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Psychological characteristics of students' self-organization: Personal and group levels

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Abstract

The goal of the research was to study the psychological characteristics of students' self-organization at personal and group levels. Our hypothesis was that students involved in socially useful organizations possess the psychological qualities promoting their self-organization at personal and group levels to a greater extent. The following techniques were used: E.Yu. Mandrikova's activity self-organization questionnaire, E.Yu. Korzhova's life orientations questionnaire, M.Ya. Dvoretskaya's "Life activity standard", the questionnaire of S. Schwartz, the group cohesion identification technique of C. E. Seashore, and A.V. Petrovskiy's technique of measuring cohesion as a value and orientation unity. The empirical study involved 904 students (316 male and 558 female ones) of the Far Eastern higher education institutions in various years of study and specialities, aged 16 to 31 (the average age was 19-20 years). The valid significant parameter distinctions studied using these techniques were given for two samples of students: those who take part in public organizations and those who do not. The conclusion was made that the students participating in public organizations are more successful, purposeful, persistent; they manage their time better and think more about their plans for the future; they plan their life better, change themselves more intensively, and possess a higher moral and ethic responsibility and sense of community.

Keywords: self-organization, self-governance, subject-object orientations, values, hierarchy of values

Introduction

Student self-governance as an independent and initiative activity is a major constituent of a more generic process of self-organization of young students. Active involvement of students into socially useful organizations is an indicator of the young people's successful socialization and an important goal of upbringing programs in higher education institutions.

One of the conditions for full-fledged social development of a future professional's personality is creation of various forms of collective self-organization that are embodied in student associations (Porta & Diani, 2006). In practice, student self-organization has not always been expressed in a relevant manner, while uniting initiated from the top has not always reflected the interests of the young people (Fuchs, 2006). For youth, founding student associations by self-organization is an opportunity for correcting and developing not only personal capacity (value and motivation base, sufficient level of development of personal qualities) but also for channeling the potential of the associations into solving the problems of public character (Hanson, 2014).

Currently, universities have numerous student associations of various forms beginning with officially registered student union organizations and finishing with small youth groups which are informal and created at a department or among the students of the same studies year. The increasing number of the associations points at the fact that students are ready for organized interaction in order to pursue their interests and needs. For more fruitful and efficient interaction with youth, there arises a need to further re-evaluate the mission, methodological bases and subject matter of student organizations (Roueche & Roueche, 1999).

However, the controversial character of young people's activity in their choice of an organization to join and of motives for joining is pointed out in literature. In their choice, the young people often follow their individual preferences not always orienting to socially useful goals of public activity. Seeking to create asocial isolationist groups and even to unite on a criminal basis is pronounced in some young students in the urban environment. This gives evidence about the improper formation of civic awareness, hierarchy
of values and motives of life and activity essential for a mature socially useful personality. Thus, higher education institution pedagogics and psychology face important objectives in developing the required programs for cultivating social and professional responsibility.

In the actual pedagogical practice of educational institutions, the most topical questions are ones on the necessity for administration to make efforts for creating student self-governed organizations and on the factors which influence the initiation of these processes and the successful course thereof (Bazhenova, 2011). It is studying such factors that this paper is focused on.

Self-organization of young students as a complex systemic phenomenon is a process of students' active participation in socially useful organizations and a spontaneous process of creation, development and functioning of new social student organizations of various natures. Four levels at which the complex process takes place can be outlined: (1) an individual student personal level; (2) an academic student group level; (3) the level of student organizations in a higher education institution; (4) the level of regional and national organizations of young students.

**Goal, objectives and methods of the research**

The goal of this research is studying the psychological characteristics of individual students' personal self-organization that encompass the first and second levels of consideration of the phenomenon. The methodological prerequisite of such consideration is the subject-based approach, according to which we have to study an individual personality as the main construction brick of the society and to create such development models as to embody the particularities of a given community within a given time span (Abulkhanova, 2009). This approach stresses the necessity of a personality's inner self-modification in the changing social conditions, which requires the development of the personality's activity and ability to adapt to complicated life circumstances.

If considered as a special form of public activity, self-organization of students participating in organization of studies, useful forms of social activity, leisure and daily life implies their possessing certain psychological qualities which promote manifesting the initiative and independence. In connection to this, our hypothesis consists in the following: students involved in socially useful organizations possess psychological qualities promoting self-organization and self-governance at the personal level to a greater extent; they are more purposeful, responsible, persistent; they manage their time and activity better; they are more successful and active, and they tend to value the community spirit more as compared to the students who do not take part in any organizations.

