods studied). The role of the ideological function grows over time: 21% in 2000 compared to 32% in 2011. This could be explained by the increasing role of ideology in periods of economic crisis. A fairly marked decrease in PNAs used in the consolidating function (15% in 2000 against 4% in 2011) may suggest that the simple idea of the survival and well-being of the nation in a time of crisis can be more powerful than such a universal value as solidarity among nations.

Finally, precedent names-anthroponyms appear to be a significant means of intertextuality. The recurrence of PNAs used in different functions creates a specific semantic pattern in the text and fixes stereotypical perception of a country via proper names. Every precedent name carries its own semantic message which describes the epoch and contributes to the national image. Some PNAs seem to have formed quite stable semantic content in media discourse (*Lincoln, Roosevelt, Eisenhower*), others are still building up their semantic and cultural image (*Bush, Obama*). The prevalence in our research of PNAs based on the names of statesmen can be explained by the character of the discourse under study, that is, political media discourse. In this discourse, the precedent names – anthroponyms emerge as peculiar cultural signs connecting different texts and epochs, and obviously contributing to national images.

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Family Conflicts Aggravated by Lies

Tamara Leontieva
Vladivostok State University of Economics, Russia

Abstract

This paper focuses on verbal and non-verbal indicators of lies and conflicts in the works of English and American authors. Conflict situations aggravated by lies and deception are analyzed from linguistic, extralinguistic and paralinguistic angles. The aim of studying conflict situations is to offer ways of escaping scandals within families and to work out strategies for creating a climate of peace and harmony in family relations.

Key words*: conflict situations, speech act, verbal markers, non-verbal means, cooperative principle of communication*

Introduction

Every culture creates conventions and tries to follow them. In English-speaking countries the cult of the family is strong but at the same time one can observe conflicts that are described in literature and appear on the pages of the "yellow" press, and even in reputable magazines. What are family conflicts caused by? Can they be avoided? What is the attitude towards family conflicts in different cultures? The aim of this publication is to see how lies within families destroy family relations and lead to different kinds of conflicts. It is also important to understand how two psychologically irrelevant strategies of behavior, conflict and lies, are combined in family quarrels and to follow the models of their combination in modern English and American literature. The material for this study is dialogues representing speech acts from literary works by Theodore Dreiser, John Boynton Priestley and Irwin Shaw. Speech acts from literary works were chosen for analysis because they represent situations close to real life and reflect the tendencies existing in society.

The leading method employed is that of cognitive research which involves gaining new knowledge concerning the language of people in conflict and their non-verbal behavior. As for working with linguistic material, a complex method of research is applied in this paper that combines linguistic and paralinguistic analysis of conflict speech acts made up of false utterances of different kinds. To do this, a step-by-step analysis is undertaken that involves a literary description of the speech acts, their linguistic and paralinguistic traits. This methodology expands the borders of understanding different linguistic and paralinguistic features of utterances and the formation of stereotypes of behavior under certain circumstances.

Family Conflicts as Speech Events

The notion of "conflict" interests representatives of different branches of knowledge who are guided by the noble goal of protecting the communication security of individuals as well as of society as a whole. According to O. S. Akhmanova (2007), in language communication, a dialogue is a form of speech in which every utterance is addressed to an interlocutor and is limited by the theme of the conversation. In connection with the principles of speech communication two distinct types of speech interaction can be pointed out: cooperation and confrontation, i.e. the interlocutors' opinions either coincide or demonstrate conflicting differences. These opposing types are reflected in two models of dialogue: cooperative and conflicting.

What is a conflict dialogue? Why does it arise? A conflict dialogue is a speech event (consisting of speech acts); it is studied within the theory of speech acts as part of linguistic pragmatics. Since a speech act is a kind of action, it is characterized by an aim, means, and results. To be a success the speech act must be relevant, otherwise the speaker faces a communicative failure.

In linguistics, the term "conflict" is studied as an expanded term "speech conflict", or even "conflict communicative act". It surveys the positions of the participants: the addresser and the addressee as well as contradictions between them. Speech conflict is the state of confrontation of the two sides in which process each side consciously and persistently acts with the aim of destroying the counterpart by explicit verbal and non-verbal means. It should be noted that the linguistic expression of conflict relations between the participants in the communicative act reflects certain pre-communication states of the two sides. So, a speech conflict develops in time, consequently, it has a beginning, development, culmination, and solution (Romanov, 1988). Speech conflict wholly meets the requirements of a speech act by its reciprocal exchange of utterances made by the principle of illocutionary compulsion. According to R. Jacobson (1985), the term "conflict communicative act" has the right to exist and its study takes into consideration its pragmatic nature including social roles, relations between the communicants and other factors. The entire picture of a conflict communicative act requires several approaches and some of them, cognitive, pragmatic, linguistic, and paralinguistic ones, are considered in this paper in the process of analyzing examples of speech acts from literary works.

