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LINGUISTICS

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FEATURES OF FILM TITLE TRANSLATION

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Abstract. This article considers the features connected with film title translation. Methods of translation are analyzed with the aid of particular examples. Assessment of adequacy is explained. Examples of translations that are considered unsuccessful are given. A conclusion is made on the necessity of the translator achieving suitable localization for film titles and having a deep knowledge of language and a multicultural mindset.

Keywords: film title; cinematography; translation; localization.

Introduction

In this age, cinematography is a highly profitable branch of economy. In most countries cinematography is also an essential part of culture. Films are shot in different languages in different countries and then are quickly distributed all over the world.

Translation and dubbing of films for viewers from other countries is an important industry. Many specialists work in order to let viewers enjoy with pleasure one or another foreign picture. The title of the film is the first thing that a cinemagoer sees on a poster. It is known that a consumer needs about 1.5-2 seconds in order to decide whether the topic is of interest or not [1: 160]. That is why the translation of the title is very important. The relevance of the research is determined by the fact that due to translators' incompetence the actual translation looks absurd in particular cases [2, 3]. Translation is a complicated and multifaceted type of human activity where different cultures, different personalities, different mindsets, different literature, different eras, different development levels, different traditions and habits may face each other [4: 23].

Seeing that films are the material for research, it is necessary to define the given phenomenon. A film may be defined as a frame sequence fixed on a film stock or other information carrier presenting photographic or hand-drawn animation, which is usually followed by audiotape (speech, music, noise). In other words, a film is a digital string of a continuous section of text or a chain of frames, according to which, a frame is a unit of a film text.

During the film, translators in most cases have access not only to the subtitles, but also to the entire film [5, 6].

Methodology

What features are inherent to title translation? Actually, many factors play their role. This is convenient for the specialist when the original title does not have an idiom, joke, little-known quotation or other obstacles. In this case, it is possible to use a literal translation. For example, the titles “Twilight” – «Сумерки» (“Sumerki”), “Burn after reading” – «После прочтения сжечь» (“Posle prochteniya szhech”), etc. But in most cases the titles are invented in such a way that it is quite a difficult task to adapt the foreign name and simultaneously take into account a people’s mentality, its traditions and habits or to convey inner meaning. Literal translation only causes harm here. Translators have to use word-play, search for phrases with analogous sense in the recipient language, use calquing, transliteration etc. Apart from that a translator ought to remember the euphony of the title and its capacity in order not to get from “Die Hard” the heavy «Умри тяжело, но достойно» (“Umri tyazhelo, no dostoino” – “Die hard, but worthily”), which later disappeared and was substituted to «Крепкий орешек» (“Krepkiy orehek” – “A hard nut to crack”). That is not all so far. At the end of work the title has to be suitable in terms of marketing and commerce, because profit is far from being the last goal in film production. Unfortunately, with such a large number of tasks it is not always possible to reach the main goal – to fully and properly convey the title’s sense and mood.

Results and analysis

Here are presented original film titles and their official translation into Russian below with our assessment of adequacy.

“The Revenant” is an American Western, which sounds in Russian like «Выживший» (“Vyzhivshiy” – “The Survivor”). The initial meaning of the word “revenant” is one that returns after death or a long absence. But “The Survivor” is not someone who came back to life or returned after being absent for a long time. There exists an opinion that a more suitable variant could be «Возвращенец» (“Vozvrashchenets” – “The Returner”). This word conveys the author’s idea for the film in a more exact way. Unfortunately, people in Russia do not speak in such a manner, furthermore, it sounds somewhat funny. Such a title could cause harm to the success of the film. That is why the translators chose “The Survivor”, although it does not allow an understanding of the whole deep sense, but it is euphonic for the Russian language. This case demonstrates loss of sense in order to save the form.

“Dan in Real Life” has no difficulty for those who have a basic knowledge of English to translate this title. It is interesting that after professional translation it became «Влюбиться в невесту брата» (“Vlyubit’sya v nevestu brata” – “To fall in love with your brother’s fiancée”). Obviously, the trivial title «Дэн в реальной жизни» (“Den v real’noy zhizni” – “Dan in Real Life”) is unsuccessful in terms of marketing. It is possible that a viewer would not like to buy a ticket in order to just watch a film about somebody called Dan. What a difference when there is something intriguing in the title or a piece of description heightening the viewer’s interest.

“Oblivion” – «Обливион» is another interesting example of how the original title could be changed. An alternative film title is «Забвение» (“Zabvenie” – “Oblivion”). In this case, the translators preferred to use transliteration instead of translation. A similar approach may be seen in the picture «Дивергент» (“Divergent”), though in Russian “divergent” translates as «расходящийся», «отклоняющийся» (“different”, “aberrant”). We see the same situation in «Интерстеллар» – (“Interstellar”), which means «межзвездный» (“interstellar”, “intersidereal”). What is the motivation for such a decision? The transliterated variant is unusual, stands out in speech, and attracts attention – the exact function of a film title. In addition, «Интерстеллар» (“Interstellar”) and «Обливион» (“Oblivion”) sound more scientific and official, creating an atmosphere of futurism. «Дивергент» (“Divergent”) already sounds beautiful and mysterious in Russian, whereas «Расходящийся» (“Different”) is inferior to it.

We ought to add that some titles are adapted with the help of transliteration because it is impossible to localize them or there would be a pun or foolishness as a result of localization. For example, the film “Terminator” – «Терминатор». Starting from a verb “to terminate”, in Russian we get «расторгать», «прекращать» (“dissolve”, “cease”. The name “Ceaser” on a poster would amuse many people passing by. Of course, there is the option to familiarize oneself with the original version of the film, get creative and localize it as “Liquidator”, but the transliterated variant is simply more harmonic in this case. In addition, we should mention “Oldboy” – «Олдбой». This is an American remake of the popular South Korean detective film, a revenge drama. Literal translation into Russian sounds very foolish; it does not suit the film topic. “Oldboy” – «Олдбой» is an example when there is no way to localize or translate the title.

As previously noticed, translators are not always successful in performing a communicative task during work with titles. This could lead to confusion among viewers who expected to see one thing, but received something completely different. A famous example is the film by Quentin Tarantino “Death Proof” mistranslated as «Доказательство смерти» (“Dokazatel’sтво smerti” – “Proof of Death”). The translator erroneously assumed that the word “proof” in this context meant to prove something. In the film itself, we can

see the “death proof” car of a maniac-stuntman chasing women. “Death proof” here has a similar meaning to waterproof, bulletproof etc. Another example is “Silver Linings Playbook” – «Мой парень – псих» (“Мой парень – psikh” – “My Boyfriend is a Psycho”). Although this film is partly a comedy, the translators, so it seems, decided to remove from the title such characteristics as “romantic” and “drama”. This romantic comedy-drama by David O. Russell has a deeper sense, which the original version reflects. In the adapted title, the sense is so removed from the reality that first of all there comes to mind a story about a man with a thought disorder, but nothing else comes. Only the trailer would provide a full understanding of the film’s mood, its romantic and dramatic elements.

Conclusion

Analyzing different translations of film titles, we can make a conclusion that there is a great importance of working with the title during its localization. The sense can become completely different from the original one in case of misunderstanding and unsuccessful translation. In addition, we can confirm that the task which the translator deals with during the working process is very difficult. It requires a deep knowledge of language and a multicultural mindset.

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ELLIPSIS AND ZEUGMA IN PORTUGUESE

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Abstract. In this article such a figure of speech as ellipsis in Portuguese is considered. An analysis of ellipsis, its functions, properties and features is conducted. Four types of ellipsis in Portuguese are described, with an analysis of their examples. Additionally, zeugma and its essence are considered, along with its relevance to ellipsis and their differences.

Keywords: figure of speech; ellipsis; zeugma; Portuguese.

Introduction

In Russia there is a keen interest developing in learning and teaching Portuguese, as shown by the number of works published on Portuguese and Portuguese language teaching [1-3]. In teaching and learning Portuguese, particular importance must be attached to authentic language. A not inconsiderable part of authentic language are figures of speech. This article analyzes two such aspects – ellipsis and zeugma – found in the Portuguese language.

Ellipsis

In Portuguese, just like in many other languages, we can meet the phenomenon of ellipsis, both in spoken and written speech.

Ellipsis (from the Ancient Greek – omission or falling short) is the omission from speech or writing of a word or words that are superfluous or able to be understood from contextual clues [4].

Ellipsis is a figure of spoken speech, which is why it is used predominantly in this style. Apart from that, ellipsis is used in poetry and fiction. Thanks to ellipsis, writers can give vivacity and dynamism to the speech of a hero or to a text.

Native Portuguese speakers designate this phenomenon in such a way: *Elipse* – omissão de uma ou mais palavras sem prejudicar a clareza da frase [5] – omission of a word or words without affecting the meaning of the phrase. In other words, this phenomenon is characterized by the absence of speech elements, which should be there according to the rules. The phenomenon is universal in many languages. There are some functions of ellipsis in speech:

- Making a speech dynamic.
- Saving of time.
- Making a speech laconic.
- Making speech more informal.

For example, in Russia people say “Hello, give me your number” in a conversation with a friend, so we can use “number” without mentioning “phone”. The interlocutor will understand that we are talking about a phone number. But in the official style it may seem out of place: “Leave your phone number and we will contact you”. That is why ellipsis is inherent in colloquial speech. In Portuguese, as in other languages, the usage of ellipsis should be appropriate, not to create the impression that something is missed in a sentence.

Native speakers of Portuguese often use ellipsis. They use it subconsciously, because many forms have already caught on. A characteristic of lusophones is that they have a large variety of shortening and combining words (#de + ela = dela, emesse = nesse), for that matter there is a wide application of ellipsis in speech.

Classifications

There are four types of ellipsis in Portuguese [6].

1. Ellipsis of subject This type of ellipsis is quite common, because we can determine by whom an action is committed from the form of the verb, thereafter a listener can comprehend the subject by the form of the verb if the subject was omitted.

- (Eu) Não sei – Don’t know. “Eu” is omitted, because “sei” refers only to the first person singular of the verb “saber” – so that we can omit the subject. It is very common; we can hear “eunãosei” in rare occasions.

It should be mentioned that ellipsis of subject is often used in colloquial speech, when the verb refers to the first-person singular “Eu”–“I”, the same thing happens in the Russian language. When the verb refers to the first-person plural the same thing occurs: “nós”–“we”.

- (Eu) Vou falar com ela – I’ll speak to her
- (Eu) Acho que não – I think not
- (Nós) Não temos tempo livre para essas coisas – We don’t have free time for these things
- (Nós) Esperamos que você possa se sentir feliz lá – We hope you can feel happy there

But it is necessary to be careful, because in many cases the first-person singular form coincides with the third-person singular form (ele, ela). To use ellipsis properly it is necessary to take it into account. In other cases it will be error, which leads to misunderstanding.

Verb “saber”:

- Eu sabia – I knew
- Ele / ela sabia – He / She knew.

2. Ellipsis of verb. In this group the verb (link-verb) is omitted. It is necessary to be careful, because sometimes as a result of ellipsis, difficulties in translating the described time appear.

• O escritório vazio, ninguém (está) àquela hora no trabalho – Empty office, there is no person at this time at work.

In this sentence, after “ninguém” the verb is omitted, but with the help of the context we may easily understand that the verb “estar” was supposed to be there.

• Na casa antiga, (não havia) nenhum sinal de vida – There weren’t stirrings of life in the old house.

Also, it is obvious, according to the intent of the sentence, that “não haver” is omitted.

• Eu cheguei aqui só ontem. (Há) Muitas coisas para ver – I came here only yesterday. There are a lot of things to see.

Even without the verb “haver” the meaning is quite clear.

3. Ellipsis of preposition. We can meet this type of ellipsis not very often, but still it exists.

• (Em) Este ano mudaremos de casa – This year we will change home.

Basically, we can observe ellipsis of preposition “de” in construction “de que”.

• Lembre-se (de) que nada é perfeito – Remember that nothing is perfect.

• Duvido (de) que ele virá – I doubt that he will come.

• Tenho certeza (de) que a situação melhorará – I am sure that the situation will improve.

4. Ellipsis of conjunction. It is similar to ellipsis of preposition, because we can encounter it very rarely and mostly in poetry.

• (Se) Gostasse de mim, eu seria o homem mais feliz do mundo! – If she liked me, I would be the happiest man in the world.

• (Se) Fizesse frio eu vestia roupa mais quente – If it was cold, I would wear warm clothes.

• (Se) For assim, (nós) prosseguiremos – It will be this way (if it would be this way), we will continue.

Zeugma

One more figure of speech, which has some similarities with ellipsis, is zeugma. But zeugma should not be confused with ellipsis, as often hap-

pens. It happens because of the fact that they are based on the omission of an element restored in meaning.

Zeugma – figura pela qual uma palavra, já expressa numa proposição, se subentende noutra ou noutras que com a primeira têm analogia ou relação

[5]. It means that zeugma is a figure of speech in which a word applies to two others in different senses.

With the help of zeugma we can avoid unnecessary repetitions, which is why zeugma is actively used in many styles of speech.

For example:

- Ela *gosta* de dançar; ele, de comer (ele *gosta* de comer) – She likes dancing, he – eating.

- Ele *recebeu* dinheiro; ela, glória (ela *recebeu* glória) – He received money, she – glory.

- Nós viemos de loja, eu *comprei* leite; ele, queijo (ele *comprou* queijo) – We came from a shop, I bought milk, he – cheese.

The main difference between zeugma and ellipsis is that in ellipsis an element not mentioned before in a sentence is omitted, whereas in zeugma an element previously mentioned is omitted.

Conclusion

Analyzing and setting out these figures of speech, we can make a conclusion that ellipsis and zeugma are widely used in Portuguese. They are often used by lusophones not only in everyday speech, but also can occur in poetry and fiction. That is why it is important, in learning and teaching the Portuguese language, to pay particular attention to these figures of speech and be able to use them actively in speech to make it more vivid and closer to authentic language.

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ITALIA: UNITÀ NELLA MOLTEPLICITÀ

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Abstract. Il concetto di identità nazionale è una nozione complessa, che coinvolge molteplici momenti della vita civile, sociale, artistica, letteraria, religiosa e linguistica di un paese. Nella costruzione di questa idea gioca sempre un ruolo decisivo l'uso strategico del passato che non necessariamente si identifica con l'idea di "Storia"; anzi, non di rado questa idea è affiancata o sostituita da quella di "tradizione". Nel presente lavoro sono analizzati i motivi che hanno causato la mancata sovrapposizione tra il concetto di identità italiana, con l'orgoglio per il proprio paese che da essa deriva, e il sentimento di appartenenza allo Stato, con i doveri e gli obblighi che ne conseguono. La questione dell'identità nazionale è ritornata quanto più attuale in quanto deve far fronte alle sfide connesse a fenomeni quali l'integrazione europea, la globalizzazione, l'immigrazione di massa.

Keywords: identità nazionale; integrazione europea; immigrazione; politica; unità; nazione; patria; Stato.

Introduzione

Nei passati decenni la questione dell'identità nazionale non era mai stata un tema centrale di discussione in Europa ma i fenomeni connessi alla globalizzazione, i problemi causati dall'immigrazione e il processo di integrazione con l'Unione Europea, mettendo in discussione i valori tradizionali di molti paesi, hanno attualizzato il tema dell'identità nazionale e il rischio della perdita della propria identità culturale. Quest'ultima può essere rappresentata come un nucleo contenente l'idea che una comunità etnica ha di sé stessa. La questione dell'identità nazionale italiana è stata da sempre dibattuta in quanto l'Italia racchiude peculiarità storiche, geografiche, sociali assenti in altri paesi europei. Il localismo assai sviluppato nella penisola influisce grandemente sull'idea che gli italiani hanno di concetti quali Nazione, Stato, Patria.

Analisi

In Italia la questione dell'identità nazionale nel corso dei primi venticinque anni del dopoguerra era rimasta periferica nella coscienza delle masse. All'epoca la società era spaccata dal confronto tra Occidente (Usa, Nato) e Oriente (URSS, paesi socialisti) nei quali si identificava, e il sistema politico italiano aveva acquistato gran parte della propria legittimazione al di fuori dei propri confini [1: 1]. La situazione mutò fortemente a cavallo tra gli anni '80 e '90: con la scomparsa di uno dei due contendenti della "guerra

fredda”, in Italia crollò tutto il sistema di fattori che strutturava il sistema socio-culturale, nel corso di pochi mesi si fecero avanti sulla scena politica nuove forze e nuove personalità. Come risultato finale l'ondata di cambiamento fece crollare la Prima Repubblica. Ciò era successo, in particolare, perché si era ridotto in briciole il cemento che garantiva l'integrità della Costituzione repubblicana: l'antifascismo. La Costituzione repubblicana del 1948 era un patto stipulato tra avversari ideologici: la democrazia cristiana da una parte e i comunisti e socialisti dall'altra, sulla base della loro comune dedizione alla causa dell'antifascismo, il quale aveva ragione di esistere fino alla scomparsa del fascismo. L'antifascismo si può definire un momento storico, importantissimo per far sì che in Italia si restaurassero i valori democratici, ma non un'ideologia, nonostante il tentativo di ergerlo al rango di ideologia identitaria messo in pratica da Togliatti [2].

Il carattere drammatico delle nuove sfide all'identità italiana è inoltre ben illustrato dalla comparsa dei movimenti separatisti, come la Lega Nord, che ancora di più sottolineavano la fine definitiva della Prima Repubblica, dal processo di integrazione all'Unione Europea e dalla questione migratoria che si è aggravata nell'ultimo ventennio. Per quanto riguarda quest'ultimo fenomeno, l'inizio della crisi migratoria si ebbe a partire degli anni 90, quando decine di migliaia di albanesi varcavano l'Adriatico per raggiungere l'Italia essa, da paese di emigranti, si ritrovò quasi di colpo a ricoprire il ruolo di paese di immigrazione. Temi quali l'accoglienza, la solidarietà e la carità cristiana non possono nascondere le problematiche legate ai rapporti interetnici, al multiculturalismo, ai contrasti tra popolazione locale e immigrati in tempi di crisi economica e sociale.

Come si può osservare negli esempi suesposti la funzione dell'identità nazionale cambia a seconda del momento storico, agendo ora come elemento legante della Costituzione, ora come ammortizzatore del multiculturalismo, ora come baluardo alla diluizione nella comunità sovranazionale dell'Europa unita. Interessanti risultati ha dato una ricerca, effettuata su mandato dell'Associazione Nazionale di specialisti nelle relazioni pubbliche. L'obiettivo era quello di determinare i campi semantici formatisi attorno ad alcuni concetti che, teoricamente, dovrebbero avere lo stesso significato: “Stato”, “Repubblica”, “Patria”, “Nazione”. Secondo gli italiani partecipanti al sondaggio lo “Stato” si identifica con gli obblighi, le tasse, la burocrazia. Il termine “Repubblica” suscita associazioni positive, mentre “Patria” è recepito come qualcosa di lontano dalla vita reale e legato ad episodi storici lontani nel tempo. In conclusione, la parola “Nazione” si associa all'appartenenza al paese, l'Italia, alla sua lingua [3]. È evidente la dissonanza dei piani semantici e simbolici al posto di quella che dovrebbe essere una loro sovrapposizione. Gli italiani si sono assuefatti alla debolezza dei propri istituti statali, essi possiedono un alto tasso di orgoglio nazionale (per lo meno a confronto con gli altri paesi europei) ma un livello non meno alto di diffidenza verso lo Stato e i

suoi istituti. Si tratta di una nazione senza Stato, lontana dallo Stato [4]. Quali sono le cause di tali discrepanze? Come è possibile la presenza di un orgoglio nazionale senza lo Stato? Le opinioni differiscono. Alcuni cercano la causa originaria nel lontano passato incolpando, ad esempio, Federico II di non essere riuscito ad unire la penisola italiana sotto la propria egida. Altri vedono la fonte di tutti i mali nella lunga esistenza del potere temporale papale. Il papato non permise a nessun soggetto di unificare il paese ed esso stesso non si prefisse talo obiettivo. Proprio in Italia si era venuta a formare, prima che in ogni altro luogo, la scuola del pensiero laico, dei cui frutti avrebbe beneficiato tutto il mondo, ma la stessa patria dell'umanesimo fu costretta per cinquecento anni ad attendere che tali idee venissero messe in pratica sul proprio suolo. Tale lunga attesa ha impedito il formarsi di stretti legami tra la politica e la cultura, senza i quali la comunità nazionale accusa un deficit di coesione [5].

Altri ancora individuano la causa del problema nel Risorgimento: la rivoluzione nazionale e liberatrice nel corso della quale il paese è stato riunito sotto il regno dei Savoia e che generò in molti un senso di avversità verso il "piemontese conquistatore".

Infine moltissimi autori focalizzano la propria attenzione sulle anomalie dell'Italia post-fascista e repubblicana, un'Italia divisa in sfere di influenza della subcultura cattolica e socialista. L'iniziale contrapposizione di queste due concezioni del mondo è stata più forte dell'unione politica dei marxisti e cattolici nella Resistenza [6].

A mio parere le diverse genesi della questione si integrano a vicenda, l'esito finale è il riconoscere che gli italiani perdono nel confronto con gli altri europei sulla questione della devozione alla Patria, nella presa di coscienza e nella realizzazione dei propri doveri verso la Nazione. Ciò è testimoniato dalle inchieste che indicano una grande differenza di numeri tra quanti esprimono orgoglio verso il proprio paese e quanti dimostrano disponibilità ad adempiere ai propri doveri verso la Nazione. Nel primo parametro gli italiani occupano uno dei primi posti in Europa, nel secondo uno degli ultimi. Nella metà degli anni '90 l'88% degli intervistati (ottavo posto nella classifica) hanno dichiarato di provare orgoglio per il proprio paese, ma solo il 25% (ultimo posto) hanno dichiarato di essere pronti a difenderlo armi in mano [7: 256].

L'identità italiana è una questione strettamente legata al tanto travagliato e lungo processo di unità del paese. L'unità d'Italia era un sogno di cui si vagheggiava fin dal medioevo. La differenza dell'Italia con gli altri stati europei risiede proprio nel fatto che la formazione dell'identità nazionale non è coincisa completamente con la formazione dell'unità d'Italia sul piano storico [8]. L'Italia è sempre esistita sin da tempi immemorabili. L'Italia del modo di vivere, l'Italia delle pratiche quotidiane, l'Italia dell'anima e della mente. È l'Italia culturale, cosa di gran lunga più importante dell'unità politica, a determinare l'identità del paese [9].

Gli italiani sono portatori di un'identità nazionale a più livelli, che include l'identità locale, quella regionale e nazionale che, dipendentemente dalle intenzioni comunicative, possono prevalere una sull'altra.

Dante Alighieri è stato uno dei primi a proporre l'idea di una comunanza culturale degli italiani, come eredi del dissolto Impero Romano, e di unità politica a garanzia della prosperità futura. Il pragmatismo e la visione del mondo di Niccolò Machiavelli sono alla base dell'idea della costituzione di uno Stato italiano per i filosofi dell'epoca illuministica e del Risorgimento.

Molti fatti ci permettono di parlare dell'identità italiana come dell'unità nella molteplicità. L'aspetto unico della Repubblica Italiana risiede nel mantenimento delle sue differenze culturali, politiche e sociali. Ancora oggi si mantiene la suddivisione del paese in province storiche e gli italiani stessi possono essere suddivisi in gruppi etnici differenti con una propria lingua, usi e costumi. La storia della Repubblica italiana è percepita come contraddittoria, tragica, al contrario della comune storia collettiva, che ha inizio nella Roma antica ed è rappresentata come positiva, come un collante per la nazione. A queste si intreccia una terza storia, quasi naturale, legata al ciclo vitale della propria regione, della propria città, della propria piccola patria. Si può trarre quindi la conclusione che la concezione di identità italiana, nelle coscienze, ha una tenuta più stabile e duratura che la concezione di Nazione intesa come Stato. Si può presupporre che, giunti ad un livello sovranazionale (paneuropeo) l'identità nazionale italiana continuerà ancora a vivere (come viveva già prima dell'unità politico-amministrativa del paese) e andrà a rappresentare una società "virtuale" con realizzazioni sociali, economiche e culturali reali e diversificate.

Il concetto di identità permea tutte le sfere dell'attività umana, tra cui naturalmente la lingua e l'economia. Come non ricordare la frase pronunciata da uno dei padri del Risorgimento Massimo D'Azeglio: "L'Italia è fatta, gli italiani sono ancora da farsi". Evidentemente D'Azeglio rimanda al patrimonio lasciato dalla secolare suddivisione del paese, alle sue differenze etnolinguistiche. Galli della Loggia ci fa notare come, effettivamente, gli abitanti delle diverse regioni italiane all'epoca non potessero comunicare tra di loro. Solo il 2,5% della popolazione infatti parlava la lingua nazionale, 600 mila persone su circa 25 milioni. Le barriere linguistiche venivano superate con difficoltà e lentezza. Nei primi anni del secondo dopoguerra solamente un abitante su 6-7 considerava l'italiano la propria lingua madre, nonostante l'impegno del fascismo a creare un nazionalismo che fosse non solo politico, ma anche culturale e linguistico. Negli anni '70 la proporzione era già di 1 abitante su 4, alla fine del secolo in dialetto parlava non più del 10% della popolazione [10: 48-49]. Tale rafforzamento dell'italiano si deve naturalmente all'influenza dei mass media, in primo luogo della televisione, agli spostamenti migratori, alla scuola dell'obbligo.

Il richiamo di D'Azeglio a "fare gli italiani" sottolinea di certo la profonda suddivisione territoriale e amministrativa della penisola. All'inizio del periodo risorgimentale in Italia esistevano otto Stati, ognuno con la propria moneta, dogana, il proprio sistema di pesi e misure. A questo si aggiungeva il fatto che il paese era ulteriormente frazionato in provincie e comuni: al momento dell'unità si potevano contare ben 7.721 città (nella vicina Francia, con un territorio due volte più grande 1.307), 713 avevano origine pre-romana e 1.971 romana. Naturalmente ogni centro coltivava gelosamente i propri usi, costumi, tradizioni.

Per comprendere il significato che quanto suesposto poteva avere, ed ebbe, nel destino del paese e nella formazione del cittadino si rende necessario sottolineare la particolare struttura dell'economia italiana. Fattori geografici e storici hanno formato negli abitanti della penisola un enorme spirito di intraprendenza. Nel paese è presente un'azienda ogni 6-7 abitanti adulti, in Europa circa un'impresa su quattro è italiana. Il 97% delle aziende italiane rientra nella categoria delle piccole e medie imprese. La loro esistenza è messa a dura prova ma il fatto che in Italia esse riescano a sopravvivere più a lungo, rispetto alla media europea, è reso possibile dall'unirsi in distretti industriali e cooperative [11, 12]. Una volta creati, tali distretti hanno formato un proprio mercato del lavoro e la nascita del fattore denominato "risorse del localismo". Sotto questo termine rientra un lungo elenco di condizioni molto diversificate che vanno dalla presenza di risorse naturali, alle tradizioni artigianali, dalle particolarità geografiche alla saturazione del mercato del lavoro locale, fino alle caratteristiche climatiche, e poi anche caratteriali, psicologiche degli individui. Le aziende radicate in un dato luogo possono in gran misura attingere alle risorse del localismo, usufruire di persone che di generazione in generazione vivono un determinato mestiere il quale diventa un collante della comunità [13]. Interessante notare come in circa 200 distretti industriali in Italia vivono meno di un quarto della popolazione e trova impiego 1/10 della forza lavoro, ma allo stesso tempo, essi contribuiscono al 46% delle esportazioni italiane [14]. Grazie a questo un paese, l'Italia, quasi priva di risorse naturali e di materie prime, è riuscito a raggiungere un alto grado di sviluppo [15].

Conclusione

In conclusione si può affermare che la tipicità, la particolarità dell'Italia risiede proprio nella sua unità nella diversità e la cultura era ed è il collante attorno al quale è venuta a crearsi l'identità nazionale. Le differenze territoriali, linguistiche, economiche, che costituiscono un ostacolo alla formazione di una maturata identità nazionale, di un nazionalismo pieno, costituiscono una ricchezza e un fascino enormi.