The following psychodiagnostic techniques for studying the characteristics of students' self-organization at the first (personal) level were used: E.Yu. Mandrikova's activity self-organization questionnaire (Mandrikova, 2010) which represents the M. J. Bond and N. T. Feather technique (Bond and Feather, 1988) adapted for Russian speakers, E.Yu. Korzhova's subject and object orientations questionnaire (Korzhova and Dvoretskaya, 2005), M.Ya. Dvoretskaya's "Life activity standard" (Korzhova and Dvoretskaya, 2005), and the values questionnaire of S. Schwartz (Schwartz, 1992).

E.Yu. Mandrikova's activity self-organization questionnaire is designed for diagnosing the particularities of tactical planning and strategic goal setting. The questionnaire has six scales: conformity to plan (the extent of involvement of the subject into tactical daily planning according to certain principles); purposefulness (the subject's ability to focus on a goal); persistence (the subject's inclination to making volitional efforts for completing a commenced affair and for sorting out his activity); fixation (the subject's inclination to focus on a preplanned structure of organizing the events in time, his attachment to a clear schedule, his rigidity towards planning); self-organization (the subject's inclination to using external means for organizing his activity), and orientation to the present. A high total score characterizes a person who tends to see and set goals, plan his activity using external means, thus displaying his volitional personal qualities.

The subject and object orientations questionnaire of E. Yu. Korzhova allows revealing the components of basic life orientations manifesting themselves in life situations and their generalized index. The main
indices are "trans-situational creativity" – the activity which transforms life situations – and "trans-situational locus of control" – the locus of subjective control over life situations. In its turn, the trans-situational creativity parameter consists of the interrelated indices – "trans-situational changeability" (drive for self-modifications), "trans-situational focus of learning the world", both inner and outer (drive for self-improvement or interaction with the outer world), and "trans-situational mobility" (drive for change in outer life).

M. Ya. Dvoretskaya's "life activity standard" technique (LAS) reveals the generalized integral focus of a personality on certain life ideals and values; it is built along the lines of semantic differential and it represents a set of opposite polarity statements. The testee is offered to estimate the significance of statements according to a 7-point scale. The technique consists of two parts: the first one includes statements characterizing the actual life activity standard, and the second one – an ideal life activity standard. Each statement belongs to one of the three scales: (1) vital LAS includes statements characterizing the focus on vital and hedonistic values; (2) social LAS includes those characterizing the focus on social values; (3) existential LAS contains existential orientation statements. The values questionnaire by S. Schwartz allows revealing terminal and instrumental values. The terminal values reflect pursuance of certain life goals. The instrumental values characterize a certain way of attaining a goal. The questionnaire consists of two parts that differ in procedure. The first part of the technique (normative values level) allows studying the normative ideals, value orientations that are not always manifested in actual social behavior. The second part of the questionnaire (individual priorities level) deals with value orientations manifesting themselves in the social behavior.

In order to explore the second level of self-organization aimed at studying the social and psychological constituents of students' self-governance, the following techniques that allow characterizing the level of group cohesion of academic student groups and value and orientation unity thereof were selected: the group cohesion questionnaire of C. E. Seashore (Aiken, 1997) and A. V. Petrovskiy's technique of studying the value and orientation unity (Petrovskiy, 1987).

C. E. Seashore's group cohesion index allows revealing the extent of group integration, its cohesion up to an entity from the viewpoint of the group members and the extent of acting as a part of the group being attractive for them. The technique involves five questions with several answer options to each of them.

A. V. Petrovskiy's theory of activity-based mediation of interpersonal relations of an individual in a group (or the stratometric concept) views cohesion as a value and orientation unity, i.e. agreement of estimations and attitudes of the group towards objects that are significant for the group as a whole and related to essential facets of its joint dedicated activity and understanding of this agreement. Thus, it is a measure of solidarity of views, standpoints, and value orientation of the joint activity participants.