The type of speech act is judged by its result. Communication may be of two types: effective and non-effective. The latter means that the illocutionary aim may be achieved by the speaker if the speaker's intention is to insult or offend the interlocutor, after which the communication may stop. This is a violation of the "cooperative principle" of communication (Grice, 1989).Misunderstanding between the communicants is aggravated by lies (Leontieva & Filippova, 2011).

D. Rowe (2010), a sharp observer of human nature, thinks that children start lying at a very early age because deceptions are viewed as an essential part of child-rearing. When a baby is persuaded to eat the porridge because it is very tasty and good for the child's health, the child starts realizing that this is not true. This is an example from the pre-communication stage of children's deceptions.

Parents lie to their children. Everything, good and bad, starts in the family, and D. Rowe is quite right to say that children follow the example of their parents when they produce false statements that lead to complete misunderstanding between the members of the family. To illustrate such a situation, let us study an example from T. Dreiser's novel *An American Tragedy* (1925). This novel is about the tragic fate of the Griffiths family, in which parents were not accustomed to sharing their troubles with their children thinking, that the children should be farther from the material and other difficulties of grownups. When their elder daughter Esta elopes with her young man and is abandoned by him the mother prefers to conceal this fact from the other children. She secretly visits her daughter in the outskirts of their native town, trying to help the daughter who is pregnant. But Clyde meets his sister in the street by accident and tells his mother about it. He expects his mother to be interested and ask questions about Esta but she remains unperturbed and behaves, to Clyde's surprise, as if it were no news to her at all. Here is Dreiser's text:

> "He expected his mother would be as astonished and puzzled as he was—quick and curious for details. Instead, *she appeared* to him *to be obviously confused* and *taken aback* by this information, as though she was hearing about something that she already knew and was *puzzled* as to just what her attitude should be.
>
> "Oh, did you? Where? Just now, you say? At Eleventh and Baltimore? Well, isn't that strange? I must speak to Asa about this. It's strange that she wouldn't come here if she is back." *Her eyes*, as he saw, instead of looking astonished, *looked puzzled*, *disturbed*. *Her mouth*, always the case when she felt a little embarrassed and disconcerted, *worked oddly*—not only the lips but the jaw itself.

"Well, well," she added, after a pause. "That is strange. Perhaps it was just someone who looked like her." (Dreiser, 1925: book 1, Ch. 13)

The mother conceals the real state of things from Clyde by resorting to verbosity (a number of counter questions), echo questions (At Eleventh and Baltimore?), a negative-interrogative construction (Well, isn't that strange?) that attaches affected astonishment and insincerity to her utterance. Mrs. Griffiths changes the theme of the conversation and mentions her husband. This manipulation is necessary for her to work out tactics for her future behavior, and eventually she decides to tell a lie (It's strange that she wouldn't come here if she's back). Besides, she is trying to suggest an idea that Clyde might have mistaken someone else for his sister (Perhaps it was just someone who looked like her).

Her confused speech is accompanied with non-verbal elements of a paralinguistic character, which are marked with italics for this paper. The son understands that his mother is baffled *(confused, taken aback)*. Her bewilderment is evident; her eyes betray her *(Her eyes looked puzzled, disturbed)*, though she tries to veil her real feelings with her hasty speech. Her deception changes her psychophysiological state, and her mouth begins to move in a strange way *(Her mouth worked oddly)*, which once more shows that she is lying.

The illocutionary aim of Clyde's speech act is not achieved because his aim was to find out the truth about his sister, but the conversation with his mother turns out to be a concealed confrontation. This speech act is not relevant, and as a result it ends in a communicative failure. Besides, the influence of the parents' falsehood on the children is so great that the offspring follow their example and start lying, too. The mother, a vulgar woman, uneducated and lacking manners, simply cannot work out the right tactics of behavior when she is with her children. In her wish to protect them from one misfortune she throws them into new ones.