Nel concetto di Nazione risiede l'idea di un passato comune, una memoria su cui riflettere. Un'identità culturale che, nel nostro caso, ha profondamente segnato l'immagine che gli italiani hanno di loro stessi, soprattutto

per il fatto che non sempre si è registrata una sovrapposizione e una coincidenza tra identità nazionale e identità italiana. Anzi, l'ingresso del paese nella contemporaneità – con la nascita dello Stato unitario – ha condotto spesso a una rimozione in blocco, quando non a una negazione, della sua stessa storia; una storia che ha conosciuto divisioni e contrasti, rivalità e conflitti, oltre quegli ideali patriottici, nazionali e democratici, che hanno caratterizzato il Risorgimento, il Fascismo e la Repubblica

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ITALY: UNITY IN MULTIPLICITY

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Abstract. The concept of national identity is a complex notion that involves many aspects of the country's life, including civil, social, artistic, literary, religious and linguistic factors. The strategic use of the past plays a decisive role in the construction of national identity, which does not necessarily identify itself with the idea of 'History'; Indeed, this idea is not seldom matched or replaced by that of 'tradition'. This article analyzes the reasons why the concept of Italian identity, with the pride of own country that derives from it, was not overlapped with the feeling of belonging to the state, with the duties and obligations that follow. The issue of national identity has become current because of challenges related to phenomena such as European integration, globalization and mass immigration.

Keywords: national identity, European integration, immigration, politics, unity, nation, homeland, State.

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KENNZEICHEN DER MÜNDLICHKEIT IN DEN SCHRIFTLICHEN AUSHÄNGEN (IM RUSSISCHEN IM VERGLEICH ZUM DEUTSCHEN)

N.A. Karpova

Zusammenfassung. Der vorliegende Artikel stellt das Ergebnis der Untersuchung von russischen Texten der administrativen Aushänge im Vergleich zu den deutschen dar. Es ist wieder stärker im Fokus stehenden Bereich der Textsortenlinguistik zuzuordnen, dabei werden auch Aspekte der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede und der Diskursanalyse berücksichtigt. Der administrative Aushang ist eine relativ neue Erscheinung, die moderne Kommunikationssituation widerspiegelt. Die Spezifik der Analysemethodik lässt sich durch die Notwendigkeit der Beschreibung aller Aspekte des administrativen Aushanges – sowohl linguistischer als auch außerlinguistischer (Besonderheiten der Platzierung der Anzeige, des Stoffes, auf welchem der Text gedruckt oder geschrieben ist, die Wirkung, die der Text dem Leser gegenüber ausübt) zu erklären. Dabei verfolgen wir das Ziel, die Merkmale der gesprochenen Sprache in den schriftlichen Aushängen zu finden und diese zu beschreiben. Die Analyse ist anhand des im Laufe der Untersuchung entwickelten integrativen Analysemodells vollzogen, das sich auf den Prinzipien der Sprechaktentheorie, Textsortentheorie, Diskursanalyse und Beschreibung von Texten der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede stützt. Das Korpus der Untersuchung betragen Texte der über 400 russischen und deutschen administrativen Aushänge. Administrativer Aushang (auch *Ordnungstext*) wird in dem vorliegenden Artikel als komplexe Art von Textsorte, die zweierlei Funktionen – informative und handlungsreglementierende – ausübt, die anhand der kurzen schriftlichen Mitteilungen vermittelt wird, die in den öffentlichen Plätzen ausgehängt sind. Das sind *Großtexte*, die aus *Subtextsorten* mit je verschiedenen dominanten Textfunktionen bestehen: Verbot, Aufforderung, Bitte usw. Jede Art von handlungsreglementierenden Ordnungstexten kann sprachlich unterschiedlich ausgestaltet sein, dabei tauchen bei bestimmten Umständen die Merkmale der gesprochenen Sprache auf. Für die administrativen Aushänge sind folgende Kennzeichen der Mündlichkeit typisch: Spontaneität, Expressivität, Dialogorientierung, die sprachlichen Taktiken der Danksagung und Erinnerung, auch Verwendung von Androhungen, vulgärer und Schimpfwörter, syntaktische Nichtübereinstimmung der Sätze, Gebrauch von Verbalsätzen. Im Russischen und im Deutschen fallen diese Kriterien nicht immer zusammen, die administrativen Aushänge im Russischen zeigen also eine Spezifik aus.

Schlüsselwörter: Textsorte; administrativer Aushang; textsortenspezifische Merkmale; administrativer Diskurs, sprachliche Ausgestaltung; Mündlichkeit; moderne Kommunikation; natürliche schriftliche Rede.

Einführung

Die moderne Kommunikation wird durch eine bedeutende Verbreitung der Kommunikationsbereiche charakterisiert. So entstehen teils neue

Textsorten: Webinare, Tweets, Kommentare zu den Fotos in Instagram und andere Arten von Mitteilungen je nach dem Kommunikationsmittel, teils neue Arten etablierter Textsorten, die sich verselbstständigen. Die Grenzen zwischen Text und Diskurs, Mündlichkeit und Schriftlichkeit, Text und Bild werden unschärfer. Besonders auffällig ist diese Tendenz in der sachlichen Kommunikation, im Bereich des öffentlichen Verkehrs, dessen Charakter immer spontaner und ungehemmter wird, zu beobachten. Diese Tendenz äußert sich in der Senkung des Förmlichkeitsgrads bei der Bildung sowohl mündlicher als auch schriftlicher Texte des öffentlichen Verkehrs bzw. des administrativen Diskurses und in der Umnormung der ethischen und sprachlichen Regel, wobei umgangssprachliche Elemente und Kolloquialismen in den administrativen Diskurs durchdringen. Der Gegenstand unserer Untersuchung – der administrative Aushang (auch *Ordnung*, *Gebot- und Verbotsscheine*, *reglementierend-handlungskontrollierende Texte* [1: 194]) – gehört gerade zu diesem Spannungsfeld zwischen dynamischen Tendenzen einerseits und dem Fortbestehen traditionellerer Textsorten andererseits.

Untersuchungsobjekt und Textkorpus

Administrativer Aushang ist eine Erscheinung, die die Besonderheiten der modernen Kommunikationssituation in vollem Maße widerspiegelt und dementsprechend Interesse von gegenwärtigen Sprachforschern immer wieder weckt (siehe Werke von M.G. Besjaewa, L.B. Bojko, T.M. Bolschakowa, J.N. Ereemeew, Ch. Fandrych u. M. Thurmair, N.B. Lebedewa, B.Ju. Norman, S.G. Ter-Minasowa A. Wierzbicka und andere). Es ist eine komplexe Textsorte, die einerseits zur großen Klasse der Textsorte von Anzeigen gehört, andererseits, selbst als *Großtext*, der aus *Subtextsorten* mit je verschiedener dominanter Textfunktionen besteht. Als erste soll die informative Funktion genannt werden: „grundsätzlich sind alle Anzeigen wissensbezogene, informative Texte, mit denen konstatierend-assertierend Wissen bereitgestellt wird, indem etwas öffentlich bekannt gemacht wird“ [Ibid.: 239]. Als zweites ist stark ausgedrückte handlungsbeeinflussende Funktion zu erwähnen, die darin besteht, „das Handeln von Personen in einer möglichst genau definierten Domäne zu reglementieren und damit zu kontrollieren“ [Ibid.: 196]. In den Werken der Sprachforscher werden unterschiedliche Fachbegriffe benutzt, die die direktive Orientierung und administrative Textfunktion der erforschenden Erscheinung darstellen. Unseres Erachtens, passt der Begriff „administrativer Aushang“ am besten für diese Textsorte, denn damit wird nicht nur ihre Hauptfunktion ausgedrückt, sondern auch auf materielle Form ihrer Existenz hingewiesen.

Administrative Aushänge sind kurze schriftliche Mitteilungen, die in öffentlichen Plätzen platziert sind und auf Reglementieren und Kontrollieren der Handlungen von Adressaten gerichtet werden [2: 94]. Zu den öffentli-

chen Plätzen gehören vor allem Institutionen, die die Regeln für das Handeln des Nutzers dieser Institution bzw. von Dienstleistungen der Institution formulieren: Bibliotheken, Cafés, Universitäten, Banken, Supermärkte usw. Die Regeln haben häufig rechtlich bindenden Charakter: Ihre Grundlage beruht auf der Autorität der Institution, welche die Ordnung erlässt, die dabei geltende Gesetze und Rechtsprechung berücksichtigt [1: 194]. Zum Beispiel:

(1) *Уважаемые читатели! Просим Вас бережно относиться к библиотечным книгам! Напоминаем:*

- не делайте пометок на страницах;
- не перегибайте книгу в корешке;
- не загибайте уголки страниц;
- не вырывайте листы.

При получении книги проверяйте ее физическое состояние. Сообщайте обо всех замеченных дефектах библиотекарю. Помните: ответственность за порчу несет тот, кто пользовался книгой последним. При утере книги ее следует заменить идентичным экземпляром или возместить восстановительную стоимость (реальную рыночную стоимость книги). www.lib.tsu.ru

(2) *Betreten verboten. Lebensgefahr. Zuwiderhandlungen werden bestraft.*

Die beiden Anzeigen wurden von den Institutionen in einer Mischung juristischer Fachsprache und der Allgemeinsprache verfasst. Durch die Anrede „Liebe Leser“ und spezifische Lexik in der ersten Anzeige äußert sich die Bibliothek als textverfassende Institution. Das zweite Beispiel lässt sich durch einen Nominalstil mit unpersönlichen Formulierungen und elliptischen Sätzen charakterisieren. Der Textverfasser bzw. die Institution wird dabei nicht genannt, aber dem Inhalt nach wird es klar, dass es keine Person ist, die aus privaten Interessen handelt, sondern Vertreter einer Institution.

Für die Zwecke der vorliegenden Arbeit wurden etwa 400 deutsche und russische Texte der administrativen Aushänge untersucht, die teils von der Autorin selbst gesammelt wurden, teils aus dem Internet heruntergeladen waren.

In den meisten Fällen handelt der Textproduzent zu Gunsten einer Institution, so wird der administrative Aushang im Rahmen eines institutionellen administrativen Diskurses betrachtet, der in verschiedenen Bereichen menschlicher Lebens repräsentiert wird. Als Bestandteil institutionellen Diskurses funktioniert der administrative Aushang in medizinischen, sachlichen, pädagogischen und anderen Kommunikationsbereichen und widerspiegelt die Merkmale von diesen, was sich formal und inhaltlich zeigt. Dabei lässt sich der administrative Aushang in allen Kommunikationsbereichen als eine einheitliche Textsorte mit den textsortenspezifischen sprachlichen Merkmalen erkennen.

Methodisches Vorgehen

Textsorten und ihnen zugrunde liegenden "Textmuster" haben sich in verschiedenen Sprachgemeinschaften historisch entwickelt, um spezifische kommunikative Aufgaben in der sozialen Handlungspraxis zu bewältigen. Textsorten lassen sich als typische Kombinationen von situativen Faktoren, funktionalen und strukturellen Eigenschaften beschreiben [1: 16]. Textsorte kann als musterhaftig charakterisiert werden: in unserem Bewusstsein erscheinen die Textsorten als Muster der sprachlichen Handlung in einer konkreten kommunikativen Situation [siehe 3]. Zugrunde unserer Untersuchung haben wir das Modell der Beschreibung der Textsorten von T.V. Schmeljowa [4] mit Hinblick auf die spezifischen Merkmale von dem untersuchten Material aufgenommen. Da die Sprache aber ein lebendiges und dynamisches System ist, lassen sich nicht alle Textsorten mit Hilfe eines und desselben Kriterienbündels beschreiben.

Um den administrativen Aushang zu charakterisieren, wichtig ist auch seine materielle, mediale Form und Stelle, wo es ausgehängt wird – also die paraverbalen Kriterien, die mit Textsortenanalyse nichts zu tun haben. Deswegen haben wir uns an ein anderes Modell der Textbeschreibung gewendet u.z. mit dessen Hilfe die Texte der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede sich untersuchen lassen. Den Begriff "natürliche schriftliche Rede" («естественная письменная речь») hat in die Linguistik N.B. Lebedewa eingeführt, die darunter eine Art von Rede versteht, die die Merkmale sowohl schriftlicher als auch mündlicher Rede enthält [5: 173-180]. So wurde im Laufe der Untersuchung ein integratives Analysemodell entwickelt, das sich auf den Prinzipien der Sprechaktentheorie, Textsortentheorie, Diskursanalyse und Beschreibung von Texten der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede stützt. Die Vereinbarung aller dieser Forschungsrichtungen ermöglicht den administrativen Aushang umfassend auf empirischer Basis und in funktionaler Sicht zu beschreiben, sein kommunikatives Potential und verborgene kommunikative Sinne feststellend [2: 10].

Das Analysemodell enthält also linguistische und extralinguistische textsortenkonstitutive Faktoren, dank denen wir eine schriftliche Mitteilung als administrativen Aushang wahrnehmen. Zu den linguistischen Faktoren der Beschreibung von einem Text des administrativen Aushanges gehören:

- 1) Textfunktion (reglementierend-direktive);
- 2) Charakteristika von Textverfasser und Leserschaft bzw. Autor und Rezipient, Adressant und Adressat (es gibt keinen konkreten Adressaten, es liegt die Mehrfachadressiertheit vor. Leserschaft ein größerer Kreis von mehr oder weniger spezifizierbaren Personen [1: 241]; der Leser des administrativen Aushanges ist meistens gleichzeitig die tätige Person; der kommunikative Status des Textverfassers ist meistens höher als der des Adressaten, das dem Autor leistet die Handlungen des Adressaten zu reglementieren; es besteht keine Kopräsenz von Autor und Rezipienten, sondern das

Kommunikat wird für eine räumlich, bzw. zeitlich getrennte, differente Rezeptionssituation verfasst);

3) Textstruktur (Anrede, präskriptive / restriktive / permissive sprachliche Handlung, Unterschrift, Danksagung);

4) spezifische sprachliche Merkmale (Direktheit: wortwörtlicher Ausdruck von der sprachlichen Handlung; sachlich-formaler Charakter; klišierte sprachliche Formel; Expressivitätslosigkeit; elliptische Sätze).

Die extralinguistischen (nichtverbalen / paraverbalen) Faktoren sind:

1) Substratum: materielle Existenzform des Aushanges (ein gelbes Schild in der deutschsprachigen Gegend; ein Din-A-4-Blatt Papier in der russischsprachigen Gegend). Zum Beispiel:



2) Träger des Substrates ("schwarzer Brett" von öffentlichen Einrichtungen, Lehrstuhl, Bauzaun usw.);

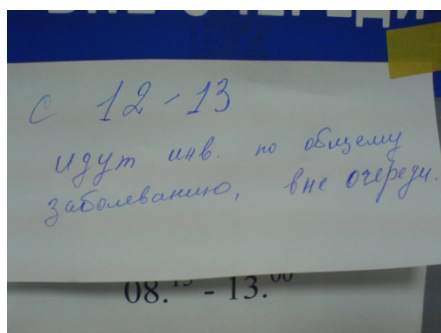
3) Grafisch-räumlicher Kriterium des Zeichens (Relation zu den anderen semiotischen Systemen – nonverbale Mittel: farbliche Markierung, Unterstreichungen, Besonderheiten des Druckschriftes);

4) Perlokution (bestimmte Handlungen des Adressaten, die als Folge des Lesens von dem Aushang entstehen, also die Wirkung, auf die der Text gerichtet ist). Dieser Aspekt kann im Rahmen dieser Untersuchung nicht beschrieben werden, aber im Kommunikationsprozesses muss berücksichtigt werden.

Untersuchung

Die administrativen Anzeigen als Genre der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede enthalten die Merkmale sowohl schriftlicher, als auch mündlicher Rede. Das Ziel des vorgelegten Artikels ist es, die Kennzeichen der Mündlichkeit in den administrativen Anzeigen zum Ausdruck zu bringen.

1) **Spontaneität, die sich linguistisch und außerlinguistisch äußert.** Das erste, was dabei zu erwähnen ist, ist die Auswahl des Stoffes, Substrates für die Anzeige. Da die deutschen Anzeigen meistens auf den gelben Blechschildern erscheinen, sind die russischen administrativen Anzeigen normalerweise auf den Din-A-4-Blatt ausgedruckt. Aber es gibt auch Ausnahmen, zum Beispiel:



Dieser Aushang lässt sich damit charakterisieren, dass es handschriftlich auf einem kleinen Blatt Papier geschrieben ist. Es enthält keine Unterschrift, wahrscheinlich weil dem Leser der Textverfasser schon bekannt ist dank der Stelle, wo der Aushang belegt ist: die Tür des Raums, wo der Arzt seine Praxis hat. Der Textproduzent möchte den Patienten, die zur Kategorie von Behinderten gehören, damit benachrichtigen, dass sie von 12 bis 13 Recht haben, ohne Reihe zum Arzt zu kommen. Für die anderen ist es eine Vorschrift, den Behinderten ohne Reihe kommen zu lassen. Mag sein, dass sich der Arzt mit dieser Information zuerst mündlich an die in der Reihe wartenden Patienten gewendet hatte, aber nach einigen Fällen des Unverständnisses hat beschlossen, diese Information schriftlich mitzuteilen, oder einfach um Erklärungen zu vermeiden, warum die Behinderten ohne Reihe rein dürfen. Die Art und Weise, wie der Text verfasst wurde (kleines Blatt, keine Anrede und andere Höflichkeitsformeln, Bezeichnung des Adressaten ist abgekürzt) zeugen davon, dass der Autor keine Zeit hatte den Text förmlich zu gestalten, also dieser ist spontan erschienen.

Für die deutschen Aushänge ist die Spontaneität untypisch.

2) **Syntaktische Nichtübereinstimmung der Sätze.** Dieses Merkmal hängt mit der Spontaneität zusammen und zeugt entweder davon, dass der Textverfasser nicht genug Zeit hatte, den Text richtig vorzubereiten und zu revidieren oder davon, dass der Autor den sachlichen Stil der Rede, den er nachzuvollziehen versucht, nicht beherrscht. Jedenfalls sind die beiden Varianten für Mündlichkeit kennzeichnend. Zum Beispiel:

(3) *Уважаемые квартиросъемщики! Оплачивая коммунальные услуги до 25 числа, Вашей фамилии здесь не будет и Вам не будет стыдно перед соседями.*

(4) *В связи с ремонтом парикмахерской укладка женщин будет производиться в мужском зале.*

Die deutschen Aushänge sind meistens sehr sorgfältig formuliert, um gute Verständlichkeit zu garantieren und dadurch Konflikt- und Zweifelfälle zu vermeiden.

3) Gebrauch von verbalen Sätzen:

(5) *Улыбнитесь! Вас снимает скрытая камера*☺

(6) *Macht mit! Haltet die Toilette (die Dusche) sauber!*

Besonderheit dieser Satzart liegt darin, dass sie eine Handlung ausdrücken, die mit einem Subjekt korreliert ist, das Subjekt selbst dabei aber explizit nicht bezeichnet ist [4: 151]. In beiden Belegen ist das Verb im Imperativ gebraucht, das "nicht nur den Prozess, Handlung oder Zustand bezeichnet, sondern Willensäußerung des Autors betreffs Erfüllung/Nichterfüllung der Handlung" von einer anderen Person [6: 13], was auf Adressatenbezug hinweist.

Der Beleg (5) enthält keine direkte Aufforderung, nur die Information, die den Adressaten erinnern soll, dass er videoüberwacht wird und deswegen die in dieser Institution geltenden handlungsreglementierenden Normen zu befolgen hat. Die Allusion zu einer früher sehr populären TV-Sendung wirkt positiv, wobei die Intention des Autors erzielt wird.

Im (6) Beleg ist die Benennung von einem konkretem Adressat vermieden, weil die Aufforderung alle Leser betrifft. Benutzung des Verbes "mitmachen" ist darauf gezielt, den Textrezipienten in eine Gruppe der Menschen mit gleichen Interessen, und zwar der Erhaltung von Sauberkeit, einzuschließen. Als Mitglied dieser Gruppe würde der Adressat kaum gegen den Regeln "seiner" Gruppe verstoßen.

Ein anderes Mittel, das als gruppenkonstituieren bezeichnet werden kann, ist Pronomen *wir* (vgl. Hoffmann, 1997), und Verwendung des Verbes in Form der 1. Person Plural, zum Beispiel:

(7) *Уважаемые читатели, по вопросам работы зала аудиовизуальных документов просим обращаться к консультантам зала исторических и филологических наук.*

In dem gegebenen Fall ist die Bitte mit dem Performativum *просить* in der Verbindung mit dem Infinitiv des Verbes, das die Handlung bezeichnet, dargestellt, was eher für die gesprochene Sprache typisch ist. Verwendung der persönlichen Form des Verbes weist unvermeidlich auf das Vorhandensein eines konkreten Textautores hin, der über bestimmte personenbezogene und soziale Eigenschaften verfügt, was bei der Rezeption des Textes eine bedeutende Rolle spielt. In der Bibliothek arbeitet ein Team von Fachleuten, die sich bemühen, die Dienstleistungen der Bibliothek zu Gunsten der Leser besser zu machen und die auch Gegenreaktion von diesen erwarten.

4) **Adressatenbezug: Anrede, Dialogorientierung.** Jeder Kommunikationsakt, sowohl mündlicher, als auch schriftlicher ist auf die Rezeption von einem Adressaten gerichtet [7], je nach dem Adressaten wählt der Textverfasser die Form und sprachliche Ausgestaltung, aber nur in der mündlichen Kommunikation wird der Adressat zur aktiven handelnden Person des Gespräches, an die Fragen gestellt werden, zum Beispiel:

(8) *Вошел? Уселся? Рассчитайся!!*

Text des Aushanges besteht hier aus 3 Verbalsätzen, die zwei von denen Fragesätze sind. Die Fragestellung dient hier dazu, die kommunikative Beziehung zu dem Rezipienten aufzubauen und zum Verständnis betreffs der auffordernden Handlung zu appellieren. Die Normen der Sprachetikette schreiben die Verwendung der Form der 2. Person Plural bei der Anrede zu einem unbekannten Menschen im öffentlichen Verkehr vor. In dem Beleg (5) aber wurde eine Du-Form bevorzugt, was einerseits die Formalität der Rede weicht und den kommunikativen Status der Kommunikanten gleichstellt, wobei die Distanz zwischen ihnen reduziert wird und demzufolge der Text auch effektiver wirkt. In diesem Falle hat drückt der verbale Satz die Semantik der Verallgemeinerung: der Textproduzent wendet sich nicht an einem konkreten Adressaten zu, sondern an jedem, der den Text des Aushanges liest.

Noch ein Zeichen für expliziten Adressatenbezug ist die Anrede, wobei sich an den Textrezipienten direkt adressiert wird, zum Beispiel:

(9) *Уважаемые гости РК «Шарики»! Самые ценные вещи, документы пусть останутся при Вас! Номерки стоят денег, поэтому берегите их!*

Auffällig in diesem Beispiel ist auch lexikalische Ausgestaltung und spezifische grammatische Formen: der Text ist vom Standpunkt des Gastes bzw. des Adressaten verfasst, dessen Interessen er scheinbar entspricht. Eigentlich widerspiegelt dieser Aushang eine für Russland ganz typische Kommunikationssituation: die Institutionen, wo es eine Kleiderablage gibt, möchten keine Haftung für den möglichen Verlust von den Wertsachen der Gäste übernehmen und bitten sie deswegen mitnehmen um Konfliktfälle zu vermeiden. Aber in meisten Fällen sieht der Text des Aushanges anders aus:

(10) *В гардероб не принимается одежда без вешалок, сумки, пакеты, шарфы, рукавицы. За содержимое карманов ответственности не несем.*

Die Textverfasser informieren die Textrezipienten über die in dieser Institution geltenden Normen und lassen eigentlich keine Auswahl: entweder sollen die Wertsachen aus den Taschen ausgenommen werden, oder wird die Kleidung in die Kleiderablage nicht eingenommen. Im Vergleich zu dem (10) Beleg wird im (9) derselbe Inhalt in Form eines Ratschlages ausgestaltet, der dazu noch die Begründung enthält. Dank dieser Taktik wird das Akzeptanzproblem vermieden [11: 202].

Die Formulierung mit dem Wort *нужно* wird in den schriftlichen Aushängen normalerweise nicht verwendet, weil sie von dem Rezipienten falsch interpretiert werden kann; nicht als eine Aufforderung, sondern als ein Wunsch. In diesem Beispiel aber stimmt die Lexik mit der ausgewählten Vertrauentaktik überein.

5) Danksagung wird auch im Rahmen der Vertrauentaktik gebraucht und ist für mündliche Rede charakteristisch. Zum Beispiel:

(11) *Спасибо, что Вы уступили место пожилым людям, пассажирам с детьми и инвалидам.*

(12) *Bitte keine Werbung danke!*

Die Anwendung der Taktik von Danksagen hat zum Zweck, zum einen, die Schärfe der Aufforderung zu mildern. Zum anderen, "Danksagen im Voraus" soll den potenziellen Rezipienten für das Erfüllen des Handels, für welche der Autor sich bei ihm schon bedankt hat, verantwortlich machen. Da das Danksagen schon erledigt ist, soll auch die Handlung rechtfertigt werden. Gestaltung des Aussagens nach den Regeln der Höflichkeit ist scheinbar als Freundlichkeit des Textverfassers zu dem Adressaten als Kommunikationspartner wahrzunehmen, der gleichberechtigte Position im Kommunikationsprozess einnimmt, was auch Akzeptanzproblem vermeiden lässt.

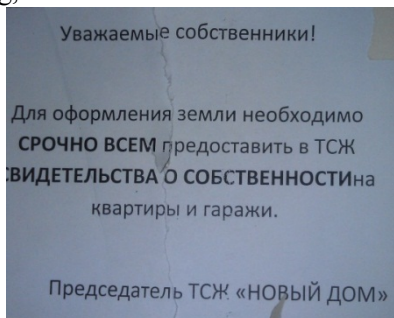
6) Erinnerung ist eine Taktik, die nicht direkt in das Handeln anderer Menschen eingreift, sondern mithilfe der Aktualisierung des beim Adressaten schon vorhandenen Wissens betreffs in dieser Institution geltenden Normen. Zum Beispiel:

(13) *При выходе из аудитории не забудьте выключить свет*

(14) *Selbst Hundebesitzer treten nicht gerne in Hundehaufen. Vergessen Sie also nie, das Geschäft Ihres Vierbeiniges zu beseitigen. Sonst wird es leider teuer. Da sind wir unerbittlich. Stadt Frankfurt am Main.*

Sowohl im Deutschen, als auch im Russischen erhalten die Aushänge, die illokutiv als Erinnerung zu lesen sind, durch die Form des Imperativs und der anhand des Verbes im Infinitiv explizit ausgedrückten Handlung den Charakter der Aufforderung. Zum einen wird durch Erinnerung die Wichtigkeit des Ergebnisses der im Aushang bezeichneten Handlung für den Rezipienten selbst veranschaulicht, dem bestimmte Konsequenzen androhen, wenn reglementierende Vorgaben nicht eingehalten werden. Zum anderen verbirgt der Ersatz der direkten Aufforderung durch die Erinnerung die Pflicht des Adressaten die Handlung zu Gunsten des Textverfassers zu erledigen. Der Aufbau bei dem Adressaten einer Illusion, dass seine Meinung von Bedeutung ist, hilft die geplante perlokutive Wirkung zu erzielen.

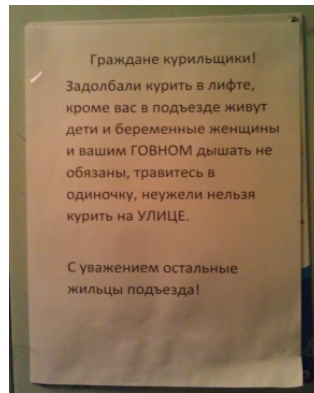
7) Expressivität wird in den schriftlichen Aushängen mit Hilfe von graphostilistischen Mittel ausgedrückt: Klein-/Großschreibung, Zeichensetzung, Fettdruck usw.



In dem dargestellten Beispiel akzentuiert der Textverfasser einige besonders wichtige Wörter mit Majuskeln. Dabei werden alle Höflichkeitsnormen eingehalten: der Aushang enthält die Anrede zur konkreten Gruppe der Personen, die Unterschrift, und selbst die auffordernde Handlung, die anhand des Wortes *срочно* verstärkt wird.

Im deutschen Aushang ist die verstärkte Emotionalität anhand der farbigen und schriftlichen Betonung der wichtigsten Information ausgedrückt. Die bunten Bilder auf dem Schild haben zum Zweck die Aufmerksamkeit des Lesers zu ziehen.