In the empirical research conducted from January to April 2015, we studied the psychological characteristics of 492 students participating in student self-governance (161 male and 331 female ones) and 412 students not taking part in this form of activity (155 males and 257 females). The sampling covered students of various specialities, in their first through fifth years of study, aged 16 to 31 (the average age was 19-20) enrolled in state higher education institutions of the Far East. In particular, the sampling included the students of North-Eastern Federal University (Yakutsk), Blagoveshchensk branch of the Financial University of the RF Government; Nakhodka branch of Vladivostok State University of Economics and Service, Sholom-Aleichem Amur State University (Birobidzhan), Sakhalin State University; Pacific National University (Khabarovsk), Khabarovsk State Academy of Economics and Law.

The students who participated in the research are active members of various socially useful organizations: student union organization, volunteer movements of various focus, student volunteer teams, student research societies, creative and sports clubs.

When analyzing the validity of distinctions between the average values of measured indices in the two groups, Mann-Whitney U-criterion was used.

Results and discussion
Let us consider the results of comparison of the studied samples according to the psychological characteristics of activity self-organization (Table 1) that are most directly relevant to the phenomenon of self-governance.

Table 1
It should be pointed out that in all indices of E. Yu. Mandrikova's technique, including the total index, valid distinctions between groups were found at a very high significance level (p<0.001 for all indices). Alongside with orientation to the present, the students participating in self-governance score higher than those not involved in self-governance on indices of conformity to plan, purposefulness, persistence, fixation, self-organization, as well as on activity self-organization on the whole. The indices reflect various aspects of personal psychological time both as life time and as particularities of its structuring. According to the findings of our research, the students participating in self-governance are more successful in structuring their time, more purposeful, persistent in attaining their goals; they manage their time better, they are less oriented to the present and, apparently, think more about their plans for the future. Thus, the students involved in social organizations are more active and successful in organizing their own activity.

The following group of indices under consideration belongs to the subject sphere of life orientations. As for these indices, a number of valid distinctions were also detected, yet the results are not so straightforward (see Table 2).

Table 2
First of all, let us highlight the indices that are validly higher in the students participating in self-governance – we range them according to the order of decreasing distinctions strength. They are trans-situational locus of control (p<0.001), trans-situational changeability (p<0.01), trans-situational focus of learning the world (p<0.05). This means that the students participating in self-governance are distinguished by a higher level of subjective control over life situations, they feel responsibility for their life events more profoundly and they are aimed at controlling them. Accordingly, they plan their life noticing the interrelation of their actions and subsequent events (a higher trans-situational locus of control); they change themselves more intensively (trans-situational changeability) and they improve their inner world making self-cognition more profound (trans-situational focus of learning the world). Meanwhile, trans-situational mobility is more characteristic for the students not involved in self-governance (p<0.001), and so is a higher summed score of subject-object orientations – apparently, it is especially influenced by the latter index. Trans-situational mobility characterizes a person's desire to interact with new life situations (professional, academic etc.), to change life, which to some extent conflicts with the above values of other indices of subject-object orientations. It can be supposed that this characteristic reflects an outward activity more, while trans-situational focus and trans-situational changeability characterize the activity toward one's inner world. This gives ground for saying that people involved in self-governance most likely do this not in a formal manner but in line with profound inner change and attention to their inner world. A higher trans-situational mobility index in the students not participating in socially useful organizations may give evidence of a probability of their joining isolationist youth organizations.

Subject-object orientations in life situations are a person's basic life orientations that set the direction for the subjectness potential fulfilling in life activity and determine the extent of one's activity in building their life. With the data being even slightly controversial and not straightforward, they can point at different content of inner activity – it is it's the formal side of the subject and object orientations' prevalent determination. Due to this, the sphere of values has to be considered in more detail (Table 3).
According to the data obtained, the students participating in self-governance feature validly higher scores in the extent of such terminal values as world peace (p<0.001), beauty of nature and art (p<0.01), wisdom (p<0.05), unity with nature (p<0.05), which characterizes the breadth of links with the world, going out beyond the limited "ego" world. They also show higher indices of politeness (p<0.001) and right to personal space (p<0.05), which reflect the intention of socially correct behavior. With regard to this, the value of wealth is validly higher in the students not involved in self-governance, which highlights their orientation to receiving income, yet in not always socially useful spheres of activity. Among the instrumental values, the students participating in self-governance have higher indices of purposefulness (p<0.001), intention to preserve the environment (p<0.001), respect for the elderly (p<0.01), actions for the benefit of others (p<0.01), and significance of faith and religion (p<0.01) – this is quite in line with their terminal value indices given above. Meanwhile, the figure of such value as hedonism is also higher in them (p<0.01), and so is that of acceptance of life (p<0.05). On the one hand, it may give evidence of the involved in self-governance students' having a more pronounced feeling of living a full life. On the other hand, this may mean that they have (just like the students not taking part in organizations) an inherent in today's youth conflict between personal pursuit of pleasures and the necessity of being responsible in social relationships. It characterizes a certain superficial and controversial aspect in relationships with the world, however, with them keeping a positive vector of social and personal development and activity reference point.