Children lie to their parents. It is common knowledge that children may lie out of fear of painful circumstances, or in order to spare the parents' feelings. Here is an episode from the novel *Angel Pavement* (Priestley, 1974) presenting a tough conversation between a father to whom a sergeant tells the story of his son's peccadillos. The son has concealed the fact that he was involved in some dirty business. Mr. Smeeth comes to the garage where his son works and demands:

"Just clean yourself up and get your hat and coat on, George."

"What d'you mean, Dad? What's up? Anything wrong at home?"

"No, there isn't, but just do what I tell you."

"Well, I don't understand."

"Oh, come outside if you're going to argue about it," said Mr. Smeeth impatiently, and led the way out into the street. "It's the police court business. I've just heard all about it."

"Oh—I see," said George slowly.

"I'm glad you do see. I'd like to have seen a bit earlier," said his father bitterly. "Why didn't you tell me? Have to have a police sergeant telling me what's happening to my own son!"

"Well, you needn't go at me, Dad. I've done nothing, and they'll tell you I haven't." (Priestley, 1974, p. 353)

As we can observe, in this speech act George hides from his parents the truth about his being involved in the car theft business. Linguistically, the conflict is expressed with the help of a lot of negative structures in George's speech: "Oh, I didn't want to bother you about it. … And there was nothing to get excited about. I hadn't done anything. They weren't running me in, were they?" The author's remark after these words gives non-verbal information about the father's reaction, his psychological state at the moment: *"... said Mr. Smeeth impatiently*", *"It was incredible. Mr. Smeeth gave it up."* The author also resorts to the inner speech of this character to convey his *"horrified amazement"*: "Here was this boy of his, who had been playing with clockwork trains on the floor only the day before yesterday, so to speak, and now he could talk in this strain, as cool as you please, as if he were Sergeant Gailey or somebody" (p. 351). Fortunately, this deception, made out of sympathy and respect for his parents, does not lead to a failure of communication, as the father and the son eventually find an understanding. Yet, if we follow P. Ekman's view that concealing the truth is also a form of lie (Ekman, 2012), we realize that in future the family might have problems.

Children and parents lie to each other (mutual lies). The situation is really awful and unbearable when both parents and children lie to one another in the family. A struggle between characters takes place and as a result ideals are lost, human fates are broken, and love and attachment cease to exist. In the novel by the American author I. Shaw *Lucy Crown* (1989) we can observe a family the destiny of which takes an ugly, abnormal, and even inhuman, turn.

Here is an illustration of the dialogue between the mother (Lucy) and her son (Tony) in which both communicants conceal the real state of affairs from each other. Lucy feels much worse in this conversation,

because once she has started lying she cannot stop inventing ever new non-existing details which drive her into a corner. She has to switch the attention of her son from the "problem information zone" (Popchuk, 2006); to do this, she pretends not to care and invites the son to the hotel to have a drink with her and her lover. The horror of this situation is the fact that both of the communicants know that the other one is lying.

"Hullo, Tony", Lucy said. "Where have you been until now?"

"No place much," Tony said. He carefully avoided going close to his mother as he stepped on the porch….

"Did you have a good time at the movies?" Tony asked his mother. "What was playing?"

"I…I did not go", Lucy said. "I found out that they only showed them on week-ends".

"Oh", said Tony politely. "Where did you go?"

"I did a little shopping," Lucy said. "For antiques."

"Did you buy anything?" Tony asked.

"No," said Lucy. "Everything is too expensive. I just looked around. Jeff and I are going to the hotel for a drink. Do you want to join us? You can have a Coke."

"I'm not thirsty," Tony said.

"Even so," Lucy said.

"I'm not thirsty," Tony repeated.

Lucy came over to him and felt his forehead. "Are you all right?"

The boy twisted away. "I'm fine," he said. "I'm a little tired," he explained vaguely. (Shaw, 1989, pp.93-94)