8) Androhungen, vulgäre Ausdrücke, Schimpfworte, Jargonismen gehören nicht zur Sprache des öffentlichen Verkehrs und sind normalerweise in den schriftlichen Anzeigen nicht zu treffen. Da aber der administrative Aushang eine schriftliche Textsorte, die durch die Mündlichkeit stark geprägt ist, enthält sie eine andere als normative Lexik, zum Beispiel:



Ergebnisse

Administrativer Aushang ist eine Textsorte, die zweierlei Funktionen – informative und handlungsreglementierende – ausübt, die durch öffentlich ausgehängte kurze schriftliche Mitteilungen zum Ausdruck gebracht werden. Als Kern der Textsorte *administrativer Aushang* treten sachlich-förmliche Texte, die den Leser zu einer bestimmten Handlung veranlasst und

der als Bündel verschiedener Merkmale in verschiedenen Typen der Diskursen beschrieben werden kann. Zu den textkonstitutiven Merkmalen gehören: Textfunktion (reglementierend-direktive); Charakteristika von Textverfasser und Leserschaft (der Leser des administrativen Anhangs ist meistens gleichzeitig die tätige Person; der kommunikative Status des Textverfassers ist meistens höher als der des Adressaten); Textstruktur (Anrede, präskriptive / restriktive / permissive sprachliche Handlung, Unterschrift, Danksagung); spezifische sprachliche Merkmale (Direktheit: wortwörtlicher Ausdruck von der sprachlichen Handlung; sachlich-formaler Charakter; klišierte sprachliche Formel; Expressivitätslosigkeit; elliptische Sätze); Substratum: materielle Existenzform des Aushanges (ein gelber Schild in der deutschsprachigen Gegend; ein Din-A-4-Blatt Papier in der russischsprachigen Gegend); Träger des Substrates ("schwarzes Brett" von öffentlichen Einrichtungen, Lehrstuhl, Bauzaun usw.); grafisch-räumlicher Kriterium des Zeichens (Relation zu den anderen semiotischen Systemen – nonverbale Mittel: farbliche Markierung, Unterstreichungen, Besonderheiten der Druckschrift); Perlokution (die extralinguistische Wirkung, auf die der Text gerichtet ist).

So der administrative Aushang lässt sich nicht nur vom Standpunkt der Textsortentheorie, sondern auch im Hinblick zu der materiellen Form und sprachlichen Wirkung erklären, was seine Beschreibung als eines Textes der natürlichen schriftlichen Rede bedingt. In den russischen Aushängen kommen die Merkmale der mündlichen Rede öfter als in den deutschen zum Ausdruck. Für die beiden Sprachen sind solche Kennzeichen der Mündlichkeit wie Expressivität und Dialogorientierung typisch. Diese kommen zum Vorschein durch die besonderen sprachlichen Taktiken der Danksagung und Erinnerung, die der Nähesprachstrategie entsprechen. Es gibt aber auch Texte, in denen eine Konfliktstrategie zum Schwerpunkt gelegt wird, die sich in Verwendung von Androhungen, vulgärer und Schimpfwörter äußert. Die Form des Aushanges, seine inhaltliche, formale und materielle Ausgestaltung wird vom Textverfasser in Bezug auf Textrezipienten in einer konkreten Kommunikationssituation ausgewählt. Adressatenbezug wird auch in Gebrauch von für die gesprochene Sprache typischen verbalen Sätzen und in Verwendung von Pronomen *wir* zur Bezeichnung des Textverfassers geäußert. Für die russischen administrativen Aushänge ist auch Spontaneität typisch, die den sprachlichen Ausdruck in der syntaktischen Nichtübereinstimmung der Sätze findet, was in der deutschen Sprache kaum der Fall ist. Von der Spontaneität zeugen auch Schriftweise und Auswahl des Stoffes: in diesem Zusammenhang sind handschriftliche Texte auffällig, die nicht auf üblichen A-4 Blätter, sondern auf den nicht dazu geeigneten Stoffen erscheinen.

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FEATURES OF THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE IN THE WRITTEN ANNOUNCEMENTS (IN RUSSIAN COMPARED WITH GERMAN)

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Abstract. The article is a result of research of Russian and German written announcements. As the research material serves an administrative announcement which is regarded as an informative-imperative speech genre mostly represented by short written texts placed in public places and aimed at inducing people to act. AA functions in different communicative spheres: in transport, shop, educational institutions, public catering establishments, on the streets and other public places where there is a need to manage people's behaviour. Depending on the communicative sphere, AA acquires proper lexical content and stylistics. Quite often the text of an announcement is composed in a short time, the conditions of the communicative situation don't allow the author to think long, so the text contains ultimately some features of the oral speech, which we have the aim to reveal and to describe in the present article. AA is a complex phenomenon, a text that combines natural and artificial principles and is aimed at certain extra-linguistic results. Perception of AA depends on material object, substratum (paper, signboard, etc.), type of writing (handwriting, type font, with pictures, highlighting with colour, etc.), location (notice board, transmission tower, wall in the lift, front door, etc.), and language form of expression. So the principles of the analysis include not only linguistic aspects, but also extra-linguistic. For the aims of the present research is used the integrative approach which contains methods of speech genre theory, speech act theory, discourse analysis, natural written language theory. Our research allows to make a conclusion that written announcements, in particular administrative announcements have different grade of officiality and contain some features of the spoken language such as spontaneity, expressivity, dialogic orientation, using of communicative tactics typical for the oral communication: thanking, reminding, threatening, also invectives can be used. At the linguistic level the features of the oral speech show themselves in syntactic incohesion of the sentence, using of verbal sentences. In Russian and in German hang these features not always together.

Keywords: speech genre; administrative announcement, specific genre-modelling characteristics, discourse, spoken language, modern communication, natural written language, language expression

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ROMANIZATION OF CHINESE HIEROGLYPHIC WRITING

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Abstract. This article deals with the concept of Romanization of Chinese hieroglyphic writing, the reasons and motives for it, as well as its potential benefits for modern Chinese society. Various arguments in favor of Romanization and its positive impact on the development of the People's Republic of China are adduced. A conclusion is made on the significance of Romanization for different spheres of Chinese society.

Keywords: Romanization; China; Chinese language; hieroglyphic writing.

Introduction

Chinese has always been seen as one of the most difficult languages to learn. For the most part it was due to its writing system, which is logographic. The symbols of logographic systems present the words themselves – words are not made up of various letters as in alphabetic systems [1]. This system is not only hard to learn *per se*, but also because it is utterly different from the familiar Latin or Cyrillic script.

China is a country with a 5000-year history and a culture considered to be unique and one of the most ancient in the world [2]. The seeming inaccessibility of the language made the culture seem inaccessible, and lack of cultural knowledge made it hard to understand the people, which affected China as a country on the global level for a long time. China was always somewhat isolated in terms of economic, political and cultural interaction, which caused some hardship to the country, and which, as we can infer, was always partially because of the language, and especially the writing system, and at some point in the twentieth century the Chinese started to realize that and made attempts to change the writing system in some way.

China's defeat in the Opium wars, as well as the Second Sino-Japanese war demonstrated the country's weakness and technical disadvantage [3]. The time before the revolution of 1911 can be seen as a time of uncertainty in China. There were many predictions about the ways of the country's further development in China itself, as well as abroad. The problems of language were as serious as many other issues, first of all, two closely connected ones: the problem of literary language and the problem of the writing system.

That situation was typologically very reminiscent of the one encountered by many civilizations at a certain stage of their development. Through-

out many centuries Latin, Greek, Church Slavonic, Classical Japanese (Bungo), Classical Arabic, etc. were the languages of world culture [4].

Chinese was not on that list because it was solely the language of Chinese culture. The traditional Chinese characters and writing system were very hard to learn, hence the language's inability to become a language of world culture.

V.M. Alekseyev points to the destruction of the traditional system in his book *Chinese Hieroglyphic Writing and its Romanization*. In 1905 "the abolition of the classical education system and state exams as the only way of starting a career in the government breached the hieroglyphic foundation and signified the beginning of its fall" [5: 57]. The main motives for the Romanization of Chinese writing were political.

The political motives for Romanization

The main parties that participated in discussing the question of changing traditional Chinese language:

- "The Radicals", who brought forward the proposal to replace Chinese with some Western language or Esperanto.
- "The Phonetic Transcription party" that wanted to continue using the Chinese language, but replace the hieroglyphic writing system with a new one based on European languages.
- "The Pedagogue party", who had ideas similar to those of "The Phonetic Transcription party", but planned to implement them differently.
- "The Neoclassical party" that wanted to keep using the hieroglyphic writing, but modernize the language by means of its partial simplification.
- "The Conservative party", which spoke in favor of continued use of the traditional Chinese hieroglyphic writing system and stood against any changes.

In China there were arguments between those who wanted the country to have only one standard language and those who wanted there to be a standard variety that would include standardized versions of all main dialects. Almost everyone, with the exception of the most devoted conservatives, understood that a "hieroglyphic language" was not suitable for modern life [5: 11]. It is worth noting that in the early 1950s, during a discussion of problems of the alphabet in China, a project of replacing the hieroglyphic writing system with a Cyrillic alphabet emerged, but even then the only project that was taken into serious consideration was the Romanization project, which was later rejected as well due to major contradictions between the parties [6].

The main contradictions

- Those who were for Romanization based their opinions on the fact that Chinese characters are connected to the old federal culture and the obs-

lete “hieroglyphic language”, which obstructed China’s development. In addition to that, the difficulty of the Chinese writing system required a longer period of education. That was the way in which many Chinese citizens (and not only communists), as well as the majority of foreigners, thought.

- Those who were against Romanization before all other things cared about preserving the millennia-old traditions. They rejected any changes because they could harm the national identity, as well as affect the development of the country.

V.M. Alekseyev mentions that previously “you could travel all across China with its many dialects possessing only the knowledge of the commonly used (especially in the phonetic compromise) so-called ‘Mandarin’ dialect” [5: 11]. It meant that people of different provinces spoke structurally different languages that had a common foundation, which impeded communication with foreigners who studied only a specific dialect, as well as one’s compatriots. Because of this the norms of a new standard language one could use to speak and write began to develop. There was the term “Putonghua” (literally “the common speech”), which was eventually adopted by the People’s Republic of China to refer to the standardized language. The language was connected with both the hieroglyphic writing and Latin script, which did not contradict the neoclassicals’ views.

V.M. Alekseyev wrote in favor of a common language: “Later they will say that a person from Sichuan Province, who was taught in his dialect and who got acquainted with the English language during his education, will be more a citizen of the world, than a citizen of China, to which, in the absence of hieroglyphic writing, nothing can connect him” [Ibid.: 53-54].

A famous Chinese revolutionary poet Xiao San wrote in his article “The Romanization of Chinese writing” that Chinese hieroglyphic writing is nothing but an archaic vestige of the ancient feudalism, a symbol of the centuries of slavery, a weapon of enslavement of the working masses used by the ruling class. “Characters are an obstacle to raising the political and cultural level of the workers and the peasants of China, and only the revolutionary proletariat and peasantry masses will revolutionize Chinese writing,” he said [7: 34].

“Mandarin” could not be seen as a native language for the majority of Chinese people, it could not be forced upon them, just as non-Russian citizens of the USSR could not be forced, as it was believed at that time, to speak Russian [5: 61]. Thus, the common language still was divided into different dialects. The only thing left to do was to develop a unified writing system, which would serve as the foundation for all the provincial dialects.

In reality, there were only two possibilities: to keep the characters (unchanged or reformed) and to Romanize the writing. Attempts were made to reform the writing based on the principles of Japanese Kana, but, since the political motives were dominant, that was rejected due to contentious relations between China and Japan and anti-Japanese propaganda [7: 34].

The development of the “Pinyin” system began in the period following the founding of the People’s Republic of China in 1949. It was approved and adopted by the PRC’s government in 1958. In 1982 the Pinyin system was adopted by ISO, which allowed China to reach a higher position in international relations [8].

The positive aspects of the Romanization; the usage of Pinyin in modern-day China

Despite many contradictions, most of the arguments were pro-Romanization, partly because Chinese hieroglyphic writing had more problems than benefits.

The main problems of traditional Chinese writing:

1. The vast number of characters.
2. The complexity of the characters.
3. The characters are hard to memorize.
4. The characters are hard to learn.
5. The archaic nature of the characters.
6. The inconvenience for transcribing human speech.

The problems of Chinese hieroglyphic writing led Europeans to “abruptly isolate themselves from Chinese culture in general, and from its written culture as well, leaving it ‘behind the Great Wall of China’, they viewed the culture of China as fundamentally alien to their spirit and comprehension, unapproachable and not meant to be approached” [5: 5-6]. Therefore, the Chinese government and linguists had to build such a writing system, which would not be a barrier between the East and the West.

Even though the Chinese writing system had many problems, hieroglyphic writing had some positive aspects that needed to be taken into consideration whilst reforming the writing.

The positive aspects of the Chinese hieroglyphic writing system:

1. Written words take up much less space compared to alphabetic writing.
2. It is possible to guess the character’s meaning based on its graphical form.
3. The characters are strictly structured, which makes the process of memorizing them easier.

The convenience of Pinyin

One character is one syllable. There are a limited number of syllables in the Chinese language. There are a total of around 320 syllables, and if one knows how to pronounce all of them, they know how to pronounce every word in the Chinese language. The system includes Latin script-

interpretations of the pronunciation of every character-syllable. Every syllable consists of the beginning part – the initial (a consonant), and the ending part – final (a vowel or a combination of a vowel and a consonant, or a combination of two or three vowels). There are a total of 21 initials and 36 finals in Chinese language, different combinations of which form all the syllables.

Examples of Pinyin transcription:

中国 – zhōng guó – China (literally “central state”);

汉语 – hàn yǔ – Chinese language (literally “the language of the Han dynasty”);

北京 – běi jīng – Beijing (literally “the northern capital”);

上海 – shàng hǎi – Shanghai (literally “on the sea”);

风水 – fēng shuǐ – Feng shui (literally “wind and water”).

Pinyin is significant to contemporary China; the system is used in many spheres of Chinese society.

Spheres of usage of Pinyin:

1. In everyday life: street name plates and metro station plates use Pinyin to make city orientation in cities easier for both Chinese and foreigners.

2. In mobile phones and computers Pinyin is used to type Chinese characters (the user types in the transcription and chooses the needed character from the list).

3. In dictionaries, reference and study books.

4. In mass media, proper nouns and the names of ethnic minorities are written using Pinyin.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Romanization of Chinese hieroglyphic writing made it easier for people of other countries to study the Chinese language, which breached the inaccessibility of Chinese culture for people who speak other languages. Language and culture are closely related to each other. It is quite a difficult task to feel a language and the way of thinking of its native speakers. At the same time it is the only way to understand those people whose language one studies, and avoid some certain misunderstandings which are the natural result of the studying of a foreign culture. This happens because we are the representatives of some particular culture and, whatever we do, our language and our culture make us think in a certain way, determining our thoughts, even when we are in the process of acquiring knowledge and understanding of some another culture [9]. When it became easier to study the language and the culture, it became easier to understand the people, which improved China’s relations with European countries, and

its position on the list of world cultures. It also improved the overall quality of education in China, since it helped students who speak different dialects understand each other, teachers, study books, etc.

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PORTUGUESE MILITARY DISCOURSE IN BRAZIL

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Abstract. This article considers Portuguese military discourse in Brazil, and also the material, which is essential while teaching Portuguese to military interpreters. The history of the replenishment of an all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon is presented here. The most important periods of formation of Portuguese military discourse in Portuguese-speaking countries is considered. The influence of loanwords on all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon is described.

Keywords: military discourse; military interpreter; Portuguese; military-technical lexicon; loanword.

Introduction

The formation of the Brazilian version of the Portuguese language as well as national versions of other languages was primarily due to social factors – geographical and further political division of a single society. Since Brazil has been a colony of Portugal for a long time being isolated, there is no doubt that foreign policy factors influenced the formation of a military discourse since military-technical vocabulary is an integral part of the vocabulary of Portuguese. This vocabulary originated as the result of a long historical process, as a complex language formation, the development of which was determined, on the one hand, by the laws of development of military affairs and history of the Portuguese-speaking society, on the other hand – by patterns and conditions of the development of this language.

Terminology

Complex consideration of military terminology presupposes the solution of a range of interconnected tasks, such as the identification of sources of origin of military terminological units (TU) in Portuguese; the description of the development of an all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon (MTL) and its basis at the beginning of the process of the differentiation in the language of its national versions; the establishment of characteristic methods of military-terminological nomination at certain stages of the history of Portuguese and its national versions; the typology of semantic processes that took place in diachrony at the stage of acquir-

ing military terminology in European Portuguese (PE) and Brazilian Portuguese (PB) of nationally specific traits.

The following terms and terminological units that are part of the all-Portuguese military-terminological lexicon dates to the initial period of the formation of Portuguese military terminology (up to the 19th century):

- names related to the organization and construction of the armed forces, for example: *forças, armas, corpo; cavalaria, artilharia, infantaria, esquadra, esquadrão, armadas, frota*;

- describing servicemen according to their professional status and professional characteristics, for example: *almirante, capitão do mar, marechal general, general em chefe, alferes, tenente, soldado, marinheiro, grumete*;

- names of types of combat operations, methods of conducting these operations, tactical maneuvers, combat formation of troops, for example: *defesa, ataque, defender, atacar, abrir (fazer) brecha, sitiar, emboscada, praça de armas, posição, retaguarda, vanguarda, flanquear*;

- names of weapons and their nomenclature, etc., for example: *espingarda, boca de fogo, canhão, tubo, bala, fecho, carregar, carregamento pela boca, reparo, disparar*.

All these terms were formed, primarily, under the influence of external factors; that is, they are connected with the necessity of generating and fixing in the language new designations associated with military affairs. The analyzed material enables us to make a conclusion that in the initial period of the formation of Portuguese military terminology (15-19th centuries), the development of a relatively integral and organized system of means for the expression of military concepts was started, and the creation of a basic lexicon of military terminology of Portuguese began.

The most important extralinguistic factor, which directly influenced the replenishment of the all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon, was the rapid scientific and military-technical progress of the 19-20th centuries.

Firstly, it caused significant changes in the technology of production of conventional weapons systems, for example, artillery and small arms in developed countries. This caused the necessity of translating all this kind of information in another language, for example, English or Russian. As a result, military interpreters appeared since military cooperation was established between the USSR and Great Britain, Spain and Portugal [1, 2].

Secondly, it contributed to the emergence of fundamentally new types of armament and combat equipment: submarines, automatic small arms, aviation, armored vehicles, etc. The majority of the new systems were adopted for service by modern armies at that time practically simultaneously. This could also be due to allied relations between groups of countries in peace-

time or their participation, such as, for example, Portugal and Brazil, in world wars on the side of one of the opposing forces.

Thirdly, military and technical progress has led not only to improving the means of armed struggles, but also to qualitative changes in the structure of the armed forces: the emergence of new armed services and arms, and also changes in military specialties.

Therefore, during the period under consideration, the most intensive process of replenishment of the all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon was observed in the following areas:

- names of armament systems and combat materiel: *espingarda de repetição*, *espingarda automática*, *metralhadora*, *cano raiado*, *cartucho metálico*, *carro de combate*, *avião de caça*, *bombardeiro*, *submarino*, *couraçado*, *encouraçado*, *torpedeiro*;

- names related to the structure of the armed forces, armed services and arms, for example: *Força Aérea*, *artilharia antiaérea*, *Corpo de paraquedistas*, *Cavalaria Blindada*, *Transmissões*, *Esquadra s de Submarinos*, *Batalhão Mecanizado*;

- designations of servicemen according to their professional characteristics, for example: *piloto-aviador*, *piloto-navegador*, *radista*, *telegrafista*, *paraquedista*.

All these terms designate new military and technical concepts related to the development of armament systems, for example: *extração do invólucro vasio*, *depósito girante do revólver*, *escorva de composição fulminante*.

Models of a higher stage of production were not found. This is obvious because the synchrony of the terminological combination of the third stage of production is often represented by neologisms and usually belong to the sphere of functioning or, according to Golovin's definition, "speech terms" [3].

Speaking about the loaning of terms as a way of replenishing the Portuguese military-technical lexicon, we will concentrate only on some aspects of this problem that are important for our study, because there are too many factors, which can influence loaning as, for example military occupation or the adoption of a new religion [4].

The results of the conducted analysis of military terminology prove that the national element has always played a dominant role in its composition. According to our calculations, loanwords in the general core of military-technical lexicon amount to 20-25% of the total number of TU. We suppose that these terms can be considered to be loanwords only from the point of view of their origin. In the modern period they are recognized by native speakers as "national" lexical units and entered the military sub-language so organically, that, according to R.A. Budagova, they "remain foreign language elements only in the sense of etymology" [5].

The question of the nature and conditions of the course of the semantic changes in assimilated terms, the dependence of these processes on the time of loaning (synchrony or diachrony), in our opinion, has not yet been finally determined and apparently needs further research [6, 7]. It is more important for the purposes of our research that loanwords have become one of the reasons for the emergence of terminological synonyms in the general core of the military-technical lexicon. For example: boca de fogo (P) – peça de artilharia; força (P) – tropa; míssil (P) – foguete; fuzil – espingarda; tripulação (P) – equipagem [8].

Finishing our brief consideration of loanwords as a way of enriching the Portuguese military-technical lexicon, we note that having gained national independence, Brazil rather quickly reoriented to military cooperation with English-speaking countries. In Portugal, this change was completed only by the middle of the 20th century. This gives reason to consider that in the Brazilian military-technical lexicon English-origin loanwords (assimilated and non-assimilated) played a far greater role than in the Portuguese military-technical lexicon.

Conclusion

In the article, Portuguese military discourse in Brazil was described, as well as the way how foreign policy relations influenced greatly the development of political military discourse throughout the development of Brazil in different periods of time. Also, the most significant periods of replenishment of the all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon were considered. Examples were also provided of the areas, which were replenished by new words and consideration was given to the process of formation of Portuguese military language. The characteristics of the all-Portuguese military-technical lexicon were introduced.

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THE CHANGING ATTITUDES TO THE PHENOMENON OF DISABILITY IN RUSSIAN CULTURE AND PHILOSOPHICAL THOUGHT

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Abstract. The paper advances a thesis that the problem of disability is actively discussed at present not only in medicine, psychology and psychotherapy, but also in philosophy. This is explained by the anthropological turn that the contemporary philosophical thought is taking, and which makes it different from the classical period of development, when it displayed a purely rational and only logical interest in the essence of human being. The philosophical keenness on reason is now complemented with close attention to the problem of corporality, and, therefore, we may speak about including disability into the prerogative of the philosophical research.

Keywords: disability; illness; social well-being; the Other; cultural attitudes; philosophical anthropology.

Introduction

Disability, that is, “the otherness of individuation” presents itself as an extremely acute problem not only because nowadays it draws to itself the attention of politicians and social workers, but because it has found itself in the center of the contemporary philosophical and anthropological themes, which experience a post-metaphysical state and which include corporality as a legitimate research subject into the sphere of philosophical knowledge.

Since general philosophical principles are independent from political and ideological preferences and are based on metaphysics, they determine an essential vision of posing and solving any question. Certainly, national and historical specificity lays its sociocultural imprint on the philosophical vision of the problem of disability, but a philosophical invariant is retained in any mentality and any culture. The invariant community is based in this case on the philosophy of corporality, and understanding and practical solution of the question of disability are found depending on how the body has been viewed in the history of philosophy and on the attitude taken to it today. In this connection, it must be noted that an interest in disability problems was not characteristic for the classical period of the history of philosophy, as classical philosophy, starting from the times of antiquity, considered the body unworthy of being a subject of philosophy. Its subject was Logos-Reason. And, on the contrary, contemporary philosophy in its anthropological turn has seen

the disabled person as a subject of its interest in the methodology of studying the world.

The aim of the paper is to provide a philosophical and anthropological substantiation of the attention to the problem of disability, which is displayed by public circles of various countries. More specifically, the paper aims to answer the question about the changes in contemporary philosophy that have contributed to medical sciences and social sciences (sociology, social psychology, politology, cultural studies etc.), taking up disability as a subject of their research.

Subject and methods of research

The subject of this paper's research is the disabled body in the notions of classical metaphysics (from Classical Antiquity to the 20th century) and in contemporary post-metaphysical philosophical thought.

The research method is comparativism of philosophical and anthropological problems, comparing the attitude of philosophy to the research into the notion of the disabled body at different stages in the history of philosophy.

The authors' hypothesis is that a lack of attention to disability in the history of philosophy is explained by the primary classical philosophical intention to Reason. It is necessary to answer the question of how changes in the style of philosophical thinking manifest themselves in the character of scientific cognition of the world, influence the choice of the object of research in general and how, in particular, they have influenced the choice of such an object of research interest as the disabled person.

Classical philosophy, manifesting itself as gnoseology, was searching for ontological truth rationally purified from various sensual and corporeal features. The body in its states of health or illness perceives the world differently, and, therefore, it was considered that it could distort truth. As a consequence, it was proposed to ignore it in the process of cognition, which was regarded as a purely intellectual activity. Socrates' thesis, which has reached us due to Plato's dialogues, that "in death you are at home" speaks exactly about this necessity. As a philosophy of "pure reason" (Immanuel Kant), classical philosophy in its gnoseological part did not allow any corporeal strata.

It was only the 20th century that provided the foundation for complementing the philosophy of consciousness with the philosophy of corporality, the latter bringing forth new research problems. The problem of the disabled body has found itself among the new philosophical problems: disability has entered philosophy as a legitimate object of research in its own right. Among the first who called attention to the "disabled body" was Michel Foucault [1-3]. Contemporary philosophers researching general problems of the philosophy of the body include Jean-Luc Nancy [4], Maurice Merleau-Ponty [5], Emmanuel Levinas [6], Valery A. Podoroga [7] and others. Some of the as-

pects of this problem, e.g. gastronomy or gastronomic culture, have attracted research interest of J.-F. Revel [8], M.V. Dobrovolskaya [9], M.V. Kapkan [10], I.V. Sokhan [11] and others. A group of scholars researching the gender aspect of the problem of corporality includes T.A. Klimenkova [12], A. Rondarev [13], A. Nikonov [14], S. Firestone [15] and J. Kristeva [16]. Disability as the subject of research is presented in the works of Beate Fieseler [17], M.G. Muravyova [18], E. Iarskaya-Smirnova [19], P.V. Romanov [20] and Y.E. Barlova [21]. These authors draw attention to disability in the context of asocial problems (war, pauperism, poverty etc.) and raise the questions of charity. They are also concerned with social and medical questions of illness and social security.

It can be stated that despite the widespread understanding of the significance of the disability theme it has not been sufficiently investigated. Particularly, it may be said about Russia as a part of the world. Due to well-known historical reasons, disability, even though it was within the research field of Russian academics, could not be accorded full and objective attention in concrete research work, since its findings could have led to undesirable results for the prestige of the country and its ruling circles (the magnitude of the problem, social insecurity, lack of attention to questions of psychological adaptation etc). However, recently disability has attracted to itself theoretical understanding, which is being embodied in concrete scientific and practical results.

Obtained results

The problem of the body in classical philosophy

The tradition of expulsion of the body from philosophy came from Ancient Greece, and it was connected with the leading philosophical theme, Logos-Reason. Reason was directed towards the rational cognition of the world, which had not to be burdened with sensory strata, as the latter obscured the search for Truth. Truth was opening to Reason only from the depth of metaphysics. Reason, of course, could also cognize the body, but in rational cognition the body presented itself as a rational construction – its eidos. In the indicated ideal, the body in antique culture found its place either in the spheres of art – in the works of painters and sculptors, or sport – in gymnastic exercises, serving the training of youths for war, which in those times had to be waged almost continuously. The body was the body of Reason. Seen in such philosophical modus, the body had to be perfect, beautiful and strong, and it had to reject any non-similarity and otherness as compared with the body that had been created by the laws of Idea-Eidos. It could not be mutilated, deformed and horrible. The notion of corporal perfection, of the healthy body, of its formation and achieving complete mastery over it –

was at the base of Greek medicine and medicalization of the entire Greek culture. But the healthy body interested medicine and philosophy, first of all, as the body for a healthy mind: “a healthy mind in a healthy body”. This approach was used in the practices of the great physicians of antiquity – Hippocrates and Galen. Revulsion towards corporal weakness and an unhealthy body was initiated by the Platonian divarication of the world and the suggestion to connect truth, beauty and good only with the metaphysical, ideal world, as well as to reject all “the other”, invalid, as repulsive, evil and untrue, to reject it as the low world of opinions, that is the world of non-knowledge. Weak, ailing and unhealthy “others” – invalids – did not enter the sphere judicious aristocratism. Thus, at the very start of its road, philosophy, having found Reason and emphasizing it, laid down the way of thinking, according to whose laws a culture was created that rejected corporeal problems.

The same principle of attitude to health with emphasis on the health and beauty not of the body but of the spirit was retained also in Middle Ages. The spirit (or mind) was in the center of anthropological, rational philosophical and religious investigations. “The Other” was associated with irrational and non-spiritual and, therefore, deficient. Thus, disability was considered as a deviation from Ratio, as a spiritual imperfection instilling fear and dread. “The Other” manifested itself as something ugly, monstrous and dreadful.

Thus, philosophy as the dominant of antiquity set an algorithm of a negative attitude to the problem of unhealthy and disabled body in culture.