The controversial character of relationships with oneself and the world also manifests itself brightly in analyzing the "life activity standard" of students as an integral parameter of their personal orientation (Table 4).

**Table 4 Here**

It follows from the analysis of the table that the hierarchy of spheres of life activity orientation is clearly the same in the students of the first and the second groups. In both cases, the first place is occupied by the existential ideal, the second – by the vital ideal, and the social ideal ranks so far as third. This means that all students – both the ones involved in self-governance and non-participant ones – are concerned with the meaning of life and death, problems of moral responsibility, loneliness and love to a greatest extent. They view problems of getting pleasure from life, freedom of sexual relations as secondary, and social relationships with other people remain in the background for them.

All three types of "life activity standard" were given validly higher scores by the students participating in self-governance rather than by those not involved in it – both at the real level and at the ideal one, against the high validity of distinctions (p<0.001 in all cases). This means that students participating in self-governance realize their values and ideals more clearly, yet lack a correct hierarchy thereof, even though the general personal orientation is positive. Just like the "not involved ones", the students taking part in self-governance lack a formed attitude to social and public values – it still is in the background with them, though being more pronounced than in the "non-participants".

The findings of studying the second level of students organization process represent the estimates of group functioning for academic groups of all respondents and are given in Table 5. The shared positive personal and social orientation of the students participating in public organizations is reflected in a validly higher group coherence index according to C. E. Seashore's technique (Table 5).

The results of estimating the value and orientation unity in A. V. Petrovskiy's technique are not so straightforward, though. The value and orientation unity indices turned out to be higher on a number of values in the students not involved in self-governance, except the ability to work with books (p<0.05).

**Table 5 Here**

Undoubtedly, the integral index of group coherence confirms higher communicative skills and community spirit in the students participating in organizations, while the content of values, based on which the academic group members' minds meet, does not show such unity. This can be associated with
acquiring the skills of communication with people of different world outlook attitudes by the students involved into public organizations, who have more developed communicative skills, yet feature underformed own world outlook and value and meaning sphere of personality.

**Conclusion**

Thus, it can be stated that our initial hypothesis was confirmed. The students participating in organizations and in self-governance are more successful in structuring their time, more purposeful, persistent in attaining their goals; they manage their time better; they are less oriented to the present and think more about their plans for the future in comparison with the students not taking part in organizations and self-governance. The former plan their life better, noticing the interconnection between their actions and subsequent events, they change themselves more intensively and they improve their inner world making self-cognition more profound. They have the moral sphere formed to a greater extent, as well as moral and ethic responsibility and the sense of community.

Summing up the research findings, we come to the following conclusion. On the one hand, participation in socially useful organizations is undoubtedly an important factor of students' socialization and acquiring important social and personal qualities. On the other hand, the targeted development of self-organization skills, which is feasible if special upbringing programs are created in higher education institutions, is to enhance the students' motivation for joining socially useful organizations and their creative activity in coming up with new associations useful for the society. This is a systemic process of interaction between the two levels of self-organization: developing personal qualities via upbringing programs is to form motivation for joining organizations, and the experience of participation in the organizations is to form the social skills required. Accordingly, we can conclude that it is essential for higher education institution administrations to create special upbringing programs at the personal level and to render all possible organizational and material assistance for supporting the young students' socially useful initiatives.

**References**


**Table 1. Psychological characteristics of activity self-organization in two samples of students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological characteristics of personal self-organization – E.Yu. Mandrikova’s techniques</th>
<th>Students participating in social organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in social organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance of distinctions according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conformity to plan</td>
<td>18.66±5.92</td>
<td>17.5±5.69</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposefulness</td>
<td>35.13±7.85</td>
<td>33.29±7.82</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>23.38±5.28</td>
<td>22.24±5.39</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixation</td>
<td>20.97±5.12</td>
<td>20.3±5.29</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-organization</td>
<td>9.86±4.75</td>
<td>8.67±4.70</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
<td>116.76±18.79</td>
<td>110.2±19.15</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ data.