The excerpt quoted from the dialogue contains a whole gamut of verbal deceit. Both speakers conceal the truth; the son knows that his mother is lying because he witnessed her making love with Jeff. To his questions "Did you have a good time at the movies?", "What was playing?" he receives first an evasive answer "I…I did not go", and then a deceitful one, "I found out that they only showed them on week-ends." His mother immediately conjures up false information about the antique shop which she allegedly visited. She resorts to verbosity about the way she was walking around the shop and enjoyed beautiful things, and how expensive those things were. But feeling that her son is behaving unnaturally she rapidly changes the topic of the conversation and her tactics. As for Tony, he confines himself to a slippery answer "No place much", which sounds ambiguous. I. Shaw uses such verbal means as negative clichés that hide the boy's fear of revealing himself as a witness to his mother's love affair. Rejecting his mother's invitation to drink Coke, he uses a common everyday phrase "I'm not thirsty." But on hearing the surprising utterance of his mother "Even so" which sounds somewhat hostile, he repeats his refusal and stresses every word to express his reluctance to go anywhere together with his mother. The author resorts to gradation which emphasizes the boy's psychological discomfort. This is realized in expanding the short, colloquial form "I'm (not thirsty)" by turning it into the formal "I am". Like his mother he changes his tactics of behavior and lies openly to his mother, "I'm fine", "I'm a little tired" though from the context one can understand his almost physical pain at this disgusting situation.

One should also pay attention to the behavioral signs of distorted truth given in the author's commentaries. Tony avoids looking at his mother and coming nearer to her (*"he carefully avoided going close to his mother"*), he answers her question reluctantly (*"answered vaguely"*), he is full of offense, despair and a wish to revenge his mother for breaking the family ideals he used to believe in. When he quickly turns away (*"twisting away"*) from his mother he expresses his contempt for her. The situation turns into a conflict and failure of communication.

The excerpt from the novel *Lucy Crown* reveals that children start lying only because their parents do so, and the spirit of suspicion and disbelief appears in such families. The members of the family live in an atmosphere of falsehood and they stop realizing that they deceive not others but, above all, themselves.

Conclusion

When dialogue acquires a conflictual character, the participants in the communication use the following tactics: negative means of stimulating the other person's speech, a series of questions, counter-questions, verbosity, domination of the conversation, aggressive intonation, and violation of the conventional rules for conducting a dialogue. As can be seen from these tactics, conflict interaction involves verbal and non-verbal means of leading the dialogue to failure.

Family situations of misunderstanding and scandal show that the participants in the dialogue cannot control their emotions. A conflict dialogue aggravated by lies is characterized by a swift growth of emotional

tension that immediately influences other participants in the communication who were far from being deceitful and aggressive at the beginning of the conversation.

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The Phenomenon of Intertextuality in the Novel The Magus by John Fowles

Elena Matvienko & Evgeniya Turintseva
Sholom-Aleichem Priamursky State University, Birobidjan, Russia

Abstract

This paper considers the general category of the study of intertextuality, analyzes quotations, allusions, and precedent names in fiction, and determines their role in the novel *The Magus* by John Fowles.

Keywords: *intertextuality, fiction, quotations, allusions, precedent names, translation*

The phenomenon of intertextuality is has not been discussed in linguistics until recently, because originally it was seen only as a category of literary studies. Meanwhile, the importance of specific types and forms of inclusion of another text is evident. Gradually, the phenomenon of intertextuality has attracted linguists' attention, especially those who are concerned with the problems of interpretation of text. The study of the national and cultural identity component of a literary text is one of the priorities of modern translation studies.

Intertextual theory has been developed by M. Bakhtin (1979), Yu. Kristeva (1995), M. Malakhovskaya (2002) and others.

The importance of studying intertextuality in the theory of intercultural communication and translation theory is quite obvious because an understanding of the nature of interaction between different cultures is impossible without studying their constituent intertexts. Besides, an analysis of the adequacy of the translation of a particular text is possible only on the basis of its intertextual analysis.

The purpose of this paper is to study intertextuality as a stylistic factor in fiction. In the course of the research we face the following task: to consider the use of quotations, allusions and precedent names in fiction and to determine their role.

The phenomenon of intertextuality may occur in texts of any functional style, but the most interesting and difficult task is to translate intertextuality in a literary text, because the use of intertextual style forming

inclusions is an important factor in fiction (Кристева, 1995, p. 219). This paper describes the result of an analysis of John Fowles's novel *The Magus* and its translation into Russian, made by B. Kuzminskiy.

According to research conducted by Julia Kristeva, intertext is defined as "the point of intersection of the different text planes, as the dialogue of different types of writing," and intertextuality as "textual interaction, which occurs within a single text" (Кристева, 1995, p. 237). Intertextuality is often the dominant semantic, structural and aesthetic feature of the text; it attracts the reader's attention. There are different inclusions such as quotations, reported speech, allusions, proverbs, aphorisms and precedent names.