Posing the problem of the body in contemporary philosophy

But the 20th century placed philosophy before comprehending the new anthropological situation when the notion of the human being reduced to a classical transcendental subject lost its power, and humans found themselves not only in the sphere of the ideal – conscience and spirit, but gave to their material and corporal existence its due. The body and corporality acquired legitimation in the area of philosophical reasoning not on the conditions of a deviation from the ideal of a perfect body (which generated contempt as the subject of the doxa), but as an anthropological problem within the competence of philosophy. The 20th century proved to be the start of a new thought about the body.

Changes in the philosophical thinking of the 20th century were connected with deconstructive processes in philosophy: the philosophical reason acquired the quality of tolerance – of the tolerant attitude towards “the Other”. There arose the problem not only of the mind, but of the body. The body presented itself as one of the vital and central problems addressed by philosophy. It was at that time that the task of its substantiation, realization and the development of a theoretical concept was set [22].

Thus, contemporary philosophy includes the body into its range of research problems. Humans are spiritual and corporeal beings. And if classical philosophy engaged in theoretical reflection of *homo sapiens*, *homo faber* etc., contemporary philosophy, inheriting this base, creates on it a living human presence, *Dasein* (see Heidegger, [23]).

This seemingly apparent theoretical proposition entered philosophy in the 20th century, and made scholars rethink its metaphysical orientation in emphasizing the ontological range of problems. New research directions in philosophy provided a stimulus for a new attitude to the problem of corporeality due to the same new perspective on reason. First of all, a legitimation of the sensory stage of thinking took place, which led to the understanding of the unity of corporeal and sensory aspects. The intellect presented itself in an emotional way. “The emotional intellect” asserted the impossibility of the “pure reason”, on the one hand, and – of the “pure contemplation”, on the other hand. New philosophical directions emerged, which, in their turn, stimulated a new attitude to the given problem. Nowadays, the view of reason is reconsidered when a necessity is obviated for its “hermeneutic inoculation” [24] and the non-identity of the notions of conscience and spirit is revealed. It is affirmed that human beings are coming out into the world, get in contact with it and find themselves in accord with it by means of sensory perception [5]. The body with which a person gets in contact with the Other [Ibid.] and with which it “thinks” [25] creates a need for seeing the world as not only born from transcendental height by a regulative reason but for feeling it corporeally. An individual gets in contact with being in a sensorial way, experiences pleasure, joy and happiness. Or on the contrary, he or she experiences pain, suffering or grief. It is here – in the existentials of the internal world of the individual – that philosophy has found the beginnings of human life.

Attention to the body on the side of contemporary philosophy and philosophical anthropology has initiated addressing the problem of disability, which is subjected to reflection and which problematizes the classical idea of human beings only in their rational, reasonable essence.

Disability is a corporeal experience of individuals, who are aware of existing on the border between being and non-being. The borderline is experienced by means of a dramatic fullness of a person’s existential world. A disabled individual is aware of his or her otherness. His or her life’s drama is in that he or she is different and that what he or she feels is unaccessible to others and, therefore, a disabled individual must look for a life support only in himself or herself.

Thus, disability is one of the vital problems of philosophical anthropology, and disability research differs from classical anthropological perspective, which displayed only rational and purely logical interest in the essence of a human being. At present, we may speak about including disability

as a problem of corporality in philosophy, which has never shown any interest in disability in the past and has not paid it much attention.

It must be noted, however, that having come in the limelight, disability as a problem of corporality has not yet become a dominant theme among those that have come into philosophy, having broken its primary emphasis on reason. Much greater attention in philosophical and culturological range of problems is paid to the sphere of corporeal practices and techniques. An active propaganda of the healthy way of life, of the beautiful body, body-building and body art, as well as the importunity of recipes for slimming and attention to dancing culture etc. – all these are manifestations of contemporary interest in the problem of corporality. In the same perspective, we should view the processes and procedures biologizing the anthropological range of problems which are actively discussed in media and social networks: change of sex, plastic operations, creonics, transhumanism, surrogate motherhood etc.

Having emerged as a problem of corporal pathology, disability has not received the positive connotation that has become characteristic of the problem of corporality on the whole. And the disabled body is still considered from a negative perspective, or social attention is drawn to it with a certain shade of pity and secondariness. Even today solving this problem is encumbered with a historical burden of defining disability as some form of otherness in relation to reasonableness. Philosophy, as a cultural dominant of antiquity, having set an algorithm of attitude to the problem of disability in culture, does not give it up.

However, interest in defining the notion of “a disabled person” is displayed nowadays, apart from philosophy, by other spheres of cultural life. Therefore, defining this notion depends not only on the state of philosophy and the solving abilities of its style of thinking, which is setting concrete borders to reflecting on some problems, including this one. Understanding disability depends to a large degree on the character of the political regime, the economic state of society, national mentality and cultural traditions, which have been formed in the course of history. Disability is an interdisciplinary problem. In Russia, it arises not only as a medical problem but, first of all, as a problem of social life.

Thus, it was not only a philosophical negation of the body that lay at the basis of the notion of “a disabled person” in Russia in the period of Stalin’s authoritarian rule, when the anthropological problem was reduced in its content to understanding a human being purely as a “productive unit”. Moreover, the regime’s ideological orientation, which strove to conceal its negative aspects, consciously refused to regard the problem of disability as demanding solution. Disability ceased to be considered or was ignored from the perspective of human health, and acquired exclusively a meaning associated with industrial production. For this reason, for example, in the Soviet

manual about labor placement of invalids [26], groups of disability were set and criteria indicated for referring a disabled person to one of them. The criteria were based not on individuals' state of health, but on the degree of their ability to carry out production activities (Fieseler, [17]. As for the *Letter of Instruction about the Work of the Medical Labor Commission of Experts in Wartime* [27], disability as a corporeal problem is not mentioned at all, but the document speaks about the social problem of ability to work. Such substitution has been finding its cynical justification in the suggestion to understand labor as a health-building procedure [28: 611].

When speaking about the contemporary state of the research into the problem of disability in Russia, it can be stated that in 1990s the question of disabled person's identity was brought up as a matter of urgency. The task was in identifying disability as a philosophical and an anthropological problem. Philosophy demonstrated its interest in a disabled person, first of all, as in a human being who in case of illness stays as such. The illness of the disabled persons certainly influences their identities. But an influence, whether social or physiological (e.g., on the basis of gender, social inequality, age) is experienced by other groups of people, and a disabled person must not differ from others in this respect. He or she is as much the "Other", as every individual is the "Other". A philosophical and anthropological approach to the problem of disability has stimulated other spheres of knowledge to look not only for the medical aspect of its solution, but to treat disabled persons from the point of view of including them into an active social life. A disabled person's adaptation is understood as feasible for realization if it is taking place in a situation of refusal from considering disability as a medical diagnosis and an illness, and, on the contrary on the basis of accepting disabled persons as equal to other groups of people and including them in an active social life. Such is the leitmotif of contemporary research in this problem's field.

Conclusion

There are two channels in every mentality through which politics, social relations and power can use the problem of corporality in their concrete interests: pain and pleasure. Using these levers, the state, society and separate social groups can manipulate individuals. The disabled person perceives society through such kind of sensorial feelings – through pain. The humanism of philosophical knowledge has revealed itself in its initiative attention to the problem of disability. It is the character and direction of philosophical and anthropological knowledge that determine to a great extent the practical solution of providing disabled persons with such living conditions in which they would not feel their social otherness.

An analysis carried out from the positions of philosophical anthropology brings us to the conclusion that the researchers in the fields of social and behavioral sciences should render more active their research on the theme of disability. Joint and interdisciplinary research will allow scientists to work out theoretically characteristics of disability, which, in its turn, can contribute to the relevant answers to the questions: “What is a human being?”, “What is a specific nature of human existence?” and “What does it mean to be human?”

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DICKENSIAN MOTIFS IN TOLSTOY'S AND DOSTOYEVSKY'S AESTHETIC FRAMEWORK

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Abstract. The paper dwells on the attempt to highlight the moral and spiritual aspects in Dickens's writing and their reflectance in Tolstoy's and Dostoyevsky's prose. The creative development of both novelists had been marked by acute interest in both the personality of Charles Dickens and his creative legacy. The Dickensian works were the source of inspiration for both writers being coordinated with their moral and spiritual grounds. The paper contains a sketch of the chief motifs that are common for all the three classics based on comparative analysis of texts, as well as on archive materials. The chief motifs under description are fear; crime and redemption; tragic beauty entwined with false pride.

Keywords: literary comparison; linguo-poetic analysis; Christian motifs; aesthetic reception and reminiscences; Charles Dickens; Tolstovian and Dostoyevskian artistic framework.

Introduction

According to Vladimir Nabokov's vision of Russian literary legacy (which is famous for its poignant and precise observations [1]), "Tolstoy and Dostoyevsky represent the two poles of Russian literary framework; whereas the former is the light incarnated and the latter seems more like a gloomy sufferer who repeatedly placed Jesus Christ the Saviour into every work of his. Yet, both of them are centered around one stem by name of Christianity – the great spiritually and emotionally charged tradition that granted and is still granting hope to the mankind" [Ibid.: 433]. The present paper dwells on an attempt at sketching the chief Christian motifs of Leo Tolstoy and Fyodor Dostoyevsky, the two literary geniuses of Russia, and establishes their links to the similar motifs in the English novelism, namely, in the one by Charles Dickens. This very choice is stipulated by the fact that becoming aware of the latest English literary novelties was a remarkable trait of Russian nobility and high-class social circles. Thus, Dostoyevsky's words serve as a vivid and persuasive proof of the aforementioned lofty habit:

"We understand Dickens in Russia, I am convinced, almost as well as the English, and maybe even all the subtleties; maybe even we love him no less than his own countrymen..." [2: 69].

A yet more expressive evidence lies in the words of an anonymous critic:

“The Russians can be proud of the fact that it is we who know Dickens more and better than other nationalities – and it is we who have managed to be the best translators of his works” [2: 319].

I.F. Hapgood, a famous translator of *Childhood, Adolescence, Youth* and other Tolstoy’s works, who visited Yasnaya Poliana in 1898, confirms Tolstoy’s high appreciation of Dickens. She noted that the Russian writer was “very critical of all English and American writers”. According to Hapgood, it was only Dickens who appealed to Tolstoy. The great Russian writer even told her that there were three conditions to becoming a good novelist: “There should be a subject to talk about, original skill of writing, and honesty. Dickens is a combination of all these three factors” [3: 576]. The great influence of Dickens on Tolstoy’s life and work is proved by the fact that, at the end of Tolstoy’s life, in response to “comment on writers in a new foreign edition of *Writers about Writers*, Tolstoy said:

“If I... had had time I would have written about Dickens, as he made me happy and influenced my state of mind” [4: 324-325].

The interpretation of the Christian teaching of ‘good’ and ‘evil’ by Dickens and the literary realization of evangelic morality were of great value to Tolstoy. The relentless interest of young Tolstoy in Dickens was inspired by similar moral principles, depth of outlook, and power of psychological analysis.

Methods

While analysing the Dickensian motifs and observing their reflection in the Russian classic novelism, we resorted to a number of methodological techniques, namely:

- a descriptive method;
- a comparative method which is necessary to reveal the common features of the two literary frameworks;
- a linguo-poetic method aimed at the analysis of literary form (in contrast to linguo-stylistic method aimed at the analysis of language units functioning within a literary work) [5: 19-53];
- a component analysis method that implies revealing the main structural parts of literary form (i.e., motif, image, plot, composition, character portrayal, etc.).

Research and Results

Christianity and Fear. Among the other spiritual traditions, Christianity stands out as the one focused on suffering rather than bliss as distinct from oriental religions [6: 232]. An exemplification of suffering can be found in the notion of fear. Both Dickens and Tolstoy opposed the ‘forced

education' concept that was based on the fear of punishment. The Dickensian tones and motifs enrich the episodes depicting Princess Marya's lessons with her father, as well as Seriozha Karenin's lessons. We believe that these two motifs were borrowed from David Copperfield lessons with Mr. Murdstone, his stepfather, – which were vividly received and praised by Russian readers and later reflected in Russian aesthetic endeavour. "A study of the drafts of Tolstoy's novels confirms the suspicion that problems of structure and composition were often in the forefront of his thoughts <...> There is no doubt that he [Tolstoy] seized avidly at any confirmation of his ideas in other people's work and even borrowed their examples" [7: 37].

The general atmosphere of David's father lessons to a certain extent resembles the Tolstoy's description of relations between Princess Marya and her father, old Prince Bolkonsky. David reminisces the malicious moments when he began "to feel the words I have been at infinite pains to get into my head, all sliding away. <...> I hand the first book to my mother. Perhaps it is a grammar, perhaps a history or geography. I take a last drowning look at the page as I give it into her hand... I trip over a word. Mr. Murdstone looks up. I trip over another word. <...> but I am not successful with the second, for I am very stupid. I tumble down before I get to the old place, at a point where I was all right before, and stop to think" [8: 380].

This remarkable interior monologue filled with abundance of emotions and subtle analysis of fear growth can serve as a direct parallel to self-conscious behavioral patterns of Princess Marya:

"Deeply terrified, Princess looked at the closely set sparkling eyes of her father; red spots travelled throughout her face, and it was obvious that she did not understand a single word being so scared that fear would never allow her to comprehend the further broodings of her father, as filled with clarity as they might be. Be it the teacher to blame, be it the student's overall guilt, yet, every day it was one and the same again: Marya's eyes fainted, and she could not either see or hear..." [9: 68-69].

Crime and Redemption. Another characteristic trait of Christianity is the intention to act out. Christian ideology is not contemplative but interactive, and both the root and target of every action we take lies the in ultimate salvation attained through the pathway of redemption [6: 97]. The redemption of sin (namely, the crime / murder as a direct violation of the New Testament commitments) is brightly depicted by Fyodor Dostoyevsky in his all-times famous *Crime and Punishment*, which, in turn, is paralleled with Dickensian *Our Mutual Friend*. Nikolay Strakhov, Russian literary scholar, compares the feelings of Rodion Raskolnikov with those of Bradley Headstone: "...in Raskolnikov's soul, amongst fear and pain, lives yet another beast – the reminiscence of crime. The imagination and memory of the evil-doer seem to haunt the crime scene every single moment" [10: 520]. Com-

menting on his thought, Strakhov indicates the similar description of crime in Dickensian *Our Mutual Friend*:

“the evil-doer... cannot escape from the slower torture of incessantly doing the evil deed again and doing it more efficiently. <...> If I had done it as alleged, it is conceivable that I would have made this and this mistake?..” [11: 221].

Comparing Headstone and Raskolnikov in terms of their reflexivity over sin and redemption issues, Strakhov concludes that Raskolnikov reminisces only twice – though powerfully and distinctly – coming to the crime scene unconsciously driven by a mirky irresistible force and, repeatedly, envisioning the murder episode in his sleep. The crime results in double torment: “The torment of fear. Despite all the hidden clues, the suspicion is always there. The mere glimpse of danger immerses him into the ocean of fear” [10: 521]. The second chain of torments, in Strakhov’s opinion, lies in the feeling sensed by murderer while trying to get close to other people who remain filled with innocence, cordiality, and warmth of life [11: 223].

The feeling of alienation from people is common for Raskolnikov and Bradley who was forced to conceal his true feelings giving them way only in the darkness of the night: “He broke loose at night like an ill-tamed wild animal” [12: 532]. For Raskolnikov, “the Divine Truth prevails ending in the necessity to squeal on himself” being unable to bear the isolation and alienation from humanity, universe, and the Divine.

Though Raskolnikov could not comprehend and brood upon the inner spiritual waves rising up and filling him with torture, his attempt at introspection became a testing ground for the forthcoming spiritual enlightenment. As for Headstone, he only tries to analyze the failed attempt at committing the crime and regrets the failure.

Strakhov points out that Raskolnikov, as well as Headstone, “teases himself and throws himself into the evil deed, trying to dive into it until the self-alienation overcomes”. According to the critic, Headstone’s concept of crime, as well as the one of Raskolnikov’s, was based on egotism and malice. Drawing a parallel line between Headstone and Raskolnikov, Strakhov calls the latter a truly Russian man, for he terminated what he started and accepted the infinity of the world evil powers and the inevitability of suffering:

“It is evidently clear and understandable that evil hides in the human spirit even deeper than socialist ‘healers’ presume; and no model of social construction can escape the evil; and human soul stays unchanged since abnormality and sin dwell in it; that, finally, the laws of human spirit still remain undiscovered, still remain indefinite and mysterious; hence, no healers can arrive, and no terminal judges, but only those who proclaim: “The wrath of Lord Jesus Christ be with your spirit” [13: 201; 14: 1010].

Tragic Beauty & False Pride. Christianity is a spiritual view that involves the perception of lifeline in terms of tragedy and martyrdom, or suffering for righteous purposes. The notion of tragic beauty entwined with false pride (i.e., the amalgam of sin and virtue) encompasses both Dickensian and Tolstovian poetic frameworks. The spiritual nature of Nastasya Filippovna's tragedy in *Idiot* could be explained by the ambiguity of her soul. "The continuous awareness of her shame carries with it certain weird pleasure slightly resembling wrath" [15: 56-60]. Nastasya Filippovna is overwhelmed with thunderstorm of feeling and ambiguous thoughts – being angry, unjust, and proud to the extreme. The similarity in plot collision concerning Nastasya and Lizzie Hexam (*Our Mutual Friend*) is remarkable: it is easy to note the features in the portrayal of the former that manifest the influence of the latter. Pride, the refusal to contemplate, the strife for heroic action, honesty in self-judgements are common for both characters. E.g., both heroines suppress their passions and hide their location from the beloved ones.

As an artist whose perception of the world was almost exclusively tragic, Dostoyevsky concentrated on the issues of 'moral ideal' and 'spiritual beauty', both of which he felt must be realized in order to rescue the world from its steadily moving downward to an Apocalypse. However, Dostoyevsky grasped the 'idea of female beauty' in its manifold forms; for instance, the beauty Nastasya Filippovna seems 'tragic' to him. We should appreciate here the originality of such a female character in *Our Mutual Friend* as Lizzie Hexam, because there is 'something quite refined in her beauty... a shade of sadness upon her that is quite touching'. One can see something striking and tragic in Lizzie's and Nastasya's beauty. Lizzie's face seems tragic to Eugene:

There was a kind of flicker on her face which at first he took to be fitful firelight; but on the second look, he saw that she was weeping. A sad and solitary spectacle, as shown him by the rising and the falling of the fire... A deep rich piece of colour, with the brown flash on her cheek and the shining luster of her hair, though sad and solitary [12: 158-159].

The moment arouses the reader's compassion, and introduces the reader to the emotions from the Platonic realm of the 'perfectly beautiful'. The reader sees much in common between the two, not merely in their beauty, but also in their 'false pride' or masochistic arrogance and self-loathing. Nastasya Filippovna's behaviour demonstrates excessive or inflexible pride and self-love; Prince Myshkin sees something masochistic in her beauty when he studies her photograph: "This face, unusual for its beauty, as well as for something else, now struck him even more strongly. It was as though there was boundless pride and contempt, almost hatred, in this face..." [16: 286].

Conclusion

The system of Dickensian motifs in Tolstoy's and Dostoyevsky's framework can be better understood via Jacob's ladder metaphor. As the spirituality, subtlety, and transition from animalistic to humane / Divine increases from the bottom to the top, such are the Christian motifs that unite all the three classics: the fear is replaced by crime ending up in redemption and remorse, whereas the tragic beauty crowns it all and reigns over the realm of Dickensian images.

Dostoyevsky's – as well as Tolstoy's – response to Dickens was a broad one: consciously or not, the Russian novelists refracted through their creative prism the overall power of Dickens's imaginative structures [17: 13-14]. Close comparison of some texts (*The Idiot*, *Crime and Punishment*, *War and Peace*, *David Copperfield*, and *Our Mutual Friend*) has revealed certain parallels. Comparing Dickens's and Dostoyevsky's works, we should bear in mind the distinguishing features of the Tolstovian and Dostoyevskian creative process, eliminating the possibility of simple imitation but including the operation of imagination and of subconscious deliberation; the Russian novelists are drawing creative energy from the potent influence of an artist whom he recognized as 'typologically close' to his own interests in fiction. Both writers had grasped the importance of Dickens's motifs, themes, and the Dickens's use of symbolic action and dialogue in isolation for examining psychological truths.

What a novelist thinks of another novelist is best deduced not from what he says critically but what he says creatively; in the use he makes of the other's art.

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THE ROLE OF NATURAL LANGUAGES AS LINGUA FRANCAS IN THE COURSE OF HUMAN HISTORY

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Abstract. The article considers the use of natural rather than constructed (or artificial) languages as means of international communication in overcoming interlingual and intercultural barriers. The authors seek answers to the question whether natural languages have proved their effectiveness as tools of international communication. Another important line of research is determining the factors that have played a decisive role in the choice of some natural languages as lingua francas in the history of international relations. Finally, the authors explore the factors that have contributed to the transformation of English from one of the most widespread natural languages into the language of global communication.

Keywords: lingua franca; natural languages; interlingual and intercultural communication; globalization.

Introduction

The ongoing globalization of the worldwide economic, political, cultural, scientific and other relations has brought about a considerable increase of international contacts and called forth a real need for a common language of global communication for overcoming interlingual and intercultural barriers separating humanity and interfering with the growth of international exchanges. However, an interest in a universal language of humankind arose long before any practical need emerged in worldwide communication, which would require the choice of a global rather than regional lingua francas.

The interest in finding a universal language resulted in numerous projects aimed at creating artificial or constructed languages, some of which achieved a wide recognition and even reached the level of international organizations, including the League of Nations [1]. But while the quest for a common constructed language has apparently failed, it highlighted the role of natural languages in erecting bridges between speech communities, and eventually, at the turn of the 20th century, one of the natural languages – English – acquired the status of the global language. In natural languages, the communicative function serves its purpose primarily within a given ethnic group. Historic contacts of different regions and countries, however, have spread its action to the arena of international relations.

In this paper, we will consider the arguments of “natural languages versus conlangs (constructed languages) in choosing the language of international communication, and we will first turn to the experience of using natural languages for overcoming interlingual and intercultural barriers. The aim of the paper is investigating the following questions: 1) what factors have caused some natural languages to assume the role of regional lingua francas in the history of international relations? 2) have natural languages proved effective as tools of international communication?

Methodology

The evolution of the universal language concept from the notion of the “perfect language” to the “global lingua franca” has raised important questions concerning the choice of the language of common communication and advantages as well as disadvantages in using natural rather than constructed languages in overcoming linguistic barriers between different speech communities. Leau and Couturat in their “Histoire de la Langue Universelle” published in early 20th century expressed their confidence that humankind was on the threshold of finding the universal language of the world and that it would be one of the most popular artificial (or constructed) languages, like Esperanto [2].

As constructed languages failed to get the support they needed to assume the level of true lingua francas even on a regional level, at the turn of the 20th century, one of the most widespread natural languages, English, emerged as the global lingua franca – the vehicular language in all spheres of international exchange. Abram De Swaan explained the changes in the global language system resulting in English becoming the first language in history with the status of the language of worldwide communication by its highest communicative potential (so called “Q-value”) [3]. Even before English achieved its global status, linguists and politicians opposing the cultural domination of English argued that accepting English as the global means of communication would lead to the eventual loss of cultural and linguistic diversity by the end of the 20th century. The most notable critic of English as the language of linguistic and cultural domination, Robert Phillipson, in his 1992 book “Linguistic Imperialism” defined English linguistic imperialism as “the dominance asserted and retained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages” [4].

Phillipson’s theory of linguistic imperialism has failed to win much support in the academic world, but his warnings about the consequences of linguistic and cultural domination were addressed in many works dedicated to research into the phenomenon of English as the global language. David Crystal, while not sharing Phillipson’s views on English linguistic imperial-

ism, has considered, nevertheless, the problems of “the dangers of a global language” and “language death” [5]. Thus, it appears there are different approaches to what can be a language of common communication or lingua franca. Even more confusing is the role of natural languages in the choice of means of international and universal communication. Finally, there is the question of why English rather than any artificial or natural language has acquired the status of the global language. In this paper, we will analyze the role of natural languages in building bridges between speech communities as well the reasons why natural languages prove to be more effective than artificial ones as means of overcoming linguistic and cultural barriers.

Findings and Analysis

In the historical epochs preceding the emergence of the capitalist mode of production and the industrial revolution, which led to the internationalization of trade flows and comparative growth of interlingual and intercultural contacts, international contacts in the times of peace were limited to diplomatic relations, a relatively limited trade exchange and cultural as well as scholarly connections of the enlightened elite. The exclusive elitism of those relations, particularly diplomatic ones, shifted linguistic problems of international communications to the background since the subjects of those relations were representatives of the privileged circles, whose education included the study of the most important languages.

In Europe, following the decline and fall of the Western Roman Empire, throughout the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, the classical Latin was a universally recognized language of international communication and scholarship. In the 18th century, with the emergence of nation states, Latin was gradually ousted, and national languages came into use even in international relations. What made Latin a European Lingua Franca over a long period of time, lasting from the 5th to the 18th centuries? Latin was the most rational choice of a common means of communication in Europe after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire since it had practically no competitors with the exception of Koine Greek, a regional lingua franca in the Eastern Roman Empire. The domination of Latin, as the language based on the political, military and cultural power of Rome, pushed the numerous local languages to the background, deprived them of any development into codified standards, and eventually led to Europe losing most of its linguistic diversity. As for Koine Greek, its use was limited to the Hellenistic world following the Battle of Corinth in 146 BC, which marked the beginning of the Roman domination in Greek history. Latin was not only the dominant language of the Roman Empire, but continued as the official language of the Byzantine Empire after the fall of the Western Roman Empire, until the Reign of Heraclius (AD 610-641), when it was finally replaced with Greek.

In the 18th century, French emerged as the language of educated elite in Europe, and it also replaced Latin as the language of diplomatic relations. The domination of the French language and culture in Europe began with the epoch of Louis XIV (le grand siècle) and reached its peak in the Age of Enlightenment, when France became a leading center of academic, intellectual and cultural life, a source of progressive ideological movements and a center of major scientific discoveries. The Age of Enlightenment, as one of the key epochs in the history of the European culture, began in France, where it became known as “le siècle des lumières”, and spread to the rest of Europe. The French enlighteners Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Diderot and others became the movers and shakers of the times. The influence of their ideas, based on criticism of the contemporary traditional institutes, customs, morals, and their belief in nature and human progress played an important role in strengthening the positions of French as the language of common communication of upper classes and the enlightened circles of Europe.

As Hackett Lewis writes, “After the Peace of Utrecht” (1713), the Enlightenment was largely a French Phenomenon... By 1750, the salonnières, their salons, and the philosophes had made France once again the intellectual center of Europe” [6]. Bilingualism of Europe’s upper classes, which was established in the 18th century, allowed the European elite to communicate without interpreters with representatives of power structures and educated people in any other European country and, at the same time, to retain their national languages, which by that time had acquired a literary form and were no longer regarded as “vulgar” or “low”. Russian nobility and intelligentsia made no exception. Conversations in French in the literary salons of Russian aristocracy described in “War and Peace” by Leo Tolstoy are no literary fiction but correspond with reality. Russian nobility, when communicating among themselves and with noble Europeans, spoke in French, and even preferred the “language of Europe” to their native language in oral and written intercourse with people of their own circle if culture and arts made the subject of their conversations.

Alexander Pushkin in his letter written in French to Pyotr Chaadayev, a well-known Russian thinker and publicist, wrote: “Mon ami, je vous parlerai la langue de l’Europe, elle m’est plus familière que la nôtre, et nous continuerons nos conversations commencées jadis à Sarsko-Sélo et si souvent interrompues” [7]. France’s loss of its unquestionable leadership in the political, economic, scientific and technological fields during the 19th and 20th centuries brought about a gradual weakening of the positions of French as a language of international relations both in Europe and in the whole world with the exception of the global community of French speaking peoples – former French colonies, which after achieving independence from France adopted the language of the former metropolis as their official language.

After World War II, the political and economic cooperation on a global scale resulted in a gradual removal of traditional barriers interfering with international exchange in all spheres of activity, starting with the international trade and ending with the organization of mass travel and tourism. The absence of a language of universal communication, however, presents an almost insurmountable barrier to interpersonal contacts in the conditions of globalization, when interlingual and intercultural communication becomes the spirit of the times.

However, as English spread still further around the world in the second half of the 20th century, fears were voiced about the gradual loss of linguistic and cultural diversity due to its replacement of national and ethnic languages and cultures. The development of European countries, with few exceptions, along the road of forming nation-states with one official language on the basis of the language variant of the dominant ethnic group elite furthered the political and economic unification of the nation-states, creation of the common national culture and unhindered development of all aspects of social life, but, at the same time, erected obstacles for establishing multi-lateral international connections and realization of policies of mutual understanding and cooperation necessary for maintaining lasting peace. The centuries-old period of international relations among nation-states has brought about the creation of the societal mentality that regards monolingualism and monoculturalism as normal phenomena, and multilingualism as an exception or a deviation from the norm [8: 1; 9; 10]. We will return to the question of English as the global *lingua franca* and the threat to ethnocultural identities later, and now we will try to answer the question of how English assumed the role of the international language in a number of important spheres despite fierce resistance put up by some academics and politicians to enacting any corresponding international legislation.