**Table 2. Average indices of subject-object orientations in two groups of students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological characteristics of subject and object orientations according to E.Yu. Korzhova technique</th>
<th>Students participating in social organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in social organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total score of subject-object orientations</td>
<td>5.95±2.28</td>
<td>6.21±2.34</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trans-situational changeability</td>
<td>5.47±2.07</td>
<td>5.04±2.09</td>
<td>P&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trans-situational locus of control</td>
<td>5.3±2.24</td>
<td>4.73±2.26</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trans-situational focus</td>
<td>5.55±2.32</td>
<td>5.13±2.45</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trans-situational mobility</td>
<td>5.18±2.6</td>
<td>5.41±2.16</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ data.

**Table 3. Comparison of preferred instrumental values in two groups of students (the average score for the group when choosing values)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preferred values according to the technique of S.Schwartz</th>
<th>Students participating in public organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in public organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Politeness</td>
<td>6.73±1.53</td>
<td>6.41±1.79</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wealth</td>
<td>5.58±1.85</td>
<td>5.95±1.89</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace in all the world</td>
<td>6.17±1.86</td>
<td>5.77±1.99</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right to personal space</td>
<td>7.11±1.59</td>
<td>6.93±1.66</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unity with nature</td>
<td>5.22±1.87</td>
<td>4.9±2.04</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisdom</td>
<td>5.67±1.86</td>
<td>5.46±1.85</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty of nature and art</td>
<td>6.2±1.62</td>
<td>5.84±1.9</td>
<td>P&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Average values of indices of orientation to different types of life activity ideal in two groups of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indices of orientation to a certain type of life activity ideal in M.Ya. Dvoretskaya's technique</th>
<th>Students participating in public organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in public organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vital ideal</td>
<td>23.71 ± 5.177</td>
<td>22.62 ± 5.833</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social ideal</td>
<td>22.17 ± 4.242</td>
<td>20.91 ± 5.102</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential ideal</td>
<td>24.82 ± 4.591</td>
<td>23.74 ± 5.797</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real vital one</td>
<td>22.23 ± 4.953</td>
<td>20.69 ± 5.265</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real social one</td>
<td>22.13 ± 3.7293</td>
<td>21.24 ± 4.672</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real existential one</td>
<td>23.06 ± 4.488</td>
<td>21.12 ± 5.619</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Average scores of coherence of academic groups in two samples of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indices of coherence of academic student groups according to the techniques of C.E. Seashore and A.V. Petrovskiy</th>
<th>Students participating in public organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in public organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C.E. Seashore's level of group coherence</td>
<td>15.39±3.1</td>
<td>14.87±3.19</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values selected by the group in an agreed manner, according to A.V. Petrovskiy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Students participating in public organizations, N=492</th>
<th>Students not taking part in public organizations, N=412</th>
<th>The level of statistic significance according to Mann-Whitney U-criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideological conviction</td>
<td>0.02±0.154</td>
<td>0.07±0.252</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual wealth</td>
<td>0.02±0.134</td>
<td>0.05±0.215</td>
<td>P&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldliness</td>
<td>0.01±0.11</td>
<td>0.03±0.181</td>
<td>P&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to work with books</td>
<td>0.15±0.358</td>
<td>0.14±0.306</td>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modesty</td>
<td>0.02±0.127</td>
<td>0.04±0.205</td>
<td>P&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors' data.
Negrophobia in Faulkner’s Light in August: A Reading through Fanon

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Abstract
Faulkner’s Light in August portrays the destroying effects of “negrophobia” on black people. The agony of Faulkner’s protagonist, Joe Christmas, over his racial identity deprives him of his individuality in confrontation with the white race within a society under white domination. Psychic as Joe’s problem is, the questions are where does his problem arise from? Is it a consequence of the un-acknowledgement of his hybridity and his exposure to negrophobia internally and externally? And what is the nature of his relationship with the white woman, as the weakest target of the white society under likely harms by racially mixed men, in this regard? Accordingly, Joe’s identity crisis, regarding what “negrophobia” does to him, will be psychoanalytically highlighted through Fanon’s writings, especially Black Skin, White Masks, a book about the psychic problems of the black in white societies. As such, Joe’s life proves one example among many of the effects of “negrophobia” in Faulkner’s contemporary America. Therefore, Joe’s identity crisis and his developing neurosis about his race lead to his ambiguous love-hate affair with the white woman, finally ending in her murder with his own hands, while his own death by the white man symbolizes the process through which the white gaze turns an originally innocent non-white individual into an evil.