The presence of the methods mentioned above means, when a text is translated, that you will definitely find some changes in the target text. Distortion and even omission of the intertextual information is inevitable.

The presence of intertextuality in the text often becomes a problem for the translator. Translators use adaptation which involves the use of different methods such as replacing intertextual inclusion with its functional equivalent, giving a comment on the text, omitting the intertextual element, and, also, they can use the method of exclusion, which means literal translation or literal translation with a footnote (Popova, 2005, p. 220).

Therefore, the translator's work when it includes of intertextuality involves searching for the "lesser evil", which means preserving the maximum information possible (Malakhovskaya, 2002, p. 65).

The loss of intertextual information happens unconsciously when a translator can not identify the relationship between a novel and a pretext. Thus, there are the following strategies in the translation of intertextual inclusions:

- the use of adaptation (the omission of an intertextual element, replacing an intertextual element with its functional equivalent, e.g. replacing German mythonyms with Slavic ones);
- the use of descriptive translation;
- the application of the method of exclusion, which means the restriction of intertextual information in a pretext due to the lack of an allusion to the source;
- using calque translation, transcription or transliteration (for proper names/precedent names).

Here are several examples of intertextual inclusion in the novel *Magus* by John Fowles. First, the use of allusions:

He had been parachuted into Greece during the German Occupation ... (Fowles, 1965, p. 54). – Он десантировался в оккупированную немцами Грецию… (Фаулз, 2001, p. 65).

The allusion to the "German Occupation" is translated into Russian with a change in the order of language units. We can also see adaptation here.

We can consider another example.

But I felt as gladly and expectantly disorientated, as happily and alertly alone, as Alice in Wonderland (Fowles, 1965, p. 85). – Благословенная, долгожданная неизвестность; счастливое, освежающее одиночество Алисы в Стране чудес (Фаулз, 2001, p. 82).

In this example, we cannot but notice the link with Lewis Carrol's *Alice in Wonderland*. This allusion is rendered by calque translation. The allusion is comparative in nature. The main character compares his state with the image of Alice, trapped in Wonderland.

The following example shows an allusion to Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*:

It was a Mercutio's death I was looking for, not a real one. A death to be remembered, not the true death of a true suicide, the death obliterate (Fowles, 1965, p. 256). – Я хотел не просто погибнуть, но погибнуть, как Меркуцио. Умереть, чтобы помнили; а истинную смерть, истинное самоубийство необходимо постигает забвение (Фаулз, 2001, p. 259).

The technique that is used here is transcription. In addition, the author gives a commentary, explaining which work this character appears in. We can see the following commentary: "The character of William Shakespeare's tragedy *Romeo and Juliet*. Before his death, Mercutio utters a curse 'Plague take your family both! Because of you I become food for the worms'" which predicts a tragic end."

Using precedent names is also a kind of intertextuality. Here are examples of the use of precedent names from *Magus*:

Lily. She had, yes, I suppose a Botticelli beauty, long fair hair, gray-violet eyes (Fowles, 1965, p. 112). – Такие лица, как у нее... да, они смотрят на нас с полотен Боттичелли: длинные светлые локоны, серо-синие глаза (Фаулз, 2001, p. 116).

The precedent name, Sandro Botticelli, a Florentine artist, has been transliterated. Botticelli canvases are expressive in style. The artist creates a sublime image of female beauty. So does Fowles; he gives Lily features of Botticelli's model. This image of the heroine is in the mind of Erfe, the protagonist of the novel.

Here is another example:

It was all peace, elements and void, golden air and mute blue distances, like a Claude (Fowles, 1965, p. 67). – Покой, первозданная стихия, пустота, золотой воздух, голубые, тихие дали, как на пейзажах Клода (Фаулз, 2001, p. 77).

The translator gives the following comment, "Jean-Claude Maxim (1823 - 1904) – French painter, seascapes" (Фаулз, 2001, p. 77), in order to preserve full information, which can not be expressed in the text. He uses the method of transcription rendering this precedent name.

There is also the following example:

... and then his whole appearance was foreign. He had a bizarre family resemblance to Picasso (Fowles, 1965, p. 77). – Он был до жути – будто близнец – похож на Пикассо (Фаулз, 2001, p. 87).