A pressing need for a language of worldwide communication not only in the field of diplomatic relations and political collaboration, but in all the other fields was felt yet long before the emergence of the information society and globalization of world economy. Effective communication in international maritime navigation would be exceedingly hampered without adopting a common language of communication and special language training of crews for overseas voyages. Therefore, it was the international maritime navigation that became the first area of international contacts where naval powers recognized a need for the common language of communication.

Since by the middle of the 19th century the British Empire had emerged as the biggest naval power, which reflected in the poetic metaphor “*Britannia rules the waves*”, the English language became the international language of marine navigation yet long before the international legislation regulating international seafaring was passed, and the vast expanses of the Seven Seas became the world’s first global language area. The role of Eng-

lish as the common language of international marine communication was later confirmed in international law. In 1973, the Maritime Safety Committee of the International Maritime Organization (IMO) agreed at its 27th session that “where language difficulties arise, a common language should be used for navigational purposes and that language should be English” [11: 1]. Following this agreement, IMO experts developed the Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary (SMNV), which was adopted in 1977 and amended in 1985. The further work on the Dictionary in order to develop a more comprehensive standardized safety language covering all major safety-related verbal communications resulted in creation and adoption by the IMO Assembly in November 2001 of the Draft Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) [Ibid.: 3]. According to the International Convention on Standards adopted in 1978 and reviewed in 1995, “the ability to understand and use the SMCP is required for the certification of officers in charge of a navigational watch on ships of 500 gross tonnage or more” [Ibid.: 3-4].

Civil aviation, unlike marine navigation, is a comparatively new field of activities in ensuring transport of passengers, baggage, cargo and mail. In the second half of the 20th century it turned into one of the largest sectors of the world economy with the well-developed infrastructure. In the age of globalization and digital technologies, aviation transport makes up 40 percent of the world trade, while the weight of the transported cargo does not exceed two percent of the general volume of transported cargo in the world, which is explained by the high value of new goods in the area of information technologies compared to the dimensions and weight [12]. The growth of world economy and international trade in the post-war period as well as a continuous increase of the flow of passengers, which, according to the World Trade Organization had been growing on the average annually by 9 percent in the period from 1960 to 2000 [13], testifies to the fact that air transport in general and the international passenger air transport in particular play a decisive role in the process of international integration and affect the other sectors of world economy. As in the case of marine navigation, a need for a common language in international air transport has led to passing international legislation, in which the importance of using a common language is substantiated by the requirements of ensuring clear and unambiguous communication between pilots and systems of air traffic control with the aim of avoiding errors in communication.

The realization of a need for a common language for communication in international civil aviation practices and an introduction by legislation of standard phraseology as well as heightening demands to the language skills of pilots took place in the period of globalization processes acceleration, when failures in communication between pilots and ground control due to considerably higher cargo and passenger air transport flows became more frequent. In the pre-war period of the civil aviation development and during

the first decades after World War II, English was widely used as a de facto language of international air communication, but, in the absence of universally accepted international legislation, uncertainty in choosing a language of communication resulted from differences in language policies of aviation companies and national governments.

Lax English language skills requirements in certifying pilots, and lack of correspondence between national legislations concerning civil aviation became a formidable obstacle not only for a natural growth of international exchanges with the use of air transport, but also for ensuring the means of protecting the lives of passengers and crews. A turning point in the history of using a common language in international civil aviation proved to be the air crash of 1977 on the runway of the Los Rodeos airport on the island of Tenerife, which went down in history as the Tenerife airport disaster, the deadliest accident in aviation history with total fatalities of 583. The collision of two Boeings 747 aircraft was explained by a concurrence of unfavorable circumstances but the main cause of the collision was a breakdown in language communication (see “The Deadliest Plane Crash” [14]). As in the case of the sinking of the Titanic, which manifested the importance of coordinating national systems of marine navigation in development and adoption of international legislation with the aim to safeguard lives on the seas, including measures to improve the quality of communication with the use of a common language, so after the Tenerife airport disaster the International Civil Aviation Organization, ICAO, undertook a number of measures in order to prevent accidents in aviation practices due to failures in communication. In the early 1980s, the ICAO published a reviewed variant of the English language standard phraseology used in communication of pilots and air traffic controllers so as to exclude the repetition of errors due to ambiguity of some phraseology used before [15].

At the turn of the 20th century, when requirements to standardization and harmonization in international civil aviation increased against the background of deepening and widening globalization processes, the ICAO took the road of introducing requirements to English language skills of pilots and air traffic controllers with mandatory certification. The ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements (LPRs), developed by a special group of ICAO experts, established standards that require pilots and air traffic controllers “to be able to communicate proficiently using **both ICAO phraseology and plain English**” [16]. New requirements emphasize the insufficiency of language training based on simplified English and a limited list of phraseology used in civil aviation. As the authors of a special Manual on the Implementation of ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements pointed out, no set of phrases can describe all possible situations and response reactions. They stated that “the most critical need for plain language proficiency arises during urgent or emergency situations, when in-

adequate language proficiency simply becomes another barrier to the successful conclusion of a flight” [17]. New ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements graded English language performance on a scale from 6 (highest) to 1 (lowest), and ruled that pilots and air traffic controllers and others who use English in communication on international routes must be at Level 4 (Operational) or above. Those who fail to demonstrate proficiency at Level 4 may not be licensed to operate on international routes. If a pilot or controller achieves Level 4 once, “further English training may be needed to maintain this level of proficiency” [16].

However, if a need for a common language in marine navigation and international civil aviation is obviated, first of all, by striving for enhancing safety in situations, when failures in overcoming linguistic and cultural barriers may lead to loss of human lives, a need for a common language in all other areas of economic, political, cultural, scientific and educational life in the period of globalization is determined by purely practical considerations of unhindered development based on the growing international contacts and cooperation in the corresponding areas, which are made considerably more difficult in conditions of linguistic and cultural isolation and the absence of a universally accepted language of worldwide communication. The tempos of globalization at the start of the 21st century outstripped the international legislative activities in the question of accepting a language of global communication. While academics and politicians are engaged in a search for the ways of solving the problem of linguistic and cultural communication in the world, where national borders are growing ever more transparent for cargo and passenger flows, English is in the process of acquiring the traits of the *de facto* global lingua franca used as the default language in all situations of international exchange. Apart from traditional areas where the English language started to dominate yet in the 1950s-1960s, such as business, commerce, international tourism, popular culture (particularly music), since the 1980s, the penetration of English as the language of worldwide communication into science and medicine, informatics and telecommunications, international standards etc. increased dramatically. The great importance of the English language in the present-day world may be judged on the basis of the commodity production economic category of “supply and demand”.

Globalization processes in the world economy have led to the fact that many notions which have never been associated with commodity-monetary relations, such as, for example, inborn abilities, education and acquired qualifications are regarded by economists at present as “human capital”, that is a measure of capacity embodied in a person to yield a profit [18]. Increasingly, politicians and educators around the world recognize the priority of English language skills as a basic key competence of the knowledge society. As Eurostat reports, English teaching in secondary ed-

ucation [in Europe] is now almost universal, reaching close to 100 percent [19]. Teaching English as a second and foreign language (ESL, EFL) has turned into a multibillion business. Thus, the total ELT (English Language Teaching) market in native English speaking countries already in early 21st century was worth over US\$ 5 billion in terms of total student expenditure, with the largest two destinations in terms of incoming bilingual travel being the UK and the USA [2: 27]. The largest single ELT market in the world is China, where English teaching industry is estimated US\$ 4.5 billion, which is commensurate with the total ELT market in native English speaking countries [20]. According to *China Daily*, more than 300 million Chinese are studying English, and “it is theoretically possible that the number of English speaking Chinese will outnumber the populations of all English speaking countries in the world, combined” [21]. As the economic observer S. Hipsher points out, “the worldwide ESL industry is an industry and is shaped by market forces and language school owners... and educational managers need to take financial as well as educational matters into consideration when making all types of decisions” [22]. The progress in new ICT technologies has allowed increasing considerably the number of English language learners in the world due to Internet training in the online mode. Native English speakers used as language teachers can carry out the teaching process without moving over to the countries of their students’ residence, before a virtual English language classroom of 800 million students in the entire world [23].

Discussion

While natural languages have been successfully used throughout human history as *lingua francas*, there are still views expressed mostly by the Esperanto community and followers of the theory of linguistic imperialism by Robert Phillipson about their ineffectiveness as means of universal communication as well as unfairness of using them connected with their cultural non-neutrality. The authors of the Prague Manifesto by the UEA (Universal Esperanto Association) issued in 2003 stated: “Neither the worldwide use of a few national languages, nor advances in communication technology, nor the development of new methods of language teaching is likely to result in a fair and effective language order... which we hold to be essential” (Prague Manifesto, 2003. UEA Universala Esperanto-Asocio (<http://www.uea.org>). Phillipson claims that English has become the dominant international language, and its dominance “is asserted and maintained by the continuous creation of cultural inequalities between English and other languages” [4: 47].

However, even though artificial languages are culturally neutral, have much simpler grammatical structures and, therefore, are much easier to teach

and learn, they cannot compete with natural languages in their effectiveness as means of overcoming linguistic and cultural barriers in all spheres of international communication. The experts of International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), comparing natural and constructed languages, state that “there is no ‘form of speech’ more suitable for human communication than natural language. Artificial languages... have had little impact in any sphere even decades after their introduction. Computer-aided voice recognition and translation technologies remain unproven, especially in the context of the demand for reliability in aviation. As all other options fall short, natural language continues to be the most reliable and efficient form of human communication” [17: 1-3].

The chief advantage of natural over artificial languages is in an extraordinary wealth and flexibility of their word stock, which is continuously renewed and replenished in the process of society’s development and emergence of new phenomena that require from the language as a means of human communication the forming of new linguistic signs (words) and their combinations (structures). On the other hand, the practical value of artificial languages is considerably lowered due to limitations in the spheres of their use and insufficient elaboration of their word stock to serve various areas of activity. Language forms, including natural languages’ word stocks, are products created by the language speakers themselves, unlike artificial languages, which have a rather limited number of speakers to ensure normal functioning of the languages, particularly in the periods of society’s revolutionary social changes in political, economic, scientific and cultural life. The lexical wealth of natural languages makes possible achieving mutual understanding in situations when normative standard set of expressions used in international communication is insufficient due to the non-standard nature of the given situation.

In this connection, Victoria Fromkin has drawn our attention to an important trait of human language that makes natural languages irreplaceable in human practices regardless of political or economic considerations – the creative aspect of human language, which is manifested in the ability of the speaker to combine linguistic units to form an infinite set of grammatically correct sentences, most of which represent new sentences that have never been used before. She also pointed out that natural languages are “vigorous, dynamic and constantly changing” [24: 16].

Conclusion

Thus, the most important factors that have turned natural languages into lingua francas are based mostly on the political, economic and cultural power of the imperial or national entities which used these languages. As the history of international language shows, natural languages have proved high-

ly effective as tools of international communication. Latin, and then French were used over centuries as regional lingua francas of Europe, while English at the turn of the 20th century acquired the status of the Global Lingua Franca due to its superior communicative value, the result of leading positions of the English speaking countries in economic, scientific, technological and cultural spheres.

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TEXT COHESION VIA THE PRESUPPOSITION BASE REALIZED THROUGH ANTONYMY OF LANGUAGE UNITS

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Abstract. The article dwells upon discourse coherence and text cohesion via frame- and / or stereotype-generated presuppositions what are actualized on the surface structure of the text via antonyms. The article suggests a framework of the text generation process based on the content of the presupposition base of the speaking individual whose information units are stored through larger mental structures, that is, frames and stereotypes. The paper instantiates the functioning of the two planes of the presupposition base, i.e. phenomenological and linguistic. The findings of the study manifest that antonymy is one of the linguistic, cognitive structures that displays the content of the discourse, the intent of the addresser and thereby secures text cohesion.

Keywords: presupposition; presupposition base; antonym; antonym cohesion; text cohesion; discourse coherence; anaphora; frame; stereotype; macro-presupposition; micropresupposition; cognitive structures.

Introduction

Over the past few decades, with the headway of pragmatics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics and ethnolinguistics there have appeared such notions as the presupposition, frame, stereotype, precedent phenomenon, cognitive structure, and many others which disclose the actual functioning of human thinking activity and its linguistic output – text – via patterned background knowledge. The main aim of the article is to elucidate a serviceable framework of how text cohesion is achieved by means of antonym pairs / chains which in fact act as staples of parts of the polypredicative unit or text. As such antonyms serve as anaphora of parts of the polypredicative unit or text and discourse entities.

The discourse referent(s) to which antonyms refer to are in fact discourse presuppositions. Such kind of text-discourse anaphora via antonym chains of the text secure discourse coherence and text cohesion. Besides, it also secures the actualization of the macropresupposition of the text, that is, the general topic of the text, since it is actually a co-reference of its parts both on the surface level via antonyms and deep level via antonym-presupposition anaphora. A pivotal part in this respect is allotted to the notions of frame and stereotype as they are in fact presuppositional structures, that is, units of the presupposition base of the speaking individual. In the present paper I aim to work out a framework of how the presupposition base

of the speaking individual secures discourse coherence and text cohesion via the antonyms that appear in its surface structure giving insight of how a text is structured in two planes – discourse and text.

I find it timely to define the notion of the *speaking individual*, proceeding from the scientific data [1, 2]. It is noteworthy that initially the term *linguistic individual* appeared in research literature before it was introduced into the sphere of scientific terminology by Yu. Karaulov [1]. Further, this idea was developed in the work of B. Johnstone [2]. Both scholars view the linguistic individual as a human being who is endowed with the potential of learning a language and who masters it in the process of his / her socialization. Thus, in my understanding the linguistic individual is in fact the language speaker. I term it the speaking individual as the speech counterpart of the language invariant – linguistic individual.

As for the presupposition base (notion and term proposed by me) (PB henceforth) it is the bulk of knowledge and ideas which are first reflected and then shaped as such in a human being's consciousness as a result of the cognitive, speculative process which starts at his / her birth and develops throughout his / her life.

The notion of the PB takes a supreme importance and becomes a core concept in this paper as frames and stereotypes are actually units of it and they may appear on the surface structure of the text by way of antonyms. Another key characteristic of the frame and stereotype is that due to the content of their semantic structure very often they require equivalent semes to embody their meaning in the text. One type of reflection of the content of their semantic structure in the text is anaphoric antonym chains.

Research and Results

It is worthy to mention that text cohesion heavily relies on the content and functioning of the PB of the speaking individual. Viewed from this perspective, to achieve discourse coherence and text cohesion the speaking individual operates the potential of his / her PB in two directions. First, he / she creates a coherent discourse, that is, inner speech, by means of the phenomenological, cognitive component of the PB which fully complies with the given communicative setting and his / her communicative aims. What poses special interest here is that this process is based on frame / stereotype semantics, which means that the speaking individual makes a choice from among the frames / stereotypes of his / her PB whose component presuppositions maximally comply with the communicative setting and the addresser's communicative intent(s). In fact, the discourse is structured by means of the presuppositions of the frame / stereotype that were introduced in it. Then, the addresser operates the linguistic, cognitive component of his / her PB to create a cohesive text which in this particular case is achieved via antonymy as

a linguistic, cognitive structure. Obviously, antonymy here is a way of co-referring parts of the text or those of a polypredicative unit with the discourse macropresupposition, i.e. its topic, which comes to testify that regardless of opposing meanings the text rests in the framework of the discourse macropresupposition. Evidence suggests that basically discourse reflects the phenomenological, cognitive component of the speaking individual's PB. Resultantly, a coherent discourse contains PB-based frame(s) and / or stereotype(s). Further, having a clear perception of the predictable, presuppositional structure of the frame / stereotype, the speaking individual chooses those frame / stereotype presuppositions from its semantic field that will be placed in the discourse, thus converting the frame / stereotype knowledge into discourse presuppositions. Finally, text cohesion is achieved via anaphora when the discourse presuppositions appear on the surface structure of the text as antonyms. Thus, antonymy in the given case functions as a linguistic maker in the text of discourse frame / stereotype presuppositions.

Evidence is adduced that text cohesion via antonymy makes it salient that regardless of the fact that they refer to different phenomena in real life, more specifically, their referents belong to completely different domains, nonetheless, there does exist some common semantic feature that unifies them and for which antonyms serve as distinctive features. Having as base that common feature, they can become part of the same frame / stereotype which allows of their contrary use in the same text, preserving the common meaning. In other words, text cohesion via antonymy largely depends on discourse coherence. The latter in its turn is stipulated by adequate actualization of the predictable, presuppositional structure of the frame / stereotype in the discourse. Results demonstrate that antonymy is one of the linguistic, cognitive structures of the speaking individual's PB which means that the same discourse could be actualized on the surface structure of the text via other linguistic, cognitive structures of the PB. Instead, the addresser structures the inner speech – discourse – in such a way as to create an opposition between the frame / stereotype presuppositions introduced in it, thus achieving contrast, controversy, comparison, cause-effect relation, etc. towards another entity in the discourse whose best actualization in the text is antonymy.

Note that a certain unit acquires the status of an antonym in the given microtext or polypredicative construction only when in one of its subsequent parts there appears an entity whose meaning is similar to the antecedent entity but is opposing to it in a certain semantic feature. By its nature the opposing distinctive feature can be quite diverse, namely, contextual, stylistic, semantic / ideographic, etc. whose status is ascertained on the account of the pragmatic factors of the communicative setting.

Among the active means of actualizing the discourse in language and stapling parts of a polypredicative construction or a microtext is antonym pairs which compose a semantically equipotent opposition. In other words,

the discourse structure is completely “indifferent” to the choice of the basis underlying the opposing, antonym units, i.e. opposing or complementary, systemic or contextual, as well as what part of speech units they are expressed by. What is more essential here is the co-reference of the antonym entities within the same polypredicative construction or microtext and their anaphora with certain opposing, discourse presuppositions which display “an opposition in the scope of the same entity which is perceived as an extreme divergence of some distinction of that entity” [3: 150]. The common semantic feature coupled with the distinctive, semantic one point to the fact that they refer to the same frame / stereotype, more specifically, they are presuppositions of its semantic, structural terminals. Thus, the joint appearance of antonym lexemes in the same microtext or a polypredicative construction stands for the linguistic actualization of the given discourse frame / stereotype. The latter in its turn is pragmatically driven, that is, the addresser, on account of his / her communicative aims, actualizes the frame / stereotype in the discourse in such a way as to realize them. Given the realization of the addresser’s communicative aim requires comparison, opposition, controversy, contradiction, cause-effect relation, the presuppositional content of the frame / stereotype will appear on the surface structure of the text via antonyms.

For two entities to function as antonyms, i.e. for the actualization of opposing meanings, there must be at least one implicit means of expression of the common meaning. In this regard, E. Kuznetsova claims that “The repetition of the common meanings in the same row in the sentence seems to back up each other, securing the mutual identity of meanings of the words” [4: 89], which stipulates regular, joint use of antonyms and their syntagmatic valency.

Antonym lexemes, especially if they are the linguistic actualizations of the frame / stereotype presuppositions in the text, intensify the relations of opposition or contrast between its predicative parts.

In this study I have considered the principal classifications of antonyms proposed by V. Eliseeva [5], Z. Kharitonchik [6], J. Lyons [7] and many others [8-14]. Of multiple types of classifications of antonyms for the present study I have adopted the following classification singled out by the above-mentioned scholars – *gradable antonyms (contraries)*, *complementary antonyms (contradictions)*, *relational antonyms (converses)* and *directional antonyms (reverses)*.

Of main interest in the literature are still the first and the second categories.

Gradable antonyms or *contraries* (from the Latin word *contrarius*) express quality relations and compose a range of scale. There must be at least one intermediary member between the extreme ones. The negation of one gradable member does not necessarily guarantee the truth of other member, thus creating the possibility of existence other states than the one described by the extreme antonym members. This is because the gradable an-

onyms are based on a range of scale. For these reasons, the first relation is called *bounded* and the second is called *unbounded* [11]. For example, young – middle-aged – elderly – old (person), hard – not so hard – not hard – easy (issue), etc.

Complementary antonyms or *contradictions* (from the Latin word *complementum*) complement each other on grounds of type and are marginal by nature which means they do not have an intermediary member. Accordingly, when one member is negated the other holds. That is, they presuppose a definite ‘either-or’ mode [12]. For example, true – false (the *not true* variant does not hold), alive – dead (the *not alive* or *half-alive* variants do not hold).

Directional antonyms or *reverses* (from the Latin word *vector*) express reverse directions of actions and features. For example, enter – go out, raise – lower, turn on – turn off.

The distinctive feature of directional antonyms is in their lexical-syntactic opposition. For example, *I am coming home* – *You are leaving home*. “Reverse” verbs express a subject-object twofold relation, that is, the object is the same, while the agents expressed by the subject are different. On the other hand, the verbs express the same action in “reverse” directions. For example, to buy a house – to sell a house, to obtain friends – lose friends, etc.

In the case of *relational antonyms* or *converses* (from the Latin word *contradictorius*) one member of the antonym pair is made up with the particle *not* and is not clearly defined. For example, young – not young (which can be middle-aged, elderly, old, senile, etc.), expensive – not expensive (which can be cheap, not so cheap, depreciated, etc.).

Let’s consider some examples of gradable antonyms that create contrastive relations.

***Deep down, I’m pretty superficial* (Ava Gardner).**

In Ava Gardner’s above-cited, famous saying the gradables *deep* – *superficial* create a coherent discourse and cohesive text through the ideology of the frame / stereotype *human inner world*. By his / her inner world a human being can be deep, not deep, superficial, not superficial, shallow, flat, etc. First, the coherence of the discourse and the cohesion of the corresponding text are achieved by actualizing the above-mentioned frame / stereotype, second, by means of the common semantic feature of the gradable antonyms *deep* – *superficial* which shows that they function in the scope of one concept – macropresupposition. More specifically, they refer to the presuppositions of the same frame / stereotype actualized in the given discourse, thereby securing text cohesion. Besides, the distinctive features also point to the fact that despite differences in meaning, in the given case opposition, they act in the scope of a common meaning, that is, in the scope of the same frame / stereotype. Thus, a close inspection of discourse-text anaphora reveals that the speaking individual secures discourse coherence via the

phenomenological, cognitive component of his / her PB on the one hand, and the cohesion of the text via the linguistic, cognitive component of his / her PB on the other.

Consider another case of text cohesion via gradable antonyms, taken from the Old Testament.

*И увидел Бог свет, что он хорош, и отделил Бог свет от тьмы. И назвал Бог свет **днем**, а тьму **ночью**. И был **вечер**, и было **утро**: день один* [13].

Obviously, the coherence of the given microtext is based on the frame *parts of the day* whose content makes up the topic of the discourse. The semantic components of the frame are actualized on the surface structure of the text by means of gradables *утро, день, вечер, ночь*. In fact, the gradable antonym chain secures text cohesion since the mentioned surface structure entities refer to the pertinent presuppositions of the frame actualized in the discourse. Regardless of the fact that these lexical entities are contrary in meaning, nonetheless, they are unified in one frame by means of its conceptual meaning, more specifically, the common semantic feature in that they all show different parts of the day. By this the speaking individual secures discourse coherence and text cohesion. Thus, text cohesion is achieved on the one hand through the common semantic feature, repeated meaning, and on the other hand distinctive semantic feature. The content of the frame, namely, knowledge about different parts of the day, is a wholeness of presuppositions that are triggered on the surface structure of the text via gradable antonyms as their text markers.

The next type of antonyms that often serves the function of discourse coherence and text cohesion is complementaries. Complementary antonyms contain contrary semantic features too that are in the relation of opposition. In this regard J. Lyons holds that "Complimentariness can be viewed as a special case of incompatibility that contains inherent two-unit sets" [14: 486].

As in the case of gradable antonyms, in the case of complementaries as well discourse coherence is secured through the actualization of the frame / stereotype underlying it, while the given type of antonymy simply serves the function of text cohesion on its surface level, reflecting the presuppositional content of the frame / stereotype and expressing both common and distinctive semantic features at the same time. Hence, complementary antonyms serve the function of anaphora of discourse presuppositions with pertinent parts of the text which actually creates a cohesive text. In this perspective consider an excerpt from the Old Testament.

*In the beginning God created **the heavens** and **the earth*** [15].

The complementary pairs above come up as extreme members of an entity that does not have intermediary components. The basis of the given part of the discourse is the frame *the Universe* which is actualized in the given text by its two principal parts – the heaven and the earth. Indeed, the top-

ic, that is, the macropresupposition of the frame *the Universe* is repeated in each of the complementary antonyms, nevertheless, the extreme opposition between them remains salient which is the inherent distinctive, semantic feature based upon the inherent, common one. The content of the frame *the Universe*, actualized in the given discourse, is a set of presuppositions. The surface structure means create a cohesive text implicitly referring to that information – discourse presuppositions. Accordingly, the text is cohesive on the one hand by virtue of actualization of the frame presuppositions in the discourse, and on the other by means of anaphora of the text antonyms with pertinent discourse, frame presuppositions.

Text cohesion via antonymy relation has proved to be based on the two-plane functioning of the PB of the speaking individual – phenomenological to create a coherent discourse and linguistic to generate a cohesive text.

To facilitate the discussion of complementary antonym pairs that serve the function of text cohesion consider an excerpt taken from Ch. Dickens's "A Tale of Two Cities" where the eight complementary antonym pairs, according to K. Chukovsky, secure the "rhythm of the opposition that passes through the whole book" and creates an ambient of confusion and extremism in the backstage of French Revolution [19: 180].

*It was the **best** of times, it was the **worst** of times, it was the age of **wisdom**, it was the age of **foolishness**, it was the epoch of **belief**, it was the epoch of **incredulity**, it was the season of **Light**, it was the season of **Darkness**, it was the spring of **hope**, it was the winter of **despair**, we had **everything** before us, we had **nothing** before us, we were all going direct to **Heaven**, we were all going direct **the other way**— in short, the period was so far like the present period, that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, **for good or for evil**, in the superlative degree of comparison only [17].*

In the given excerpt the highlighted eight complementary antonym pairs *best – worst; wisdom – foolishness; belief – incredulity; Light – Darkness; hope – despair; everything – nothing; Heaven – the other way; for good – for evil* embody the ideology of the frame / stereotype *French Revolution*, completing its presuppositional terminals. In fact, discourse coherence heavily relies on the content of the terminals. Each of these complementaries possesses the meaning of the ideology of French Revolution by way of some presupposition of the frame / stereotype.

The above discussed analysis exemplifies that the choice of antonyms to embody a certain frame / stereotype presupposition of the discourse is most often quite subjective, context-bound and is largely dependent on the perception of the addresser's intent, that is, the pragmatic aspect plays a pivotal role in the process of discourse and text generation, understanding and appropriate interpretation.

The above-delineated two basic types of oppositions do not deplete the whole range of antonym relations. Antonym cohesion [18] can serve the cohesion of such parts of a polypredicative unit whose contrastive relations appear when the logical opposition of the concepts underlying them is expressed linguistically. These are in fact directional antonyms. In this regard consider the following example.

*The woman was bawling out the fat maitre d'hotel, two waiters were picking up dishes and **going away with them**, and two other waiters **were coming back with other dishes**; and the woman was telling them all precisely what she wanted and how she wanted it, in French. They were whispering replies in English [19: 273].*

Text cohesion is achieved here due to a coherent discourse which in its turn is secured via the content of the frame/ stereotype *event organization* and directional antonyms. On top of all expected activity in an event organization, namely, *waiters were picking up dishes; woman was telling them all precisely what she wanted and how she wanted it, etc.*, there are also directional antonyms that serve the function of text cohesion, they are *two waiters going away with them – and two other waiters were coming back with other dishes*. Analysis demonstrates that anaphora between discourse, stereotype presuppositions and the text, i.e. cohesion, is achieved through directional antonyms which actually serve as linguistic markers of discourse, stereotype presuppositions in the text.

From the standpoint of antonym functions in text cohesion processes it is worthy to mention that not all cases of antonym pair cohesion serve the function of semantic opposition or contrast. Most often there are quite other logical-semantic relations. Overall the occurrence of the antonym having much the property of cause-effect relations is quite common. Indeed, their contrastive nature is revealed in context only, that is the contrast between the parts of a text or a polypredicative construction discloses on the one hand the repeated semantic feature in them, and on the other hand the distinctive one. In this regard consider an excerpt from B. Akunin's novel "Azazel".