Key Words: Negrophobia, identity crisis, Faulkner, Light in August

Introduction
Frantz Fanon in his outstanding book against racism, Black Skin, White Masks, studies the psychology of racism and dehumanization inherent in situations of colonial domination, especially the colonial domination of black people. According to Fanon, “The Negro enslaved by his inferiority, the white man enslaved by his superiority alike behave in accordance with a neurotic orientation” (2008, 42). By presenting us with a deep psychoanalysis of colonized black people and their inability to fit into the social, cultural, and racial norms of the white society, Fanon believes that “It is the racist who creates his inferior” (2008, 69). “Negrophobia” is the term that Fanon attributes to such condition in a white society, that is, the fear of black people wherever there is a confrontation between the races. Fanon also observes that the European practice of attributing negative characteristics to black people has a negative effect on them, so that their exposure to both colonialism and negative traits causes them to internalize negative ideas about themselves.

“Negrophobia”, if thus implanted within the black psyche, becomes a sort of internalized racism, causing the black individual to think evil of him/herself. Fanon considers the effects of “negrophobia” not only on the individual level, but also on the social level. He holds that “the black man’s alienation is not an individual question. Besides phylogeny and ontology stands sociogeny”, or the “question of sociodiagnostics” (2008, 4). In other words, “the juxtaposition of the white and black races has created a massive psychosexistential complex”, in a way that neurotic human beings, of either race, produce nothing more than a neurotic society (2008, 5).

“Negrophobia” leads to black identity crisis. Black people’s identity crisis in a white society has always been an important issue because of racial segregation. The black individual has always had to struggle with the white dominancy and the inferiority complex caused accordingly. As Fanon holds, “We must see
whether it is possible for the black" to overpower their “feeling of insignificance, to rid life of the compulsive quality that makes it so like the behavior of the phobic.” Black people suffer “from an inadequacy in all human communication” which entangles them in “an unbearable insularity” (2008, 35), the only escape from which being seemingly to find a way “into the white world” (2008, 36). “Negritude”, or defending black identity, thus remains sterile and “negrophobia” emerges as an escape from blackness even on the part of the black individual. As Fanon remarks, When the Negro makes contact with the white world, a certain sensitizing action takes place. If his psychic structure is weak, one observes a collapse of the ego. The black man stops behaving as an actional person. The goal of his behavior will be The Other (in the guise of the white man), for The Other alone can give him worth. (2008, 119)

As the black sense of “inferiority” is “conscious” (2008, 116), black people live in “an ambiguity that is extraordinarily neurotic” (2008, 148). Therefore, the black individual who is exposed to the white society is either to adapt whiteness and lose his/her identity or claims his/her original identity and fights for “negritude”. If neither happens, the black individual is entangled in an oscillating situation between dreams of whiteness and black codes of honor.

The literary representation of such issues is not infrequent in literature worldwide. One of the most popular novels accordingly is Faulkner’s Light in August (1932), set in the United States and mostly tracing Joe Christmas’ experiences in struggling with his belief that he is part black. As Faulkner weaves together Joe’s story with those of others, he explores the harmful effects of racism on the development of the minds of non-white citizens. Faulkner’s outlook is not alien to the racial problems of the twentieth-century America. “The problem of the twentieth century [in America] is the problem of the colorline,” Du Bois wrote in 1903 (1967, 23). The history of racism in America has shown a lifelong “negrophobia” in its society. Racism in America has been a major issue since the colonial era, starting with the exploitation of Indians and still continuing with prejudices against the black. The common thing from the beginning has been the common ignorance of the rights of the non-white, especially African-Americans, although organized efforts by African-Americans to achieve their civil rights developed in the twentieth century. Faulkner was among those writers who elaborated on racism and “negrophobia” throughout his fiction and posed many challenging questions about the covert exploitation of non-white races, especially in Faulkner’s Mississippi. According to Bleikasten, it is undeniable that throughout Faulkner’s life, “Mississippi remained both the poorest and the most backward state in the United States and carried out the mostlynchings of all the Southern states” (2017, Chapter 1). As such, blacks were under the subjugation of whites and lynching was still on the run in many places; “a black man named Nelse Patton was hanged in Oxford on September 8, 1908”, an event reflected by Faulkner Light in August (Bleikasten 2017, Chapter 1). Light in August accordingly portrays a range of problems that were typical of mixed races in contemporary America. A re-reading of the novel through Fanon’s opinions can thus be helpful to interpret it to highlight the psychic effect of racial discrimination on the mental state and the life of Faulkner’s Joe Christmas, as he tries to live within a society under racism.