The precedent name is translated by means of transliteration. Konchis, one of the main characters, appears in the novel as a walking encyclopedia of the philosophical ideas of the 20th century. He is a recluse, a cynic and atheist philosopher and musician, he is "like a Picasso, who pretended Gandhi" – that is the way Nicholas Erfe sees him.

In the novel *Magus*, we can see a direct quotation of T. S. Eliot's poem:

"The first one I turned to marked a page where four lines had been underscored in red ink; from "Little Gidding".

We shall not cease from exploration
And the end of all our exploring
Will be to arrive where we started
And know the place for the first time (Fowles, 1965, p. 65).

«Одна из них отмечала страницу, на которой кто-то обвел красными чернилами четверостишие из поэмы «Литтл Гиддинг»:

Мы будем скитаться мыслью,
И в конце скитаний придем
Туда откуда мы вышли,
И увидим свой край впервые (Фаулз, 2001, p. 70).

In this example, the inclusion of a poem is a quotation itself. It stands out in the text and is recognizable, because the quote mentions the name of the cited work and the name of its author. The quotation from Eliot is a reference to the future rebirth of the main character of the novel. The translator gives a comment: "Fragment from Eliot's poem *Little Gidding*"(Фаулз, 2001, p. 70).

To sum it up, intertextuality is often not just an isolated phenomenon that can attract the attention of the reader, but it is one of the means of organizing the text, aesthetic and plot dominant. Intertextuality reflects the national and cultural traditions as evaluated and perceived in the light of historical events and people, works of art and literature. Intertextuality is a kind of "identification sign", where the author's opinion is reflected. Intertextual inclusions address an audience which has a different cultural and education background. It is very important to use inclusions, which can be easily recognized and understood by readers.

Intertextual inclusions in novel are used to give characteristics to the characters and to describe events in their lives. Intertextual inclusions form philosophical connotations of the text. These inclusions create a kind of intellectual game between the writer and the reader.

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Film Discourse in Training Socio-Cultural Competence

Tatyana Yugai & Marina Kovaleva
Vladivostok State University of Economics and Service, Russia

Abstract

This paper is dedicated to the application of film discourse as a new approach in teaching English as a Second language to the students of Foreign Language Institutes and Universities. The paper proposes a developed set of exercises and activities that a language instructor can use during the class, when working with an authentic video material. The article highlights the importance of developing students' socio-cultural competence.

Key words: *socio-cultural competence, intercultural competence, visual discourse, film discourse*

Nowadays, the developing of socio-cultural competence is one of the mostly publicized issues in the ESL methodology. Scientists, linguists, educators and teachers note that in the modern world of social development, when many countries are involved in the process of globalization, it is impossible to teach students foreign language, not taking into consideration the processes of development which the world community undergoes. It is very important to develop students' socio-cultural competence while teaching them ESL.

Russian linguists E. M. Vereshchagin, V. G. Kostomarov (1971), V. P. Furmanova (1994); V. V. Vorobiev (1996); Y. E. Prokhorov (1996); V. V. Safonova (1996), (2001), P. V. Sysoev (1999), S. G. Ter-Minasova (1998), (2000), G. V. Elizarova in their works emphasize the importance of social and cultural component for the development of students' cross-cultural world view, which in its turn will help them to determine their place in the multicultural diversity of the global world. The linguists, in their works on didactics, highlight a close relation between a foreign language study and a socio-cultural aspect. According to Sysoev (2009), "The growing interest to a foreign language's huge socializing and educational potential led to the emergence and rapid development of "multicultural language education" approach. Multicultural education plays an important role in the process of student's development, education and cultural self-determination" (p.96).

Thus, the educators and methodologists in their researches on the subject consider a linguistic intercultural competence to be the main issue in the process of teaching English to students as a second language. It is impossible to teach a foreign language to modern students without providing any social and cultural background about the country, people, traditions and customs, and the ongoing social phenomena.

Among a great variety of teaching materials and learning tools, which are available nowadays, in the arsenal of the modern teacher, we would like to draw attention to the use of authentic feature films that can contribute to the developing of socio-cultural competence and involve students to participate in various discussions on a problem stated.