*Вдруг фонари повели себя чудно – завертелись, закружились, и стало сначала очень **ярко**, а потом совсем **темно** [20: 63].*

Obviously, the use of directional antonyms *стало ярко – (стало) темно* in this part does not serve the function of opposition or contrast but rather that of cause-effect relation, though it is not perceivable at first glance and becomes salient only after the perception of the macropresupposition of the given part. Nonetheless, the oppositional nature and the specific function of the antonym pair in question are undeniable. The discourse presupposition of the first element of the directional antonym pair is that because of some short circuit the light of the street lights became very bright, i.e. there was a flashlight. The discourse presupposition of the second member of the directional antonym pair is that because of the short circuit the light went out as

the light bulbs of the street lights got out of order. In this case text cohesion is achieved via each of the directional anaphora with certain discourse presupposition – one to the cause, the other to the effect, while discourse coherence is secured through the content of the frame / stereotype *electricity short circuit*. Indeed, the directional antonym pair is the linguistic expression of the frame / stereotype presuppositions in the text.

Such functioning of antonymy proves quite natural, that is, on the one hand the mutual exclusion of meaning typical of antonymy which is based on the distinctive semantic feature and cause-effect relations on the other hand. "...the existence of an affirmative and a negative counterparts... and the same *not* which is a part of one of the counterparts" [21: 15] allows to employ such constructions to express textual modality which is based on affirmative-negative polar, oppositional semantic feature. Given the oppositional, polar semantics of antonyms V. Melikyan claims that "The categories of the affirmative and the negative are mutually conditioned in any situation... they occur simultaneously, exist only in mutual opposition, they are two halves of one whole" [22: 179]. Accordingly, if an affirmative counterpart comes in the precedent part of the text or a polypredicative unit, then in the subsequent part there must be the counterpart with the same *not*, more specifically, the member that lacks that feature. For instance, in the above-cited example the counterpart *стало ярко* shows that the counterpart (*стало*) *темно* possesses the same *not* in that it does not have the semantic feature inherent in the first one. The latter is a linguistic, cognitive knowledge generating from the PB of the speaking individual which is actualized in the text as a presupposition, implicitly referring to a corresponding part(s) of the discourse and secure text cohesion at its surface level.

Interestingly, the last type of antonymy, namely, *relational antonyms* or *converses* is grammatical, based on the opposition of syntactic constructions whose negative collocate is represented by the particle *not*. It allows of some semantic incompleteness, i.e. freedom of interpretation. Text cohesion ordinarily proceeds from discourse coherence. The choice of the given type of antonymy is basically stipulated by the realization of the addresser's intent(s) for which he / she could have chosen another syntactic construction from among the linguistic, cognitive structures of his / her PB. In this regard consider an excerpt from B. Akunin's novel "Azazel".

Агатые глаза Клеопатры недобро блеснули:

– Ого, как ему не терпится. Вы что же, **миллионщик**?

– Нет, я **небогат**, – скромно произнес Эраст Петрович. – но торговать удачей почитаю низким [20: 51].

The cohesion of the above-cited microtext is accounted for by the coherence of the discourse which in its turn is achieved by the actualization of the predictable, presuppositional structure of the frame / stereotype *offer*. Of all the possible linguistic, cognitive constructions available in his / her PB

the speaking individual has found it most pertinent to achieve the cohesion of the surface structure of the text via converses *миллионщик* – *небогат*. Obviously, the text cohesion potential of the converse antonym pair in question proceeds from its oppositional meaning. The particle *not* in the negative counterpart of the relational antonym pair points to the fact that it lacks the feature (being a millionaire) of the affirmative one. It is worthy to note here that due to the imprecise negative meaning of the particle *not* it allows of a wide scope of interpretation, that is, the lexeme *небогат* can presuppose any degree of not being rich – not wealthy, of modest means, poor, etc. In other words, the proposition of one of the parts of the polypredicative construction is openly, explicitly manifest while the proposition of the other not. The interpretation and the scope of the proposition of the other is stipulated by the context only, thereby referring to the appropriate discourse presupposition and delineating the meaning of *not*.

What's more, the prevailing view is that the application of the given type of antonyms has a pragmatic asset in that the addresser thereby creates a discourse focus and does not shift the addressee's attention to other discourse-macropresupposition-relevant aspects. More specifically, the twofold allusion to the same discourse presupposition in the text speaks of the intent of the addresser, i.e. to actualize and impart special importance to a certain addresser-focused, discourse presupposition. Hence, in the present microtext the addresser among all other states of the hero emphasizes his being poor, thereby giving its presupposition a second linguistic actualization "as a result of employing negation to an earlier proposition used in the communication" [23: 44].

The presupposition of the *opposition focus* [24], namely, the delimitation of the presupposition of a certain part of a polypredicative construction by opposing it to to another presupposition of the same discourse results in the opposition of the presuppositions of the syntactic constructions which have affirmative / negative meaning. Resultantly, the part that comes after the syntactic construction with affirmative meaning acquires negative meaning. The antonym resolution implies that the application of such a construction stipulates not only the sequence of the parts of the polypredicative unit but also the choice of lexical means. The coreference of consecutive affirmative and negative parts allows of ascribing the status of antonyms to certain parts in it. Note that the "scope of content" of the second counterpart of the antonym pair is preconditioned by the PBs of the participants of the communication. More precisely, what presuppositions were introduced into the text by the addresser and how they were perceived and interpreted by the addressee.

From this perspective consider an example taken from korrespondent.net news web portal.

Не хочу продавать мой Милан. Да, я ищу кого-нибудь, кто **хочет вкладывать** деньги вместе со мной, чтобы снова сделать клуб лидером [25].

The microtext is cohesive due to two pairs of antonyms – one being relational *не хочу – хочет*, the other gradable *продавать – вкладывать*. Cohesion is achieved by making a certain discourse presupposition the focus of the text, that is, Silvio Berlusconi does not want to sell his football club “Milan”. The cohesion of the given microtext is furthered by the second antonym pair which is gradable. Its contrariety is stipulated by the fact that *to buy – to sell* gradable antonym pair allows of other intermediary counterparts between the two extreme ones, which was effectively used by the addresser as the verbs *to sell* and *to invest* are not direct antonyms. The latter also stands for the fact that any surface construction of the text chosen by the addresser to actualize discourse presuppositions are in fact the reflection of his / her PB in the text. In other words, the addresser has the given gradable antonym chain with common semantic feature in his / her PB but he / she chooses the one which is presupposed from the discourse.

As witnessed by the analysis of the above-delineated examples, text cohesion via antonymy has local restrictions in that it ordinarily binds predicative entities or sentences that immediately follow each other. By means of anaphora they refer to the discourse presuppositions that back up their semantic content. Nonetheless, there exists a type of text cohesion by antonymy that operates within larger chunks of the text body. The lexeme pair that serves the function of antonyms here acquires that status in the given text only since outside that text they are ordinarily semantically non-related lexical entities. The given case as well substantiates the role of the speaking individual's PB in a communicatively-pertinent text generation process. In other words, the speaking individual “sees” the co-reference of these phenomena in his / her PB, more precisely, in his / her cognition of the world the two entities co-refer which allows him / her to create a communicatively and addresser- intent relevant, coherent discourse. The latter acquires a linguistic “body” through the linguistic, cognitive component of the PB. To elucidate the above-said consider an excerpt from a news article entitled “Here’s who would win if Russia, China, and America went to war right now” taken from the *wearethemighty.com* news, web portal.

Stealth fighters

*While **America** holds the current stealth jet lead with the only fielded fifth-generation fighter, Russia and China are both gunning for it. There are only 187 F-22s, and the F-35 that is supposed to be joining them is running into all sorts of problems in the test phase, including the hi-tech helmet that is supposed to put all kinds of info in the pilot's visor that doesn't work right yet.*

*Meanwhile, **China** is developing four stealth fighters. The J-31 debuted in air shows in 2014 and is the most advanced current threat, and the J-20, which may have just entered full-scale production, is probably a match for the F-35 if not the F-22. The two newest designs, the J-23 and J-25, are mostly rumors and Chinese propaganda right now.*

Russia is developing only one stealth fighter but it has capabilities that some put on par with the F-22. The T-50 will likely enter service in late 2016 or early 2017. Also known as the PAK FA, it's less stealthy than the Raptor but more maneuverable. The F-22 would likely get a jump on the Russians in a war, but would be in serious trouble if it was spotted first [26].

The analysis of the given excerpt displays that the triplet *America – China – Russia* distantly allocated to one another in the text have acquired antonym status. The latter is ascribed to them due to the contrastive-oppositional meaning of their referent-presuppositions in the discourse. Firstly, the emphasized subjects of the three consecutive paragraphs stand in contrastive relations. Secondly, due to the freedom of cohesive relations between the paragraphs the subjects abstract from the limits of the sentence in which they are actualized and operate as structural and semantic staples for the whole three-unit polypredicative construction. It serves as a micro-presupposition for the microtext that starts with it (*America; China; Russia*). The coherence of the given part of the discourse is achieved by the frame and stereotype *arms potential* in which the author of the article has demilitated three subframes and / or substereotypes, namely, *stealth fighters in America, stealth fighters in China* and *stealth fighters in Russia*. Proceeding from the presuppositional frame of the discourse the author achieved the cohesion of the text by contrasting the three subframes. Resultantly, the subjects (*America, China and Russia*) of the microtexts truned into contextual antonyms whose antonym status becomes salient only after the discourse content and the addresser's intent are perceived, more precisely, by co-referring the antonyms with corresponding focus-presuppositions of the discourse. The author deliberately juxtaposes the three micropresuppositions as three contrastive aspects of the frame *arms potential*. The semantic relation between the three microtexts is that of mutual exclusion, regardless of the fact that all three contain the micropresupposition *armed potential*.

Indeed, antonym cohesion in the given part of the text stipulates both its semantic cohesion and structural unity, thereby securing the coherence of the given part of the discourse in general.

As delineated above, the peculiar rhythm of such antonym staples [27] also stipulates the lexical load of the microtext or polypredicative construction which proceeds from the predictable, presuppositional content of the frame and / or stereotype. The latter creates not a range of simply related words but rather a micronetwork of antonym chains with their own semantic slots that can also contain lexical units that stand in antonym relations as in the above analyzed example the pairs: *to hold – to gun, less stealthy – more maneuverable, the 187 F-22 – the F-35*. In other words the cohesion of the whole surface structure of the text is preconditioned by the macropresupposition of the frame and / or stereotype and the presuppositions proceeding from it. The speaking individual simply operates the linguistic, cognitive

structures of his / her PB to actualize them in the text. In this perspective consider a excerpt from L. Tolstoy's renowned novel "Anna Karenina".

*Степан Аркадьич был человек **правдивый в отношении к себе самому**. Он не мог **обманывать себя** и уверять себя, что он рассказывает в своем поступке. Он не мог рассказываться теперь в том, в чем он рассказывался когда-то лет шесть тому назад, когда он сделал первую неверность жене. Он не мог **рассказываться** в том, что он, **тридцатичетырехлетний, красивый, влюбчивый человек**, не был влюблен в жену, мать пяти живых и двух умерших детей, **бывшую только годом моложе** его. Он **рассказывался** только в том, что не умел лучше скрыть от жены. Но он чувствовал всю тяжесть своего положения и жалел жену, детей и себя. Может быть, он сумел бы лучше скрыть свои грехи от жены, если б ожидал, что это известие так на нее подействует. Ясно он никогда не обдумывал этого вопроса, но смутно ему представлялось, что жена давно догадывается, что он не верен ей, и смотрит на это сквозь пальцы. Ему даже казалось, что она, **истощенная, состарившаяся, уже некрасивая женщина** и ничем не замечательная, простая, только добрая мать семейства, по чувству справедливости должна быть снисходительна. Оказалось совсем противное [28].*

The coherence of the discourse of the delineated part of the novel is secured via the actualization of the frame and stereotype *betrayal*, and the subframe and substereotype *remorse*. Specifically, discourse coherence is based on the macropresupposition of that frame whose kernel-generated presuppositions stipulate the cohesion of the surface structure of the text. Thus, the author creates a coherent discourse via the phenomenological, cognitive component of his / her PB, and then shapes a cohesive text via the linguistic, cognitive component of the same PB. The cohesion of the text is achieved through anaphora of discourse presuppositions and text antonym pairs. Let's discover the antonymic language means in the given excerpt that operate as textual staples. The text instantiates that the antonyms pairs are often quite remote from each other and spread all over the microtext space, thus securing anaphora and cohesion of its parts as in the following pairs: *правдивый в отношении к себе самому* – *обманывать себя*; *не мог рассказываться* – *рассказывался*; *тридцатичетырехлетний* – *бывшую только годом моложе*; *красивый, влюбчивый человек* – *истощенная, состарившаяся, уже некрасивая женщина*. The items in question, as it were, are not obvious antonyms but rather semantic / ideographic, that is, their antonyms status is deciphered by the context. Notwithstanding their non-explicit antonym nature, their common semantic feature and the distinctive semantic feature are undeniable due to which in fact the antonym pair is constructed.

The example quoted heretofore instantiates that text cohesion via antonymy is stipulated by the communicative intent of the addresser whose

account has allowed the introduction of some author-intent-pertinent frame and stereotype (betrayal) presuppositions into the discourse.

As mentioned earlier, text cohesion via antonymy can be realized syntactically as well, thus structuring parallel syntactic constructions. Such cases are prominent for antonymy of both nominal and verbal parts. In this perspective consider the following example.

А вы свое сделайте. Бог милостив, богу молитесь, сударь, богу молитесь [28].

The excerpt quoted above contains parallel opposition of the whole syntactic construction, that is, third person (Бог милостив) to second person (богу молитесь) which is also reflected in corresponding verb forms.

Such a symmetric opposition of predicative bases excludes all other syntactic relations but contrastive.

Conclusion

Overall, antonymy or semantic opposition is one of the principal ways of actualization of the mental content, that is, the PB of the speaking individual. The logic of a person who is undergoing world cognition processes lets him / her choose such strategy that allows observing contrastive, different aspects in identical mental entities. The importance of such a strategy substantiates the pivotal role of antonym cohesion in the organization of the mental structures of the speaking individual, that is, the PB, and their linguistic actualization in the text.

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A STUDENT PERSPECTIVE ON THE USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES BY THEIR ENGLISH-LANGUAGE LITERATURE INSTRUCTORS IN AN OMANI UNIVERSITY

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Abstract. Motivation has been recognized as one of the most influential factors in language learning. This study examines the frequency of use of motivational strategies by English-language literature instructors at the tertiary level in Oman as viewed by their students. A previous study [1] focused on teachers' views of the frequency and importance of 48 motivational microstrategies, divided into 10 macrostrategies, in the Omani classroom. Findings indicate that teachers regarded all strategies as important while the degree of importance assigned to them correlated well with frequency of use. As that study involved only teacher participants, the current research utilized a modified version of its questionnaire to explore the frequency with which 65 Omani English-language literature learners believe these motivational strategies are employed by their instructors. Results suggest that participants believe their instructors often employ five of the featured macrostrategies. These include promoting self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom environment, and making learning tasks engaging. However, the remaining five macrostrategies, such as promoting building group cohesiveness and familiarizing learners with L2 values, were rarely employed. These findings are compared to those from the previous study before a number of implications for motivating learners in Omani classrooms are offered.

Keywords: motivation; literature; EFL / ESL; Oman.

Introduction: Motivation in L2 Language Learning

Motivation can be conceived at a basic level as meaning something that makes individuals act in a certain way. Brown defines it as “an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one towards a particular action” [2: 117]. A fuller definition offers motivation as “the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and acted out” [3: 64].

Motivational and social psychology both attempt to explain human behavior and offer explanatory paradigms or theories such as those around expectancy-value, goals, self-determination, and social behavior. From a socio-educational approach L2 learning consists of three main components [4]. That is, learners consistently make every effort to work hard, they express a desire to accomplish their goal of acquiring a language, and they realize that they enjoy and appreciate the learning process.

In L2 learning, therefore, motivation “serves as the oil that lubricates the other parts of the language-learning mechanism and enables them to move freely and thus produce results” [1: 37]. Indeed, it also “serves as the initial engine to generate learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring a foreign language” [5: 153].

In 2002, Dörnyei and Csizér revisited the classroom-based or “situated approach” to motivation that was so prevalent in the 1990s [6], while Gardner [4] also focused on the influence of the classroom in the L2 learning process. Gardner referred to three concepts that could be influential in successful language learning: the past, the present, and the future. The past could simply refer to the emotional and cognitive baggage students bring with them to the learning process. That is, from this perspective, the learners’ past experiences are a rich source that arms them with stable knowledge. Moreover, even learners’ present physical worlds could make a difference, with influential factors including the classroom, the teacher, materials used, and teaching methods. The future, Gardner continues, refers to the intended use of the foreign language and a willingness to communicate with it.

Given the importance of these elements to learner motivation within L2 contexts, this paper explores student perspectives of the frequency of use of motivational strategies employed by English-language literature teachers in an Omani university. In doing so, it builds upon a previous study by Al-Mahrooqi, Abrar-ul-Hassan, and Asante [1] which examined teachers’ views of the importance and frequency of use of 48 motivational microstrategies, divided into 10 macrostrategies, from teachers’ perspectives within a similar research context. While participants in that study highlighted the importance of utilizing all featured motivational strategies, whether or not Omani students believe these strategies to be actually employed in Omani classrooms was not examined. Moreover, the study was quite general in nature, surveying EFL instructors teaching various courses at schools, colleges and universities. This research, therefore, sought to employ a modified version of the questionnaire used featured in Al-Mahrooqi et al., from a student perspective, the frequency with which the motivational strategies featured on that questionnaire are used within Omani English-language tertiary-level literature classrooms. After examining frequency of use, student perceptions were then compared to teachers’ perceptions as reported by Al-Mahrooqi et al. Implications of findings for classroom practice are discussed.

Literature Review: The Role of Teacher Strategies

For individuals to successfully acquire a target language, they need factors that encourage them to strive hard and persist in the face of failure. They need to use strategies that produce successful learning and, in this regard, the motivational strategies the teacher employs could be extremely influential. However, this claim has not found full acceptance as little empirical research has been conducted to substantiate it, with this being especially the case in the Arabian Gulf context.

Success in L2 achievement requires the presence of knowledgeable and well-trained teachers aware of the significance of their roles as language instructors. Cheng and Dörnyei [5] surveyed the use of motivational strategies among 387 Taiwanese teachers with a focus on two main considerations: perceptions of the importance of motivational strategies and their frequency of use. Findings from this study indicate that some motivational strategies can be “transferable” across cultures.

A longitudinal survey conducted in Saudi Arabia [7] included a nationwide examination of teachers’ use of motivational strategies involving 296 students and 14 teachers. The two-stage study attempted first to discover the importance of using 53 strategies in the classroom. Teachers rank-listed strategies with the ten most frequently employed used in the study’s second stage with seven teachers asked to use these top ten strategies in their classrooms and the other seven not explicitly required to employ these. Classroom observations and post-lesson evaluation sessions were used to determine the extent to which these strategies were employed. Two motivation questionnaires were then administered to students at the start and end of the semester-long research. The study revealed that the student group whose teachers explicitly employed the top ranked motivational strategies had higher levels of L2 motivation.

Within Oman, Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1] attributed Omani student demotivation to various socio-cultural factors. In this study, 286 EFL teachers were surveyed to determine what motivational strategies they used in Omani schools, colleges, and universities. A questionnaire developed in Cheng and Dörnyei [5] was used as the main research instrument. As stated above, findings indicate that teachers regarded all 48 microstrategies as important. Moreover, they regarded the motivational strategy of showing care to students as the most important of all, a finding that was also witnessed in the previous research and which appears to confirm anecdotal evidence from the Arab Gulf suggesting that the personal relationship between students and teachers is one of the most important motivational factors.

Tsui [8: 146] claims that many EFL / ESL teachers tend to waste too much time attempting to get students to respond to their questions and activities in class. The author stressed that “talking equals learning” while also

emphasizing that students cannot be forced to participate unless they are ready. This investigation covered secondary school students from grades 7-11 and was based on action research project reports from 38 ESL teachers at the University of Hong Kong. Tsui concluded that Asian students are generally reticent and reserved in class and suggested that five critical factors hinder learner motivation in East Asian contexts. These are a high level of anxiety with low English proficiency, a lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes, teachers' intolerance of silence, an uneven allocation of turns which creates feelings of unimportance, and incomprehensible input due to a failure to understand the teacher. These results revealed the extent to which personal traits and teachers' classroom roles can affect learners' willingness to participate.

Additionally, selection of appropriate interactive activities such as peer and small group work is known to increase student talking time and willingness to communicate using the L2 [9-11]. Group work fosters L2 oral communication and, consequently, promotes L2 acquisition. An ethnographic study investigating the reasons for reticence among Chinese students learning English as part of a business course tends to support these suppositions [12]. The study collected data from interviews with students and their lecturers and found that some affective, socio-cultural, and educational factors were common causes of student reticence and hesitation. Issues such as losing face, diffidence, unsafe class atmospheres, a lack of incentives, and learning passivity were offered as potentially leading to demotivation. A major finding of the study was that both male and female students claimed that "interactive discussions were possible if the conditions were right" [Ibid.: 81]. Or, in other words, creating an encouraging environment that allows participants to interact comfortably and collaboratively, such as in small group work, can increase learner motivation.

As these studies demonstrate, understanding the agency and effectiveness of motivational strategies is linked to the teacher's role. Hence, it is essential to think of the methods teachers adopt to motivate their learners. Rost [13] summarizes these in three 'layers' with the teacher always acting as the key "motivator". For example, student passion is one "core" element that teachers could trigger to motivate their learners. Considering student interests and personalizing materials is also extremely effective for eliciting a deeper level of commitment and motivation. Changing student reality is the second layer, where, again, the major motivator is the teacher who is responsible for strongly connecting the student to language through "quality instruction". Teachers need to spend sufficient time with their students not only inside class but also outside of it. This involves spending time searching for homework tasks that have "quality" and are "authentic", such as websites, readers, self-access worksheets and quizzes, audio, video, and multimedia learning resources, and assisting students to assess and select what is

suitable among these. In this way, the teacher helps learners to monitor their learning through making choices, planning their program, and achieving attainable sub-goals. The third layer comprises “connecting to learning activities”. The motivator is urged to broadly connect the learner through diverse approaches, including personalizing tasks, involving all learners in all tasks, arranging exploratory in-class activities, and providing feedback throughout the learning process.

The current research acknowledges the potential influence of a variety of L2 motivational strategies as outlined above. In doing so, it employs a questionnaire based on Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1] which was, in turn, derived from the instrument used by Cheng and Dörnyei [5]. The research explores the frequency with which Omani English-language literature students believe their instructors to employ 10 motivational macrostrategies comprised of 48 microstrategies within their literature classes and compares these perceptions with those of their teachers as reported by Al-Mahrooqi et al. Research questions are offered below.

Methodology

Research Questions

As stated above, while previous studies have focused on EFL teachers’ use of motivational studies, few, especially within the context of the Arab Gulf, have examined students’ views. In fact, as of the time of writing, to the extent of the researchers’ knowledge, no studies conducted in Oman have examined this issue from students’ perspectives. This study, therefore, endeavors to achieve this by addressing the following research questions:

1. What are the most and least frequently employed motivational strategies in Omani English-language tertiary-level literature classes as perceived by Omani students?

2. How do Omani students’ perceptions of the frequency of motivational strategies used in these classes relate to teachers’ perceptions as reported in Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1]?

Research Instrument

An English-language version of the questionnaire based on Al-Mahrooqi et al. [Ibid.] was utilized. The questionnaire featured 48 items each representing a specific motivational microstrategy. These, in turn, were divided into 10 macrostrategies. The macrostrategies featured were: “exhibit proper teacher behavior”, “recognize students’ effort”, “promote learners’ self-confidence”, “create a pleasant classroom climate”, “present tasks properly”, “increase learners’ goal-orientedness”, “make the learning tasks

stimulating”, “familiarise learners with L2-related values”, “promote group cohesiveness and group norms”, and “promote learner autonomy”. All microstrategies were introduced by the phrase “My literature teacher...”. Participants were asked to indicate how frequently their English literature teachers employed the motivational strategies featured on the questionnaire on a 5-point Likert response scale. Possible responses were as follows: 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Often, 4 = Very Often, and 5 = Always.

Although the sample size was not large enough to accurately calculate a reliability coefficient for the macrostrategy groups with any degree of accuracy, Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1] reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.60 or above for six of the ten groups on their frequency questionnaire while Cheng and Dörnyei [5] reported coefficients of around 0.70 or above for seven of the ten macrostrategy groups.

The Sample

The sample consisted of 65 second and third year English majors attending courses in Oman’s only public university. All participants had taken literature classes at the university’s Language Centre and / or English Department. Questionnaires were administered in four classes by the first author and a fellow instructor, with students informed about the nature of the research and reminded that participation was entirely voluntary and would not, in any way, impact upon their standing in the class. Moreover, potential participants were informed that their participation would be confidential and their responses anonymous. Of the 80 students that volunteered to respond to the questionnaire, 65 returned it fully completed.

Analysis

Descriptive analysis was performed on both the macrostrategy groups and individual items representing microstrategies within these groups in order to ascertain means. All 48 items across the 10 macrostrategies were positively worded, with response means closer to 1 indicating that participants believed their teachers rarely employed the motivational microstrategy or macrostrategy and response means closer to 5 indicating that participants’ believed their instructors always employed these motivational strategies. A mid-point of 3.00 represents a rough dividing line between less frequently and more frequently used strategies.

Results

Overall group means for the 10 questionnaire macrostrategy groups are featured in Table 1. Of the 10 questionnaire groups, five recorded means of 3.00 or above which indicates that participants believe their instructors often engaged in these motivation strategies. These were for “presents tasks

properly" ($M = 3.37$), "exhibits proper teacher behavior" ($M = 3.21$), "make the learning tasks stimulating" ($M = 3.10$), "create a pleasant classroom environment" ($M = 3.08$), and "promote learners' self-confidence" ($M = 3.06$). The remaining five macrostrategies all received means between 2.00 and 3.00 which indicates that respondents believe their instructors only rarely employed them. The motivation macrostrategies whose means fell within this range were "recognize students' efforts" ($M = 2.94$), "promote group cohesiveness and group norms" ($M = 2.85$), "promote learner autonomy" ($M = 2.84$), and "increase learners' goal-orientedness" ($M = 2.74$). Questionnaire items, or specific microstrategies, associated with each of these groups are discussed in detail below.

Table 1

Questionnaire macrostrategy group means

Questionnaire Group	Mean	SD
Exhibits proper teacher behaviour	3.21	0.89
Presents tasks properly	3.13	1.00
Make the learning tasks stimulating	3.10	0.76
Create a pleasant classroom environment	3.08	0.75
Promote learners' self-confidence	3.06	0.89
Recognize students' effort	2.94	0.79
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	2.90	0.74
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	2.85	0.77
Promote learner autonomy	2.84	0.77
Increases learners' goal-orientedness	2.74	0.89

Table 2 features responses for the questionnaire group "exhibits proper teacher behavior" ($M = 3.21$). Of the five items related to this group, four received means above 3.00 which indicates that participants' believe their instructors employ them often. The items that received the highest mean were "are able to be themselves in front of students" ($M = 3.60$) and "share with students that they value literature as a meaningful experience" ($M = 3.47$). This is closely linked to the questionnaire item from this group that received the next highest mean – "show enthusiasm for teaching" ($M = 3.15$). These two microstrategies taken together suggest that participants' instructors tend to be enthusiastic about English language literature and manage to convey this enthusiasm to their learners. The remaining item from this macrostrategy group that recorded a mean above 3.00 was "show students that they care about them" ($M = 3.13$), although, perhaps somewhat paradoxically, respondents believe that they only rarely managed to "establish good rapport with students" ($M = 2.81$).

Table 2

Exhibits proper teacher behavior

Item	Mean	SD
Are able to be themselves in front of students	3.60	1.08
Share with students that they value literature as a meaningful experience	3.47	1.02
Show enthusiasm for teaching	3.15	1.17
Show students they care about them	3.13	1.21
Establish good rapport with students	2.81	1.01
Group: Exhibits proper teacher behavior	3.21	0.89

Table 3 indicates that, of the two items associated with the macrostrategy “present tasks properly” ($M = 3.13$), both received means above 3.00. These items were “give clear instructions by modeling” ($M = 3.16$) and “give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful” ($M = 3.11$). Both these microstrategies relate to instructors’ abilities to clearly convey to learners why a task is important and how learners should go about performing the classroom activities offered by their teachers. This finding, therefore, suggests that participants’ English-language literature instructors have both an awareness of their learners’ backgrounds and abilities which allows them to place classroom tasks within a meaningful context and the ability to clearly communicate with their students.