2. Discussion
2.1.1. Fanon and “Negrophobia”

For Fanon, “negrophobia” is a form of “trauma for white people of the Negro” (Kaplan 1999, 153). Fanon created the term “negrophobia” to serve his purpose in analyzing the condition of black people in societies where originally African people are “economically, socially, and politically marginalized”. He believed that “the European practice of attributing negative characteristics to black people and things” had a negative effect on black people’s psyche, and that their exposure both to racism and colonialism caused them “to internalize negative ideas about blacks and objectify themselves” (Brooks 2012, 1). According to Brooks, “negrophobia” in Fanon’s view is “a neurosis typified by the anxious fear and contempt of black people and black culture.” As such, symptoms of “negrophobia” consist of but are not limited to “the attribution of negative characteristics to black people and black things, the fear and hatred
of black men, and the objectification of black women” (2012, 2). “Negrophobia” also implies “the hatred of black people and black culture by black people” themselves, which is in fact “internalized racism” generated by “the trauma of living in a culture that defines blacks as inherently evil” (2012, 2). Fanon considers “negrophobia” as “a question of a sociodiagnostics” (2008, 4). He describes it as characterizing whole societies, not just individuals. Accordingly, “the black man’s alienation is not an individual question. Besides phylogeny and ontogeny stands sociogeny” which is “a question of sociodiagnostics” (2008, 4), that is, “the juxtaposition of the black and white races has resulted in a massive psychoexistential complex” (2008, 5). In other words, “neurotic humans produce neurotic societies” (Brooks 2012, p. 2).

“Negrophobia” is mostly manifested through the black individual’s encounter with the white society. In Fanon’s view, the black man in a white society would like to be a man like the rest of the white people, “but he knows that this position is a false one”; he has to ask for “permission in the white man’s eyes”, since he is “The Other” (2008, 55). That is why the black man develops “abandonment-neurosis” or the neurosis generated by feeling abandoned by those whom you supposed were your role models (2008, 129). That is when the Negro begins to internalize “negrophobia”, so that he feels dejected at his own existence as a black man. Since the black man wants to resemble the white man, the black man becomes frustrated when he cannot equal the white man at least in appearance, and his “attempts at a hallucinatory whitening” fail (2008, 74). The black man’s “quest for white flesh” (2008, 59), as it is already challenging, puts the black man on fire and “thenceforward he will try to elevate himself to the white man’s level” (Nordey 1939, 32; qtd. in Fanon 2008, 60). In fact, “It is the racist who creates his inferior”, and, therefore, the black man “pays for his own rejection of dependence with an inferiority complex” (Fanon 2008, 69). The black man is covertly forced to form such relations with his superiors in order to escape his inferiority. In Fanon’s words, the white man calls the black man “a parasite on the world” unless he brings himself “as quickly as possible into step with the white world” (2008, 73). The black man’s “first encounter with a white man” threatens the black man with the “weight of his blackness” (Fanon 2008, 116). On the other hand, the white man has his own fears from the black man. “Negrophobia” in the white man partly originates from a sense of sexual inferiority; the white negrophobic’s hatred of the black man derives from a sense of lacking the black man’s strong sexual powers (McCulloch 2002, 74). This “imago” of the black man in the racist white mind was proved by Fanon’s own clinical experiences, which showed that sexual fantasies developed by the White people have been associated with the figure of the black man (Fanon 2008, 130), and the majority of white men see the black man as the representation of “the sexual instinct” while white women consider the black man “as the keeper of the impalpable gate” to “the realm of orgies” and “delirious sexual sensations” (2008, 136). Fanon holds that the negrophobic white woman is neurotically attracted to the black man as a sexual partner, while the black man dreams of “whiteness” through the white woman: Out of the blackest part of my soul […] surges this desire to be suddenly white. I wish to be acknowledged not as black but as white. Now […] who but a white woman can do this for me? By loving me she proves that I am worthy of white love. I am loved like a white man. I am a white man. Her love takes me onto the noble road that leads to total realization. . . . I marry white culture, white beauty, white whiteness. (2008, 45)