The end of the last and the beginning of this centuries are characterized by an overwhelming and pervasive influence of visual mass media, such as television, movies, the Internet. The younger generation perceives visual information much better than any other. Films, mostly Hollywood film productions are a mass consumer product. They enjoy the highest popularity in the world. Ionin (2000) considers the movie to be "an important element of the international information order, that is, a set of processes of intercultural communication in the modern world that resulted to a propagation of liberal ideology on a global scale" (p.138). According to Soroka (2002), film occupies a special place among the elements of the information flow due to the nature of audio-visual impact it makes on the audience. She stated, "Getting intermarried with TV, video and other advanced information technologies, the movie has become a significant component of the

information flow and the part of the international information exchange process. Therefore, modern film discourse (like any work of art, film embodies the author's perception of reality, school, age) can be considered as a relevant (film production process is very short) reality perception. A lasting social dialogue can be interpreted and re interpreted within the following categories of perception such as time, space, past, future, freedom, law, allowed, encouraged, masculine, feminine, power, love, duty, gratitude, and so on" (p. 16).

Such Russian linguists as Zaretskaya (2010), Nazmutdinova (2008), Tsybin (2006), Ignatova (2007), Samkova (2011) in their works provided several definitions to the term "film discourse". These scholars interpreting the term "film discourse" unanimously stress the importance of both verbal and non-verbal means of expression. They also speak about the importance of extra linguistic factors. Zaretsky (2010) argues that "film discourse" is a coherent text, which is regarded as a verbal component of the movie, together with the non-verbal components such as film's audiovisual background and other extra linguistic factors which are important for understanding the film's idea.... (p. 8). According to Samkova (2011), extra linguistic factors depend on the cultural and historical background knowledge of a sender. Extra linguistic features include context-setting, time and place, and various nonverbal means: drawings, gestures, facial expressions, which are important for the creation and perception of a film. The use of authentic featured films during the class will help to develop students' social competence.

Kochukova (2014) remarks that the use of feature films not only helps to model the language situation and develop the student's speech competence, but in the light of new approaches to the study of foreign languages, it helps to understand foreign language culture, and, as a result, contributes to the creation of a harmoniously developed personality within the global interpersonal and cross-cultural space. (p.15)

This paper aims to demonstrate the use of authentic video discourse to develop both socio-cultural and linguistic-cultural competences teaching English to 3rd-4th year students of linguistic institutes.

Selecting and showing the film

The latest production *Midnight in Paris*, of a renowned Hollywood director, Woody Allen has been selected as an authentic movie to demonstrate the stated aim can be achieved. This film beautifully conveys the time of the early 20th century modernists (writers, play writers, artists, critics). The film shows the famous writers and artists who lived and worked in that time, such as Scott and Zelda Fitzgerald, Salvador Dali, Ernest Hemingway, Pablo Picasso, Gertrude Stein, and Degas. A very truthful historical context contributes to the development of the socio-cultural as well as linguistic competencies.

If a teacher plans to use a video fragment during the class work, the following viewing activities are to be observed: previewing activity, viewing activity and post viewing activity. The paper highlights how these activities can be used in class.

The plot of the movie is quite simple. Gil Pender, a successful but creatively unfulfilled Hollywood screenwriter, and his fiancée, Inez, are in Paris, vacationing with Inez's wealthy, conservative parents. Parisian atmosphere changes their lives. It drastically affects the life of the main film character. Gil Pender is a young writer who is deeply fascinated by Paris. He wishes he could live in it in the time of the early twenties. The artists, filmmakers, and writers of that time are his favorite characters. At midnight, he meets Dali, Beaunuel, Hemingway, Zelda and F. Scott Fitzgerald and other famous personalities on a deserted street in Paris. Gil finds himself completely soaked in the era of modernism. So every night, Gil having escaped from his fiancée, goes into the night to meet with his literary idols.

Previewing activity

Previewing stage of the film can be organized in the following way. Students might be given a questionnaire, previously developed by a teacher in order to encourage them to talk about the title, film director, actors and actresses, make prediction what it will be about.

After students responses have been received and discussed, a general information referring to the film director, his idea to show social, cultural and historic aspects of that time can be introduced. During the previewing stage, it is important to provide students with the preliminary information which might contribute not only to the general perception of the film, but also could help students to understand correctly movie episodes. This also needs to be done to increase the students' motivation to discuss the film. The information can be presented in different forms: recommendations, comments, web links, visual aids. The information may vary depending on the level of students and their age.