Table 3

Presents tasks properly

Item	Mean	SD
Give clear instructions by modeling	3.16	1.13
Give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful	3.11	1.04
Group: Present tasks properly	3.13	1.00

Table 4 features items related to the questionnaire group “make the learning tasks stimulating” ($M = 3.10$). Three of the six items featured on this questionnaire group recorded means above 3.00 which suggests that participants’ thought their instructors often employed them. These were “introduce various interesting topics” ($M = 3.63$), “make tasks challenging” ($M = 3.53$), and “make tasks attractive by including novel and fantasy elements” ($M = 3.15$). These results suggest that participants’ literature instructors are sufficiently aware of their learners’ levels of cognitive development and personal interests to incorporate these into lessons that are stimulating while still being challenging. The remaining three microstrategies here were all related to the encouragement of learner creativity and the use of various presentation methods and materials. These items received means between 2.00 and 3.00 which indicates that participants believe that their instructors

only rarely employ them. These were “present various auditory and visual teaching aids” ($M = 2.76$), “encourage students to create products” ($M = 2.53$), and “break the routine by varying the presentation format” ($M = 2.52$). These findings imply that learners’ believe their instructors tend to employ similar teaching strategies and aids across lessons, while focusing more on task achievement than fostering creativity.

Table 4

Make the learning tasks stimulating

Item	Mean	SD
Introduce various interesting topics	3.63	1.12
Make tasks challenging	3.53	0.90
Make tasks attractive by including novel and fantasy elements	3.15	1.10
Present various auditory and visual teaching aids	2.76	1.14
Encourage students to create products	2.53	0.99
Break the routine by varying the presentation format	2.52	1.11
Group: Make the learning tasks stimulating	3.10	0.76

Table 5 features items related to the macrostrategy group “create a pleasant classroom environment” ($M = 3.08$). The items that received the highest means from this group were “avoid social comparison” ($M = 3.68$) and “bring in and encourage humor” ($M = 3.13$). While participants claim that their English-language literature instructors were likely to use humor and try to create an egalitarian classroom atmosphere, they only rarely attempted to “create a supportive classroom climate that promotes risk-taking” ($M = 2.61$) and to “use short and interesting opening activities to start each class” ($M = 2.39$). This latter finding stands in contrast to participants’ beliefs that their instructors tend to use a variety of interesting topics ($M = 3.63$) as reported in Table 4. Moreover, the fact that instructors were reported to rarely encourage risk taking may be related to the more traditional teacher-centered classrooms that are often found across the Arab world [14] and could therefore be linked to the lack of encouraging creative learning.

Table 5

Create a pleasant classroom environment

Item	Mean	SD
Avoid social comparison	3.68	1.16
Bring in and encourage humor	3.13	0.93
Create a supportive classroom climate that promotes risk-taking	2.61	0.98
Use a short and interesting opening activity to start each class	2.39	1.11
Group: Create a pleasant classroom climate	3.08	0.75

Of the five microstrategies related to the group “promote learners’ self-confidence”, three recorded means above 3.00 (see Table 6). These were “provide students with positive feedback” ($M = 3.23$), “encourage students

to try harder" ($M = 3.21$), and "design tasks that are within the students' ability" ($M = 3.10$). The first two of these items relate to the use of various forms of positive reinforcement and encouragement within the classroom. The final item among this group about instructors designing tasks that are within students' abilities relates to a microstrategy featured on Table 4 about making learning tasks challenging. Again, the fact that participants believe their instructors to make classroom tasks challenging yet within their abilities suggests that their teachers are aware of the importance of integrating language instruction into their literature classes.

The two items from this group that received means below 3.00, thereby suggesting that participants believe their instructors to only employ them rarely, were "make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct" ($M = 2.73$) and "teach students learning techniques" ($M = 2.61$). Regarding the former item, it is often reported that Omani students' strongest core English language skill is oral communication, with their instructors perhaps not seeing the necessity of explicitly highlighting the importance of communication over accuracy to their learners. This may be especially the case in literature classes where the exploration of content could conceivably be privileged over the development of the kinds of English-language communicative skills that teachers may already assume their learners to possess. In terms of the latter item, it is interesting to note the fact that students did not believe their instructors to teach them the learning techniques they need to become independent learners is also reflected in the claim that these instructors did not focus on self-motivating techniques as reported in Table 6.

Table 6

Promote learners' self-confidence

Item	Mean	SD
Provide students with positive feedback	3.23	1.08
Encourage students to try harder	3.21	1.01
Design tasks that are within the students' ability	3.10	1.01
Make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct	2.73	1.07
Teach students learning techniques	2.61	1.08
Group: Promote learners' self-confidence	3.06	0.89

"Recognize students' efforts" ($M = 2.94$) was one of the five questionnaire groups that received an overall mean below 3.00, thus suggesting that instructors were generally unlikely to employ this macrostrategy (see Table 7). Two items from this group received means above 3.00. These were "promote effort attributions" and "recognize students' efforts and achievements". Both these microstrategies received means of 3.08, which suggests that participants' believe their instructors often use them to boost student

motivation. On the other hand, respondents believe that their teachers only rarely made sure that their “grades reflect students’ effort and hard work” ($M = 2.81$) and “monitor students’ progress and celebrate their victories” ($M = 2.48$). It is an interesting contrast that, despite the fact participants believe their instructors recognized their efforts, they nonetheless did not think that their grades reflected their hard work. Some evidence from Oman suggests that many students think that their instructors should pass learners despite their actual level of classroom achievement [15], with grades often seen as more a reflection of the relationship between instructor and learner than an accurate representation of performance.

Table 7

Recognize students’ effort

Item	Mean	SD
Promote effort attributions	3.08	1.05
Recognize students’ efforts and achievements	3.08	1.18
Make sure grades reflect students’ effort and hard work	2.81	1.25
Monitor students’ progress and celebrate their victories	2.48	1.32
Group: Recognize students’ effort	2.94	0.79

Table 8 features items related to the questionnaire group “familiarize learners with L2-related values” ($M = 2.90$). Although the mean for this group suggests that participants’ instructors only rarely attempted to familiarize their learners with the cultural values associated with English language cultures, of the seven items related to this group, five received means of 3.00 or above. For example, participants maintain that their instructors usually “use only English in the class” ($M = 3.74$), and that they were, indeed, likely to “familiarize students with the cultural background of the literary pieces they discuss” ($M = 3.65$). This latter finding, in particular, suggests that English-language literature instructors are aware of the importance of introducing learners to the cultures associated with the English language and / or its literary products – the importance of which has been highlighted by a number of scholars [16–18]. Moreover, participants also believe that their instructors were likely to “introduce authentic cultural materials” ($M = 3.00$) in the classroom.

Participants also state that their instructors often reminded them of “the benefits of literature and mastering English” ($M = 3.48$) and that they “encourage students to use English outside the classroom” ($M = 3.44$). It has been suggested that many Omani students, at least at the tertiary level, fail to see the value of mastering the English language despite the dominance it has attained in a number of domains both within Oman and across the wider Arab Gulf [19, 20]. The fact that participants believe their instructors often remind them of English’s potential benefits suggests that they are aware of this challenge and are actively attempting to address it.

While participants claim that their instructors often employed five of the motivational microstrategies from this group, the remaining two items recorded means between 1.00 and 2.00 which suggests that participants believe their instructors either never or very rarely employed them. These were “invite English speaking foreigners to class to speak about literature” ($M = 1.76$) and “invite senior students to share their English and literature learning experiences” ($M = 1.74$). Both of these strategies involve inviting outside “experts” to the classroom, with the apparent reluctance of instructors to extend this invitation perhaps a result of cramped curricula that allows little extra time. However, it could also be that inviting close role models (i.e., other Omani learners further along their language and / or literature learning careers and native English speakers that learners may only have limited opportunities to interact with outside the classroom) to the classroom could be an ideal way of increasing learner motivation and highlighting some of the more concrete advantages of engaging with their learning.

Table 8

Familiarize learners with L2-related values

Item	Mean	SD
Use only English in the class	3.74	0.97
Familiarize students with the cultural background of the literary pieces they discuss	3.65	1.01
Remind students of the benefits of literature and of mastering English	3.48	1.23
Encourage students to use English outside the classroom	3.44	1.20
Introduce authentic cultural materials	3.00	1.07
Invite English speaking foreigners to class to speak about literature	1.76	1.17
Invite senior students to share their English and literature learning experiences	1.74	1.09
Group: Familiarize learners with L2-related values	2.90	0.74

Of the five items related to the macrostrategy group “promote group cohesiveness and group norms” ($M = 2.85$), only two recorded means above 3.00 (see Table 9). These were “encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts” ($M = 3.37$) and “explain the importance of participation in class discussions” ($M = 3.06$). Participants believe that their literature instructors often engaged in these motivation microstrategies, which suggests that teachers value active participation in their classes and encourage the input of students’ values and opinions. However, despite this, participants believe that their teachers only rarely allowed “students to get to know each other” ($M = 2.90$), which may be due to the relatively high level of English language proficiency students in the sample have already obtained and instructors’ beliefs that these types of activities are therefore not appropriate for such mature learners. Moreover, despite a number of findings here

suggesting that instructors may appreciate the value of creating learner-centered classrooms, it is interesting to note that participants believe their instructors only rarely “let students suggest class activities” ($M = 2.05$), and thus had little influence on the course the lesson would take. However, despite this, differentiated learning may be a somewhat common feature of English classrooms in Omani tertiary institutions, with participants claiming that their instructors only rarely expected them to “work towards the same goal” ($M = 2.85$).

Table 9

Promote group cohesiveness and group norms

Item	Mean	SD
Encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts	3.37	1.04
Explain the importance of participation in class discussion	3.06	1.21
Allow students to get to know each other	2.90	1.26
Ask students to work toward the same goal	2.85	1.10
Let students suggest class activities	2.05	1.11
Group: Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	2.85	0.77

Closely tied to these findings, Table 10 suggests that participants believe their instructors to only rarely “promote learner autonomy” ($M = 2.84$). Only one of the six microstrategies related to the development of autonomous learners recorded a mean above 3.00. This was “encourage peer teaching and group presentation” ($M = 3.26$). Peer instruction has been suggested to be viewed somewhat positively by Omani learners [21], despite a number of potential concerns about the quality and scope of this practice. While the mean for this item does indicate at least one element of a more student-centered classroom, the remaining items related to this macrostrategy indicate that Omani classrooms are still largely teacher-centered. For example, participants believe that their instructors only rarely gave them “choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed” ($M = 2.98$), to “involve students in designing and running the literature course” ($M = 2.55$), and to “allow students to assess themselves” ($M = 2.52$). Moreover, participants claim that their instructors only rarely “adopt the role of ‘facilitator’” ($M = 2.94$), which suggests that English-language literature teachers may still be viewed by their learners more as “givers of knowledge” and sources of information. Finally, learners claim that their teachers were unlikely to “teach self-motivation strategies” ($M = 2.50$), thus leaving them more or less dependent on their instructors to increase and maintain their motivation.

The macrostrategy group “increase learners’ goal-orientedness” received the lowest overall mean ($M = 2.74$), with all of the four items associated with this group recording means between 2.00 and 3.00. For example, participants state that their instructors only rarely encouraged them to “set

learning goals” ($M = 2.95$) and to “develop realistic beliefs about English language learning” ($M = 2.92$).

Table 10

Promote learner autonomy

Item	Mean	SD
Encourage peer teaching and group presentation	3.26	1.09
Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed	2.98	1.02
Adopt the role of a ‘facilitator’	2.94	1.11
Involve students in designing and running the literature course	2.55	1.04
Allow students to assess themselves	2.52	1.11
Teach self-motivating strategies	2.50	1.05
Group: Promote learner autonomy	2.84	0.77

Closely related to this point, participants also claim that their teachers rarely “discuss course objectives and review them regularly” ($M = 2.18$). These findings may be accounted for by the fact that many experienced literature instructors employed in the Omani context were trained in traditional methodologies such as New Criticism, while a few have been trained via reader response principles with the focus on teachers’ input and literary analysis. These teachers, therefore, are unlikely to incorporate learners’ personal needs into the curriculum and / or to encourage a critical examination of these objectives. Moreover, the kind of test-driven instruction that is often claimed to dominate classrooms across the Arab world [22] may also make it far more unlikely for instructors to encourage their learners to develop realistic beliefs about the nature of language learning than to prepare them with the skills and “facts” they will need to be successful on their exams. The final microstrategy from this group is “discuss course objectives and review them regularly” ($M = 2.18$). As the presentation of specific and meaningful lesson goals is often claimed as an important aspect of good teaching practice [23], this is an area that English-language literature instructors in Oman may benefit from focusing more on in the future in order to build their learners’ goal-orientedness.

Table 11

Increase learners’ goal-orientedness

Item	Mean	SD
Encourage students to set learning goals	2.95	1.30
Help students develop realistic beliefs about English language learning	2.92	1.19
Find out students’ needs and build them into curriculum	2.50	0.90
Discuss course objectives and review them regularly	2.18	1.21
Group: Increase learners’ goal-orientedness	2.74	0.89

Discussion

The primary goal of this research was to ascertain the frequency with which Omani students believe their instructors to employ the motivational strategies featured in the questionnaire to motivate them in their English-language literature and to compare these beliefs with the perceptions of instructors as reported in Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1]. Results suggest that participants believe their instructors to employ half of the ten questionnaire motivation macrostrategies often and the remaining five rarely. The five macrostrategies that respondents claim to be used often in their literature classes were “presents tasks properly”, “exhibits proper teacher behavior”, “make the learning tasks stimulating”, “create a pleasant classroom environment”, and “promote learners’ self-confidence”. It is interesting to note that four of these five macrostrategies were also featured in the top five ranked strategies in terms of frequency in Al-Mahrooqi et al.’s investigation on which this research is largely based although, unfortunately, that study did not report frequency means for macrostrategies. In fact, the only motivational macrostrategy that recorded a mean above 3.00 here that was not ranked in the top five of the original research was “make the learning tasks stimulating”. This strategy, as discussed above, recorded a mean of 3.10 here although was ranked sixth in terms of frequency of use by instructor participants in Al-Mahrooqi et al. [Ibid.].

The five macrostrategies that participants believe their instructors to employ rarely in the current study were “recognize students’ efforts”, “familiarize learners with L2-related values”, “promote group cohesiveness and group norms”, “promote learner autonomy”, and “increase learners’ goal-orientedness”. Again, all but one of these strategies also featured in the five least frequently employed macrostrategies by instructors in Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1], with only “recognize students’ efforts” being ranked in that investigation as the fourth most frequently employed macrostrategy. However, despite this, student participants here agreed with instructors in the original research that they were far less likely to use the remaining four motivational strategies.

Conclusion and Limitations

A number of potential limitations affect attempts to fully address both research questions posited here. The first is related to the relatively small sample size of only 65 Omani students, and the fact that this limited number cannot be said to reflect the Omani tertiary population of English-language literature learners with any degree of accuracy. In fact, it is quite possible that a number of extraneous variables, including participants’ relationships with their instructors, preconceptions they may hold about the English lan-

guage and literature and its teaching, and the grades they have achieved and / or expect to achieve in their courses, may all influence participants' questionnaire responses. Moreover, as most students were drawn from only four classes from Oman's only public university, the particular socio-cultural exigencies of the capital city in which the university is located and / or the literary classrooms concerned may influence the results reported here.

In terms of the second research question that sought to compare these findings to those from Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1], it should be explicitly highlighted that any comparison between two samples drawn at different times from a more or less dynamic population is bound, by its very nature, to be problematic. In particular, the 286 teacher participants featured in the original research were not drawn at the same time as the 65 student participants here and, therefore, the population could be conceived of as significantly changing within the data collection period due to the influence of a number of factors including attrition, changing government policies, the social context in which education is taking place, differing levels of funding, changes in administrative and other support staff and so on. Moreover, even if instructors and students were sampled from the same research context at the same time, there is still the chance that any discrepancies in findings in terms of the frequency with which featured macrostrategies are employed would be due to specific classroom practices favored by individual teachers rather than trends across the entire government-funded education system. The authors explicitly acknowledge these areas of concern and, for these reasons, note that any comparison between the two studies must be performed with a great deal of caution.

However, despite these concerns, it should be reiterated that participants in both the current research and in the original study hold very similar perceptions about the frequency with which the ten motivational macrostrategies featured on the questionnaire were employed in Omani English-language literature classrooms. Therefore, it may be possible to claim that English-language instructors in the Omani context are capable of offering instruction in ways that their students believe to be appropriate and motivating. Moreover, this tends to contribute to the creation of a pleasant and supportive classroom environment in which learners can build their self-confidence and, ultimately, take the kinds of chances that allow them to build their English-language proficiency and understanding of English-language literature.

However, despite these positives, it may be the case that English-language literature instructors in Oman do not, despite the introduction of the Basic Education system at the primary and secondary levels that places learner independence at the heart of the curriculum, attempt to promote learner autonomy. This general lack of belief among instructors in the value of engendering learner autonomy, which may be related to the relatively low

value placed upon this as a motivational strategy, has recently been explored in some depth in the Omani context [24, 25]. Moreover, this lack of focus on guiding learners to become independent as a means of increasing their motivation may also be related to a lack of goal-orientedness as a motivating factor as the presentation and discussion of classroom learning goals may be a means through which learners can gain confidence and thereby be weaned of an over-reliance on their instructors.

Finally, while the fact that neither students nor instructors believe the promotion of group cohesiveness was commonly employed as motivating factor within English-language literature classrooms may be due more to cultural norms in which group cohesiveness is already interpreted by instructors as being high or that subgroups based on ethnic / tribal / linguistic lines exist within the classroom that are too strong for teachers to overcome, the lack of focus on familiarizing learners with English-language related cultural values is a contentious issue within the Arab world. In particular, although a number of scholars highlight the importance of learning about the cultures related to the English language in order to learn the language itself and/or gain a greater understanding of its literature [26, 27], others claim that exposing learners to these cultural values can be harmful to their sense of identity [28, 29]. It may be that instructors within Oman are mindful of these claims and tend to err on the side of caution when presenting English-language literature to their learners and hence avoid explicitly instructing them about Western socio-cultural values. This is an area that relates directly to the claim that the 48 microstrategies featured in Al-Mahrooqi et al. [1] are compiled from “Western sources”, with this again potentially influencing the frequency with which they are employed by instructors within the Omani context.

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CASES IN METHODS OF TEACHING RUSSIAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract. The article deals with the specificity of using cases in teaching Russian as a foreign language (RFL) to the adults getting higher professional education or studying Russian for personal goals. The research describes operational phases in the educational process of cases and presents the innovative three-component model of the case. The model is based on features of teaching Russian as a foreign language and takes into account the level of the language proficiency, peculiarities of students and learning environment. The authors define greatest challenges and positive aspects of using cases and lay down their efficiency conditions. The structure of the case developed and proposed in the article can be used in teaching any European language (with some modifications connected with features of culture and everyday life of this or that country). Efficiency of the method, proposed in the article, has been tested at Omsk Tank-Automotive Engineering Institute in the groups with the student number not exceeding 10 persons. The article formulates general methodical requirements and conditions enhancing the productivity of teaching Russian as a foreign language while using cases, positive and negative aspects of cases in methods of teaching Russian as a foreign language.

Keywords: a case; Russian as a foreign language; methods of teaching the second language; teaching communication; teaching interactivity.

Introduction

Among modern methods of teaching Russian as a foreign language the communicative method has occupied the central position for several decades. Teachers aspire to teach a language not as a system (though it is an essential component of the academic content of RFL), but as a mean of communication, to teach oral communication. It means that in the course of acquisition students should not only remember the language system elements, but form skills of productive speech as well, they should speak and listen (that is generate and perceive texts) in communicative situations, adequately estimating their conditions and features. In these context methods of teaching RFL integrate a great number of interactive, communicative and activity approaches and forms which make teaching and learning Russian effective. The methods of case studies is one of these news methods. On the one hand, the theory of case operation in teaching techniques is well-known and developed; on the other hand, it should be updated regularly in the con-

text of the changing world, education system requirements and the trainees' demands. In this connection we would like to offer to teachers of a higher school establishments and special (for adults) courses devoted to studying RFL a new model of cases allowing to improve teaching process, to enhance its quality and to improve the efficiency of a foreign language learning.

Research Questions

The method of cases is aimed at finding a solution to “a practically important situation with the view of the conscious acquisition of the content of the subject by the trainees” [1: 24]. In case of the higher education system this approach focuses on the formation of competences necessary for realization of the future professional work.

Using the method in our professional sphere – that of teaching RFL – has its own specificity. It concerns both the structure of the case and features of its applying in the educational process. That specificity stems from the following: the ultimate goal of the case is development of communication and text construction skills in a foreign language (even if professional terminology becomes the material for the case). So special lexis does not appear at all in the content of the problems taken as a basis of the cases (levels of language mastery A1, A2, B1), or is found in the background (for levels of language mastery B2, C1, C2). In other words, professional competences development is not a goal in itself of the case method in RFL technique.

We will not dwell upon the general methodical requirements applicable to the use of cases in a modern pedagogical science. Quite a lot has been published about it of late. We are much more interested in the features, which such a case reveals in RFL classes when their communicative potential comes to the foreground.

The use of the case within the limits of RFL assumes the following stages:

1. Getting to know a concrete case, a communicative problem.
2. Accumulation of the necessary information in order to acquire skills necessary for getting and estimating the information that will help in the search of the right solution. At the initial stage of the case solution, a part of the information can be provided preformed.
3. Consideration of possibilities of alternative solutions and development of communicative skills in the course of the solution of communicative problems.

The purpose of the case in teaching RFL – to promote communicative, social and cultural competences of the students, studying Russian as a foreign language. This is achieved by creating speech situations, which are true-life, as much as possible.

Introduction of the method in teaching Russian as a foreign language makes it is necessary to find answers to some important questions:

1) How should the case model in RFL in terms of the structure of the speech situation look?

2) Is it possible for the case development to systematize all speech situations arising in the course of the students' communication?

3) Can the cases allow implementing individual and split-level approaches in the course of teaching RFL? If it is possible, in what form?

4) What kind of preparation on the part of the teacher and on the part of the trainees is necessary when using cases?

So before developing such cases one has to have a clearvision of the task. It will make it possible even at the very elementary level to involve students into the process of communication.

Firstly, trainees should understand clearly what kinds of problem they are about to solve. It means that the simulated problem should correspond to and correlate with the similar real life, educational or professional one, which the trainee may well come across in their everyday life. If this condition is not met, the problem loses a very important motivational aspect without which the efficiency of training can be called into doubt. Besides, when constructing the problem it is necessary to designate those conditions under which the communication will be carried out. Hence, the problem formulation should be detailed. It can include the name of the participant of communication (your friend, the cashier, the seller, etc.), the communication place (a hotel, a shop, a hospital and so on), an accurate description of the communicative problem (to ask, to specify, to tell, to sympathize, etc.), the communication time (this morning, every day, in the evenings, tomorrow, etc.) and all kinds of further details necessary for efficient communication under the specific proposed case.

Secondly, the case should include the minimum list of auxiliary language or speech materials which could or should (depending on the level of the language acquisition and abilities of a particular student) be used while working on the case. These materials include words, phraseological units, ready speech patterns or phrases.

Thirdly, trainees should know from the beginning what the practical outcome of their work will be. It, as noted above, can be a newspaper, a card, a presentation, a performance or something else. What is important is to be able to create this product in the course of and / or as the result of the organized discussion or to present it in class with its subsequent joint discussion?

Method

Participants. We would like to add that it is necessary to present the problem so that the information in it has been accurately structured and visu-

ally well perceived. It provides better acquisition of lexis and speech patterns, allowing the correlation of the task content and possible variants of their solutions. We have developed 80 cases and we used these exercises to 150 students over 3 years.

Materials and Procedure. Taking everything mentioned into consideration we could recommend the following approximate model of the case. We have developed this model of the case, implemented it in the educational process:

1. The problem formulated by means of the text introducing the situation.

2. Key tasks and lexical and / or grammar material and speech patterns, which partially or completely help to find a solution of the problem.

3. Something tangible (a newspaper, an album, Internet page, an audio record and so on) the form of which a trainee ideas should take.

Let us consider some examples of cases for the students studying Russian at the elementary level:

Темы «В столовой. Меню»

Кейс «Конкурс на лучшее меню»

Мануэла приехала из Никарагуа и сейчас учится в российском медицинском институте. Каждый день Мануэла ходит в столовую на обед. Здесь всё так интересно! Блюда новые, необычные! Что взять на обед? Как сказать, что вы хотите?

Ключевые задания:

1) Что в столовой обычно едят на завтрак? на обед? на ужин?

2) Что вы любите есть на завтрак? на обед? на ужин?

3) Ответьте на вопросы: Как лучше спросить о меню? Какие варианты просьбы будут самыми удачными? Почему?

4) Вы – заведующий (начальник) столовой. Придумайте название вашей столовой и составьте меню.

5) Проведите конкурс 'Лучшее меню' с ваши друзьями.

– Здравствуйте!

– Доброе утро!

– Добрый день!

– Добрый вечер!

– Скажите, пожалуйста, что это?

– Скажите, пожалуйста, это..?

мясо

рыба

салат

рис

картошка

– У вас есть..?

каша

компот

хлеб с маслом

курица с мясом

Русская кухня

пирожок – пирожки

блины

пельмени

(for readers who do not know Russian language)

Topics 'In the canteen. The menu'
The case 'The best menu competition'

Manuela comes from Nicaragua and now is studying at the Russian medical institute. Every day Manuela goes to the canteen to have dinner. Everything is so interesting here! New, unusual dishes! What to have for dinner?	– Hello!
What do you say to express your preferences?	– Good morning!
– Could you tell me, please, what that is.	– Good afternoon!
Key tasks:	– Good evening!
1) What is usually served in the canteen for breakfast / for dinner / for supper?	– Tell me, please, is this..?
2) What would you like to have for breakfast?	meat
for dinner? for supper?	fish
3) Answer the questions: What do you say to ask about the menu? Which variants of the request will be the most appropriate? Why?	salad
4) You are the manager of the canteen. Come up with the idea for the name of your canteen and compose a menu.	rice
6) 5) Hold the competition 'The best menu' with your mates.	potato
	– Have you got..?
	porridge
	stewed fruit
	bread and butter
	chicken and rice
	<i>The Russian cuisine</i>
	a pie – pies
	pancakes
	pelmeni

The example provided contains a problem situation: 'How to find out what there is today for dinner and how to order what you would like to have and do it as correctly as possible?' Each of the trainees can offer alternate solutions of the given problem. As a result of the discussion the most productive solution is developed. At the same time, students have a possibility to approach the task solution creatively and while composing their own menu they can use not only the material offered by the teacher, but also attempt to add something of their own. Such an approach will allow them to be more convincing during the best menu contest; the results will depend directly on the ability to defend proprietary positions and to join the discussion process. It is quite probable that there will be several winners. Thus all three stages of the problem are consistently realized: 1) getting to know a communicative problem; 2) accumulation of the necessary information in order to acquire skills necessary for getting and estimating the information that will help in the search of the right solution; 3) consideration of possibilities for alternative solutions.

To reach tangible positive results the work on cases solution should be a regular feature of RFL classes. For this purpose it is necessary to develop the tasks, concerning the majority of the themes studied in the course as well as systematize the situations where their use is possible. We have divided such situations into three big groups: household, educational and professional ones. Household situations are connected with the solution of communicative problems arising daily in the trainees' life in the sphere of everyday communication (how to ask the way, to buy tickets to the cinema or some medicine at the drugstore, how to call for a taxi, to get acquainted with a girl, etc.). Educational situations are caused by communicative complexities in

the sphere of getting education (how to borrow a book from the institute library, how to compose an autobiography for the office of the registrar, etc.). Professional orientation tasks include the problems, which can appear in the sphere of the future professional work of the students. The given type of tasks in teaching RFL at the preparation course does not prevail, as the teacher's aim at this stage is to help form the skills of productive communications without reference to the profession. We would like to provide you with an example of the 'professional' case as they are of the greatest difficulty in studying RFL, because they demand specialized knowledge of the professional sphere and quite a good command of the language both on trainees and on teachers' part:

Тема «Одежда. Форма одежды полицейского» (газета)

«Сегодня на построении майор Соловьев сделал замечание курсанту из Иордании Ахмету. Он не подшил чистый подворотничок и не почистил ботинки. Майор сказал: "Ты не бережешь свою форму, а значит – не уважаешь полицию!" Как полицейский должен относиться к форме?»

Ключевые задания:

1. Делится ли ваша форма на повседневную, парадную, зимнюю и летнюю? Есть ли в вашей полиции рабочая и парадная форма одежды?
2. Какие предметы одежды входят в вашу форму (повседневную и парадную)?
3. Расскажите о знаках отличия в полиции вашей страны.
4. Подпишите предметы одежды полицейского.
5. Представьте систему погон в виде картинок и подписей к ним.
6. Сделайте общий плакат «Наша полицейская форма».
7. Спросите у вашего соседа по парте о том, какая у него форма.