Viewing activity

It includes the viewing process itself. It is recommended to watch selected episodes in English to retrieve information: such as the name of characters, their description, names of famous places in Paris. A language teacher can discuss with students the film director's ideas, plot's patterns and the whole film in general. While viewing, the students are encouraged to perform a number of the assigned tasks: fill in the blanks, note the characters or arrange the episodes in order. These types of work help to accumulate student's visual and listening skills that contribute to maximum learning results. Students should be offered to view four film episodes 5-10 minutes long, where the main character travels to the 20s of the last century and meets the writers and artists of that time. These episodes are characterized by certain uniformity. Every time, when Gil goes out for his midnight street stroll in Paris, an old retro time mobile drives him away to the past, when the town clock strikes midnight.

One night, Gil gets drunk and becomes lost in the back streets of Paris. At midnight, 1920s Peugeot Type 176 car draws up beside him, and the passengers – dressed in 1920s clothing – urge him to join them. They go to a party for Jean Cocteau where Gil comes to realize that he has been transported back to the 1920s, an era he idolizes. He encounters Alice B. Toklas, Cole Porter, Josephine Baker, Zelda and F. Scott Fitzgerald, who take him to meet Ernest Hemingway. Hemingway agrees to show Gil's novel to Gertrude Stein, and Gil goes to fetch his manuscript from his hotel. However, as soon as he leaves, he finds he has returned to 2010 and the bar has disappeared. At this viewing stage, students get a list with some tasks that they need to do while watching. That list will help them later during the group discussion.

After students finish watching the first episode, which shows how Gil gets in the bohemian era of 20's, the analysis of the students' responses to the provided questions in the should be performed. This type of activity will not only determine how much students could be able to understand and perceive, but also will provide the grounds for a deeper interpretation of the main character, interpersonal relations, cultural and historical background. This activity is designed to enhance students' knowledge about the country, specifically the city of Paris and its main attractions, cultural differences. It also helps to see how students fully can understand the episode.

In one of his first night trips in Paris, the Fitzgeralds take Gill to a small French restaurant where he hears Ernest Hemingway speaks unflatteringly about Scott Fitzgerald's wife, Zelda, saying that Scott wastes his talent because of her. That movie scene can be used to encourage discussion and comments on the characters and their relations. A teacher can go further and ask the students to study the issue and the relations between the two writers (Scott Fitzgerald and Hemingway) and ask them to present their research for discussion.

While working with film discourse, a teacher should draw students' attention not only to the verbal means, but also consider the importance of non-verbal means of expression. Nonverbal discourse can also be variably applied for teaching a foreign language.

Throughout all his night trips in the past, Gil watches a bohemian life in Paris. Music, clothes, restaurants and cafes, cars, foxtrot and twist, songs by Cole Porter, performed by the author, all this beautifully recreates the spirit of the era. The work with non-verbal means of expression can be modeled on the work with verbal means. When re-watching one of the proposed episodes, students will have to pay attention and later analyze the extra linguistic and paralinguistic means of expression. After that, students will be offered a number of questions that they will have to answer after viewing.

Post viewing activity

It is advisable to build up the post viewing discussion in upon the students' responses. This task is aimed at achieving the following objectives: to encourage students to express their opinions about what they saw, identify and analyze non-verbal linguistic means of expression employed in the episode, interpret the film's details from and extralinguistic and paralinguistic point of view, to compare two time periods (present and past) and to identify socio-cultural similarities and differences. Post viewing stage can be completed by the final discussion of the whole movie Students can also make presentation on selected topics based on the research and class discussions.

Conclusion

Audiovisual film discourse of "Midnight in Paris" introduces students to the era of modernism, with its brightest representatives, their personal experiences and relationships. Having placed the main character in

the era of the late 19th – early 20th century, Woody Allen shows a psychological quest of a young Hollywood screenwriter, and his delicate, romantic nature. The focus on the film discourse, verbal and non-verbal means of expression contribute to better understanding of cultural, historical and linguistic material presented in a movie. The movie can motivate students to do some research on the era of modernism, its prominent artists and writers. They should be encouraged to make presentation on the subject in English.

The decisive factor in shaping the socio-cultural competence and linguistic and cultural competence of students, serves the image of the hero. The image of a young American writer can serve as the main theme for the discussion about the U.S. artists and their participation in the world's cultural heritage, which addresses the objectives of multicultural education (Sysoev, 2009, p. 97).

Thus, summarizing the above said, we can say that the use of authentic film discourse (movies) is an effective approach to develop both linguistic and socio-cultural competences. Watching the movie, students get to know the USA culture representatives, representatives of modern French culture, discuss, analyze and compare the impact of French modernism to Russian artists and writers.

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