форма: повседневная, парадная, зимняя, летняя

обмундирование

шинель,

пальто,

плащ,

мундир,

китель,

куртка,

тужурка,

брюки,

рубашка,

галстук,

кашане,

перчатки,

пояс,

поясной ремень

обувь:

сапоги,

ботинки,

полуботинки

головной убор:

шапка,

пилотка,

берет,

фуражка

погоны

(for readers who do not know Russian language)

Theme "Clothes. The policeman's uniform" (a newspaper)

"Today on the forming-up Major Solov'ev has reprimanded Jordan cadet Ahmet. He did the uniform: undress, dress, winter, summer

not sew on a clear undercollar and did not clean up his boots. The Major told: "You do not take care of your uniform, so you disrespect the police!" How should a police officer regard his uniform?

Key tasks:

1. Does your uniform divide into undress, dress, winter and summer? Are there dress and undress uniforms in your police?
2. What articles of clothing are included into your uniform (dress and undress)?
3. Tell about identifying insignia for police in your country.
4. Put a name to the police officer's articles of clothing.
5. Present the system of shoulder boards in pictures and captions to them.
6. Make a general poster "Our police uniform".
7. Ask your desk neighbor about the uniform in his country.

outfit
 a great-coat,
 a coat,
 a raincoat,
 a uniform,
 a uniform coat,
 a field coat,
 a pea jacket
 trousers,
 a shirt,
 a tie,
 a muffler,
 gloves,
 a belt,
 a waist belt
 shoes:
 knee-high boots,
 boots,
 low shoes

 a cover:
 a cap,
 a fore-and-aft cap,
 a beret,
 a cloth cap,
 shoulder boards

Effectiveness of this kind of work depends not only on the regularity factor but also on the fact that it is repeated throughout all levels of learning Russian as a foreign language. In other words, at the elementary level it could be a story about oneself in a newspaper format with pictures and a text. At the first certification level, a presentation or an album accompanies the story; the story could contain new information about the trainee (e.g., his vision of himself in 10 years time).

In the process of a case compilation, a teacher, certainly, needs to follow the requirements of the State Standards for Russian as a foreign language [2] or other documents, regulating the educational content of Russian as a foreign language. In other words, the level of the task complexity, its lexical and grammatical content should comply with the level of the language acquisition. However, it does not mean that a trainee has to use only that lexis or that grammar, which is given in an exercise. A student is free to make use of the wide variety of lexical and grammatical resources accessible for him to cope with the task. In such situations, the case method facilitates the problem solution by providing a supporting scheme / pattern. That certainly simplifies the process of finding the correct solution and at the same time does not impose any restrictions.

Besides, cases can be used at different phases of the language acquisition: elementary, basic, the first certification, etc. It is the teacher's aim to

represent tasks and a problem methodically correctly (taking into account specifications, the trainee's age and abilities).

For example, at the elementary level it could be a newspaper, a booklet or a table:

Тема «Моя страна / мой родной город». Рекламный буклет

Студент Гансук приехал из Монголии. А Томе – из Мозамбика. Вот Лисбан. Он с Кубы. А это Ахмед из Иордании... Сколько стран учится на специальном факультете нашего института? Больше 20! Давайте путешествовать. Сделайте рекламный проспект с информацией о своей стране и расскажите об интересных местах, где вы советуете побывать своим друзьям из других стран.

Ключевые задания:

1) Найдите в интернете фотографии, на которых есть красивые и интересные места вашей родины.

2) Подумайте, что вы о них расскажете. Почему вы советуете поехать туда и увидеть это «своими глазами»?

3) Сделайте рекламный буклет (2–4 листа картона).

Наклейте фотографии и напишите информацию об этом месте.

страна
город
столица
язык
океан
море
река
водопад
гора – горы
музей
памятник
национальный парк
пейзаж

путешествовать
красивый
популярный
интересный

(for readers who do not know Russian language)

Theme “My country / Myhome town”. Anadvertising brochure

Student Gansuh comes from Mongolia. Tomeis from Mozambique. Here is Lisban. He is from Cuba. And this is Ahmed from Jordan... Representatives of how many countries study at the special faculty of our institute? More than 20! Let us travel. Make anadvertising brochure with the information on your country and talk about interesting places, which you advise your friends from other countries to visit.

Key tasks:

1) Find pictures with beautiful and interesting places of your native land on the Internet.

2) Think what you will say about them. Whydo you advise to go there and see it “with one’s own eyes”?

3) Makeabrochure (2–4 cardboard sheets). Paste on pictures and write the information about these places.

A country
a city
the capital
a language

an ocean
a sea
a river
a waterfall
a mountain – mountains
a museum
a monument
a national park
a landscape

to travel
beautiful
popular
interesting

At the basic level, a product, which is necessary to create, could be more complicated, for example, a collage:

Тема «Мой институт» (коллаж)

«Жорж волнуется. Вчера он приехал из Анголы в Россию. Новый незнакомый город встретил Жоржа снегом и морозом. У него ещё нет друзей, и он совсем не знает институт. Где столовая? Где библиотека? Где он будет учиться? С кем он будет жить в одной комнате?»

Ключевые задания:

1) Нарисуй план института. Напиши, что где находится? Объясните Жоржу, как пройти в столовую, библиотеку, где находятся учебный корпус, стадион, бассейн, общежитие.

2) Сфотографируй или нарисуй интересные моменты из жизни института.

3) Создай коллаж, в который войдут рисунки и фото из жизни института, и подписи к ним. Объясни, почему ты выбрал именно их.

(for readers who do not know Russian language)

столовая
чайная
стадион
бассейн
библиотека
кафедра русского языка
корпус
общежитие
чайная

повернуть налево
повернуть направо
пройти прямо
идти до (чего?)

(что?) находится (где?)

Theme “My institute” (a collage)

“George is worried. Yesterday he arrived from Angola in Russia. A new unknown city met George with snow and frost. He has not made any friends yet, and he does not know the institute at all. Where is the canteen? Where is the library? Where will he study? With whom will he live in one room?”

Key tasks:

1) Draw the institute plan. Write, what and where is situated. Explain to George how to get to the canteen, the library, where the teaching block, the stadium, the swimming pool and the hostel are situated.

2) Take a photo or draw interesting moments of the institute life.

3) Create a collage, which will contain drawings and photos of the institute life and captions to them. Explain why you have chosen them.

a canteen
a tea-house
a stadium
a swimming pool
a library
the Russian language department
a teaching block
a hostel
a tea-house
turn left
turn right
go straight ahead
go as far as (what?)

(what?) is situated (where?)

The first certification level of the language acquisition allows a trainee to cope with the tasks that are more difficult than making presentations, working with tables etc. At this level trainees may be involved in making reports which take into account style requirements, filling up a form or giving an instruction:

Тема «Путешествие. Билет на самолет»

Скоро каникулы. Вы планируете поехать домой, потому что впереди два месяца отдыха. Вам нужно по Интернету заказать билет на самолет до вашего родного города.

Интернет
сайт

Ключевые задания:

1. Найдите в интернете сайт нужной вам авиакомпании, например «Аэрофлот».
2. Найдите на сайте раздел «Правила бронирования и оплаты билета». Прочитайте его. Обязательно поставьте галочку, что вы с этими правилами ознакомлены и согласны. ☒
3. Найдите на сайте раздел «Купить билет» или «Забронировать билет».
4. Заполните нужные вам требования в заявке на покупку (бронирование) билета (откуда, куда, билет «туда и обратно» или только «туда», дату отправления, количество билетов, класс обслуживания, валюта оплаты).
5. Узнайте, в какие сроки необходимо выкупить билет.
6. Составьте инструкцию для товарищей «Как забронировать билет на самолет»

бронировать / забронировать
бронь
бронирование

пункт назначения
класс обслуживания
– эконом
– комфорт
– бизнес
валюта

ознакомиться с правилами
поставить галочку

оплатить
оплата

выкупить бронь

инструкция

(for readers who do not know Russian language)

Topic “Travelling. The flight ticket”

The vacations are just round the corner. You plan to go home, because there are two months of rest ahead. You need to book the flight ticket over the Internet to your hometown.

Key tasks:

1. Find on the Internet a site of the airline you need, for example “Aeroflot”.
2. Locate the site section entitled “Rules of the reservation and the ticket payment”. Read it. Be sure to tick the box that you have read, understood and agreed with these rules. ☒
3. Find the site section “Buy a ticket” or “Reserve a ticket”.
4. Fill in the necessary information concerning your flight (where from, where, a return ticket or one-way ticket, the departure date, number of tickets, a service class and payment currency).
5. Find out the information about the time period in which you have to redeem your ticket.
6. Write out the instruction for your groupmates “How to reserve the flight ticket”

The Internet
a site

book / make a reservation
booking
reservation

a destination
a service class
– economy
– comfort
– business
currency

have a look at the rules
tick the box

to pay
payment

redeem a ticket

an instruction

Results

The results of the final phase of the experiment indicate a significant improvement of the quality skills through regular reference to case studies as shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1

The results of the exam in the preparatory course (2013)

150 students	Listening	Grammartest	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Results
AVERAGE SCORE (maximum 5)	2.6	3.2	2.6	4.3	4.3	3.3

Table 2

The results of the exam in the second year (2016)

150 students	Listening	Grammartest	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Results
AVERAGE SCORE (maximum 5)	4	3.9	4	4.3	4.6	4

Creation of projects (newspapers, instructions, presentations, etc.) should not become a goal in and of itself. This work should become the means of language acquisition, helping to organize speech communication: a story with the following discussion of its content, a discussion, a dialogue, a role-playing game.

Conclusions and discussion

If you carefully analyze structural features and the content of the cases, it is not too difficult to notice that their use in the teaching process has advantages and disadvantages (for both the teacher and the student).

Benefits of the case method for the trainee:

1. Increase of motivation and interest in a subject.
2. Development of the trainees' independence and commitment; they learn to set realistic goals.

3. The level of trainees' knowledge, the width of their outlook and the depth of their experience are expanded.

4. Better acquisition of the learning material.

5. Development of teamwork skills, social skills and the ability to provide feedback.

6. Formation of problem solving habits, foreseeing all possible consequences of the decisions made, understanding the ways a problem may be approached, decision – be made and substantiated.

7. Acquisition of the ways decisions are reached and rationalized.

8. Activation of trainees' stand to social issues promoting stress resistance and ability to respond to challenges.

9. Enhancement of trainees ability to experiment, hypothesize and find evidence.

10. Accumulation of experience to work with the information, to solve problems and to make decisions.

Benefits of the case method for the teacher:

1. Enrichment of the teacher's creativity potential in the process of search for new opportunities for material presentation.

2. Using the possibility of direct adaptation of scholarly advance stop articular situations and conditions.

3. Integration of the teaching material within the frameworks of the separate block at different levels (intersubject, metasubject and personal) that allows to achieve several objectives simultaneously – training, educational, organizing and research.

Disadvantages of the case method:

1. Making a case and working with it is always a creative process, requiring "erudition, pedagogical skills and time for selection of appropriate actual information in which a professional situation is modelled and the body of knowledge, know-how, which students need to acquire, is reflected".

2. Impossibility to apply this method at the first phases of learning a language. Application of the case method is in effective without first obtaining necessary knowledge in the subject and the theme.

3. A certain level of the students' training, such as primary team works kills and the level of communicative competence, which is relevant to the case.

4. High effectiveness of this method is contingent on its combined application with other teaching methods.

In summary, the use of the cases requires some efforts from both a teacher and a student. A teacher should prepare information, arrange it in a proper way, define the tasks and think over the work system. A student needs a lot of time for its realization. Most of ten it is possible to complete the case only outside the classroom at self-instructional time for the subject.

For the most effective work in the framework of the method, it is necessary to consider a set of conditions, without observation of which the use of the case method cannot be productive:

1. The realization takes a lot of time. Sometimes— to solve a case— students need to give it the time reserved for self-instruction. It means that the task should be represented in such a way that students would not have any difficulties in understanding it. Certainly, it is necessary to give explanations in class.

2. The wish to use modern methods of RFL teaching and the level of a teacher's professional competence. Cases take a lot of time and intellectual resources (for both preparation and organization) as well as for careful premeditation of the method place in the system of other teaching methods. As a result not every expert is ready and eager to use this method.

3. Communicative experience of students and the group characteristics. It is necessary to prepare the performance of such exercises psychologically. Students should not have a desire to laugh at the conversation partner in the course of the solution or the presentation of the case. The teacher's goal is to create a positive communicative atmosphere and willingness to succeed. It is especially important when the group consists of students from different countries.

4. Preservation of the proposed visual pattern of the case assuming its division into two parts: informative (with the text description of the situation) and supportive (with the speech patterns and the words). Such a structure facilitates greatly the perception of the material at initial stages of studying Russian as a foreign language.

5. Small student groups (no more than 10 persons). Otherwise not every trainee can take part in the case solution, which means that the quality of the material acquisition might leave much to be desired.

The authors believe that teaching Russian as a foreign language could be characterized as interesting, communicative and successful provided a competent teacher makes an effective use of combination of the traditional teaching methods and the cases. It is necessary to pay attention to the choice of suitable tasks, their accordance to the current reality, application of the knowledge received in class and the students' psychological readiness for dealing with such cases. All these theoretical and practical issues should be taken on board while determining long-term goals consisting in training internationally recognized and possessing necessary theoretical and practical skills and knowledge specialists.

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TEACHING VIA WEBQUEST

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Abstract. Webquest is an educational technology, with the help of which students of higher schools using Internet resources can learn more about the subject-matter. Webquest has the well-defined structure and is aimed at inquiry and cognitive activities of students. An experiment was conducted in two student groups to collate teaching using webquest with the traditional one. Despite the students of both groups had equal level of foreign language competence, and the control group with traditional instruction enjoyed the topic a lot, the experimental group showed better results. Obviously, a webquest-based technology led to significant progress in subject-matter understanding versus customary instruction.

Keywords: webquest; technology; traditional.

Introduction

Since the Internet constantly envelops an enormous part of human activities, the education environment is not the exception. University teachers are persistently searching innovative ways to involve their students in research activities. One of the appropriate approaches to make students investigate a problem under study is a webquest technology. A webquest is an inquiry-oriented activity in which most or all of the information the students explore and evaluate is drawn from the web [1].

Webquests prompt students to ask questions, focus on using information rather than searching for it, and look at material critically. There are two main types of the webquest: a short-term and a long-term webquest. Short-term webquests engage learners on tasks that require one or two class periods permitting students to study a large number of sources containing new information and understand them in order to solve the problem under investigation. Long-term webquests require more than three class periods; it depends on the amount of information necessary for analysis and complexity of the webquest. An academic goal of any webquest is acquisition of knowledge and its integration into a system of knowledge, as well as a deep analysis and transformation of the information obtained into a new certain comprehension [2].

Students analyze information given in the links offered by the teacher, change and renovate it in some way and demonstrate in-depth understanding of the material by creating a final product that others can react or respond to.

According to T. March, the “scaffolding structure” of webquests allows students to transform new information and comprehend it better [3]. Tom March noted that the possibility for collaborative work helps students to know the subject better; teamwork is an important student skill for achieving goals both inside and outside of classrooms. Many teachers who are engaged with similar techniques consider the webquest as an effective pedagogical strategy because it motivates students’ critical thinking and contextualizes learning in a way that was not previously possible [4].

Methodology

Two groups of second-year students with the major ‘Geography and Tourism’ were taken for an experiment. One group of students was chosen as a control group and another – an experimental one. The experiment was conducted at Tomsk state university and lasted for two weeks. The author developed a webquest and designed the details of the webquest activity in advance. The students of the control group were learning the subject in a traditional way, i.e. without using webquests, while the students of the experimental group should fulfill a webquest offered by the teacher. The class scheduling strategy for the university made it possible for students to have English classes twice a week. The students of the experimental group had an opportunity to study the problems stated in the webquest both in the university computer room and at home. The students of the control group should do the homework as well. The nature of the curriculum was such that the students of both groups could be engaged in the problems concerning modern trends in hospitality and tourism.

Experiment

The participants were 23 university students with the major ‘Geography and Tourism’, who were divided into two groups: control (C-group, 11 members) and experimental (E-group, 12 members). A 30-item pre-test was administrated to each student on the first day of the experiment. The teacher scored each test. The results of the pre-test showed that the average level of both groups was equal and corresponded to A2 level.

The subject-matter was “Globalization”. The goal was to compile the general picture of globalization in the world and predict its possible consequences. The C-group was taught by the same teacher and studied the problem in a traditional way. They listened to the teacher, took notes, read books, and participated in discussions on the given topic. The teacher kept the students on topic almost all the class time. The E-group worked through the webquest. The webquest consisted of three stages: initial, role-based, and final.

The initial stage lasted two classes. The students worked individually with the internet resources offered by the teacher. The webquest unit consisted

of a web site containing a collection of web-based resources for exploration. The webquest contained a scoring rubric with detailed information on the teacher's requirements and expectations for their final product, a Power Point presentation. The teacher was also in the computer class assuring that students stayed on task, occasionally interacting with them and answering questions related to the webquest activities. She answered students' questions regarding the topic.

The role-based stage lasted one class. The students were divided into three subgroups according to the roles: subgroup I – 'centralization of management', subgroup II – 'world financial market', and subgroup III – 'international tourism'. The participants worked in subgroups of four. Each subgroup chose a leader. In the course of working the leaders helped the students of their subgroups who experienced any difficulties with the language; in this case a process of self-training emerges, since the information transforms into deep comprehension due to the explanation.

The third stage, the final, took place in the fourth class. All students worked together. Their task was to create a presentation; they had to include all the information they had obtained and processed. The students' computer proficiency was high enough to create their final product and they experienced very few problems related to working with Power Point software. The other group also had to prepare an in-class presentation.

Moreover, at the end of two weeks, both groups of students were given a post-test that was identical to the pre-test. The post-test was scored by the teacher.

Results

In the experiment, the units under test were the students' competences: language, speech and cultural.

The experiment results were encoded for statistical treatment, which was conducted with the help of Microsoft EXCEL software. Indices for each component were encoded and evaluated in a three-point scale: "0" – low level, "0.5" – average level, "1" – high level. If an answer testified the student's ignorance about a certain aspect, it was evaluated as "0". If a student demonstrated certain knowledge of the subject but experienced some difficulties or answered with the help of prompting questions, his / her answer was evaluated as "0.5". Finally, if a student's answer testified complete understanding of a subject-matter aspect, his / her answer was encoded as "1".

For evaluation of statistical significance of the results we used Student's t-test. The Student's t-test is a test for statistical significance that uses tables of a statistical distribution called Student's t -distribution, which is that of a fraction (t) whose numerator is drawn from a normal distribution with a mean of zero, and whose denominator is the root mean square of k terms drawn from the same normal distribution (where k is the number of degrees of freedom).

In case of disconnected samples, t-test was evaluated according to the formula:

$$t = \frac{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|}{S_d},$$

where for equal samples $S_d = \sqrt{S_x^2 + S_y^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{(n-1)n}}$, x и y – the results of testing students of both groups, $\bar{x}$ и $\bar{y}$ – average score, n – number of tasks. The number of freedom degree: $k = 2n - 2$.

In case of connected samples, t-test was evaluated according to the formula:

$$t = \frac{\bar{d}}{S_d},$$

where $\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d_i}{n} = \frac{\sum (x_i - y_i)}{n}$, $d_i = x_i - y_i$ ($d_i = x_i - y_i$ is a difference between appropriate value of the variable x and the variable y , and d is the mean product of the differences), and

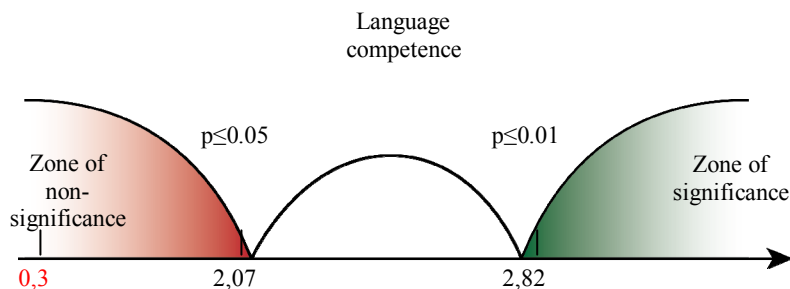
$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d_i^2 - \frac{(\sum d_i)^2}{n}}{(n-1)n}}.$$

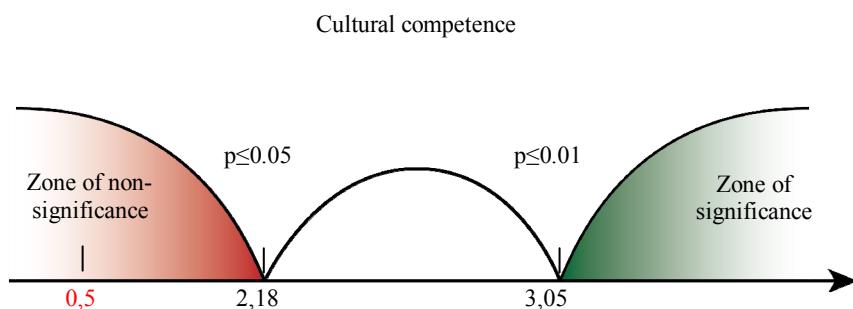
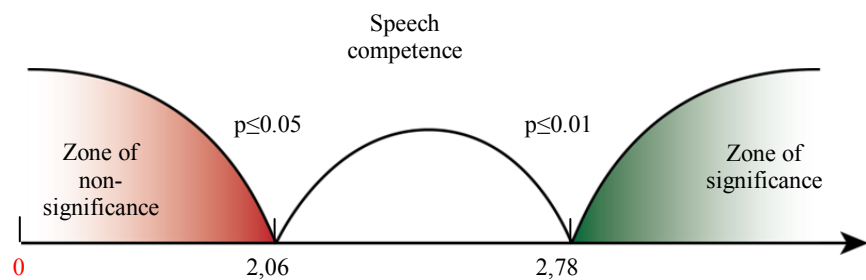
The number of freedom degree: $k = n - 1$.

Table 1

Indices of competence levels in control and experimental groups at the beginning of the experiment (pre-test results)

Competence	Control group	Experimental group	t-test	$p \leq 0.05$	$p \leq 0.01$
Language	0.337	0.330	0.3	2.07	2.82
Speech	0.259	0.265	0	2.06	2.78
Cultural	0.351	0.380	0.5	2.18	3.05



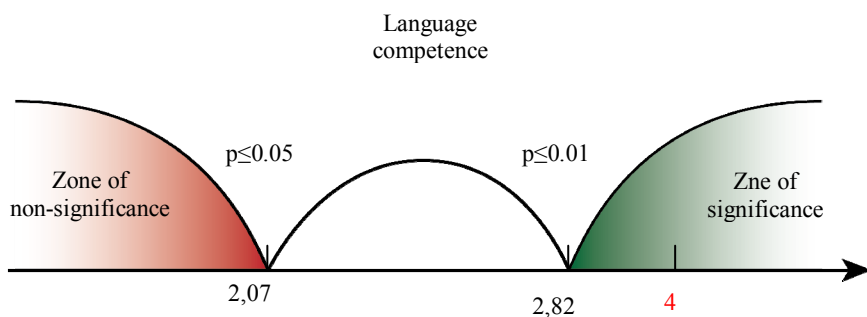


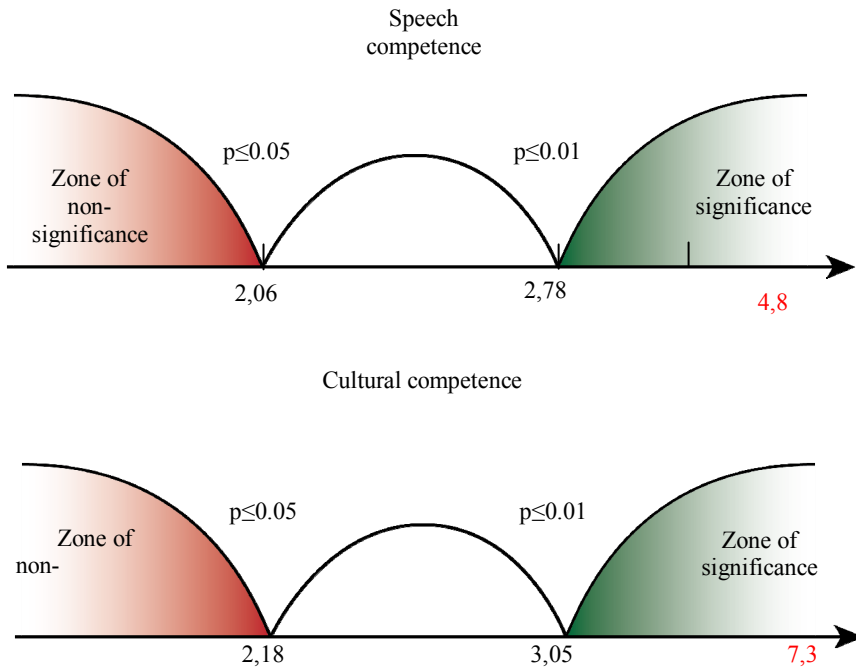
The empirical value t - (0.3; 0; 0.5) at 5% level of significance (disconnected samples) showed an approximate equality of competences of students in both groups.

Table 2

Indices of competence levels in control and experimental groups at the end of the experiment (post-test results)

Competence	Control group	Experimental group	t-test	$p \leq 0.05$	$p \leq 0.01$
Language	0.530	0.694	4	2.07	2.82
Speech	0.487	0.726	4.8	2.06	2.78
Cultural	0.539	0.827	7.3	2.18	3.05





The empirical value t - (4; 4,8; 7,3) at 5% level of significance (dis-connected samples) showed an obvious increase of indices of competence level in both groups. However, the indices of the experimental group demonstrate significant progress versus the control group.

For visual evidence, we drew a diagram to show the difference between the indices of pre-test and post-test for both groups (fig. 1).

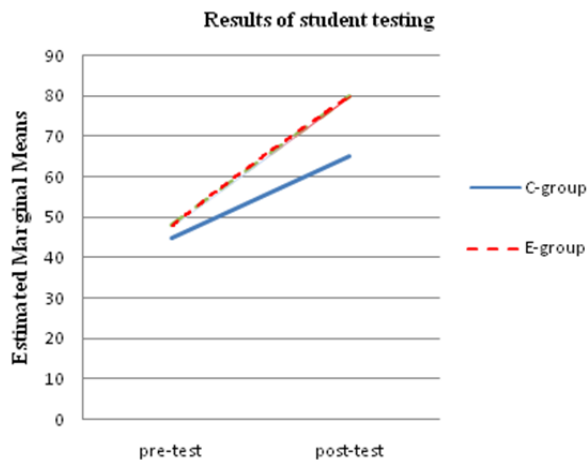


Fig. 1

The post-test results at the end of the experiment showed that the webquest technology using in the educational process helps students to learn both individually, operating their cognitive and metacognitive processes, and in a team, solving problems together. In the result, the students of the experimental group have significantly increased their language competence level that is explicitly visible from the diagram above.

Discussion

The qualitative data suggest clearly that students had a positive attitude toward the webquest. On the fourth day of the experiment, the students of the experimental group were interviewed by the teacher. According to most interviews the students enjoyed learning through the webquest a lot. In response to initial, open-ended questions about the webquest, the students said:

Student 1: It was very detailed and interesting. I felt curiosity about the subject. I could draw much more information from the web than from a traditional lecture.

Student 2: I did a pretty good job. It was fun – I liked to do the quest. It was easier than just being in the classroom listening to the teacher the whole time...

Student 3: I think it was much more beneficial than learning in the classroom, but it was difficult because the language of the web-resources was too complicated. It was not fun but useful.

In this research, the author developed the webquest for the class and designed the details of the webquest activity. Also, the background was one with rich support for technology and in which admittance to hardware was trouble-free and levels of student intelligence with reference to technology use were high. It was clear that, despite these factors, neither the students nor the teacher in this study were accustomed to using webquest as teaching / learning activities.

A forceful aspect in this study was that for the experiment, both the pre-test and post-test were the same. So, any learning differences can be attributed to the treatment. There are many other issues, however. In the course of the experiment students were working together. Working in a team unavoidably raises the level of performance-based feedback received by the students.

Conclusions

Thus, the webquest technology integration into the educational process allows students to master the subject-matter much deeper, while a traditional way of knowledge acquisition often results in learning the material by heart in order to pass an examination.

According to the results, the webquest technology allows students to develop:

- computer skills;
- speech competence;
- professional vocabulary;
- positive sense for learning;
- teamwork skills;
- critical thinking;
- interest in the culture of other countries;
- scope of knowledge;
- creative potential;
- strategy for material acquisition.

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