2.1.2. Fanon and “Negritude”

The first and the most convincing attempt to come to terms with “negritude” was made by Sartre in his essay “Orphée noir”. Sartre’s interpretation of “negritude” influenced all the subsequent interpretations of it, including that of Fanon. Sartre tried to explain the occurrence of black poetry as “the source of Poetry” in the modern era, as “the great black flood, in spite of everything, [that] color[s] the sea into which it pours itself” (Sartre 1948, xi; qtd. in Fanon 2008, 102). Sartre’s approach was an answer to the
question why the European working class cannot produce such artistic work as black poetry. Sartre thus made a clear distinction between the condition of black people and that of the white working class. Although both of these groups are objectively under economical oppressions, black people are more creative because of their internalized racial identities. Sartre also believes that “negritude”, in the subjective sphere, is insufficient in exclusively asserting a future without racial discrimination; it is therefore necessary for negritude to pass into the objective sphere. In his view, the black man “creates an anti-racist racism for himself. In no sense does he wish to rule the world: He seeks the abolition of all ethnic privileges, wherever they come from; he asserts his solidarity with the oppressed of all colors.” So it is necessary that “at once the subjective, existential, ethnic idea of negritude” passes into “the objective, positive, exact idea of proletariat.” He then continues that “it is no coincidence that the most ardent poets of negritude” are simultaneously “militant Marxists.” In other words, Sartre calls the black man to take action instead of craving for a lost world in the past. And he concludes that “negritude is the root of its own destruction, it is a transition and not a conclusion, a means and not an ultimate end” (2008, 102).

Fanon strongly objects to Sartre’s view. After reading Sartre’s passage, Fanon asserts that “I felt that I had been robbed of my last chance” (Fanon 2008, 102). And then he continues that In terms of consciousness, the black consciousness is held out as an absolute density, as filled with itself, a stage preceding any invasion, any abolition of the ego by desire. Jean-Paul Sartre […] has destroyed black zeal. In opposition to historical becoming, there had always been the unforeseeable. I needed to lose myself completely in negritude. (2008, 103)

“Negritude” was of interest to Fanon because it was about the question of personal identity for the black people. However, while in his first and last books Fanon elaborately critiques the “negritude” movement, there is in fact a basic turn in his approach toward the movement “between the years 1952 and 1961” (McCulloch 2002, 36). In fact, Fanon became more sympathetic to “negritude” each time. In Black Skin, White Masks, A Dying Colonialism, and The Wretched of the Earth Fanon is concerned with the problems of identity and personality of the black people. In Masks, Fanon’s attitude toward “negritude” is paradoxical. He is initially against “negritude” and doubts its ability to defend black identity. He believes that “negritude” cannot counteract colonial racism, that is, black identity cannot be established because of three reasons: (1) claiming “the existence of a black soul” is already rejected in the European mentality; (2) there are no “black values” just as there is no black condition or problem; and (3) there can be “no return to the past” because any development for the black people is merely possible by collaborating with the white people (McCulloch 2002, 37). Yet Fanon holds that “negritude” may be a precondition for black liberation. The belief that black people experience a unique understanding of the world is one of the most basic principles of “negritude”, as Fanon holds:

I am black: I am the incarnation of a complete fusion with the world, an intuitive understanding of the earth, an abandonment of my ego in the heart of the cosmos, and no white man, no matter how intelligent he may be, can ever understand [it]. (2008, 31)

A second principle of “negritude” is the belief in “the Negro values” (2008, 179). Because of the belittlement of the black man’s culture, the black man is driven to promote a set of specific values which are related to racism. These values deviate from the values befitting the black man. Fanon attacks this belief, stating that “My black skin is not the wrapping of specific values” (2008, 177). He argues that race and values do not necessarily coincide, and when they coincide the reason is in the social and historical milieu in which the black individual lives. The idea of a common group of “Negro values” in fact originates from white ideology. Thus, rejuvenating a set of “Negro values” may just highlight a racist ideology and thus may not totally work to dismantle the white dominance. Fanon criticizes the effect of this new myth when he says, “I secreted a race. And that race staggered under the burden of a basic element. What was it? Rhythm” (2008, 93), which stands for “an essence shared by peoples of African descent” (Noland 2015, 163). Directly rejecting “negritude”, Fanon thus argues that the element of race is not really relevant to the black man’s sufferings. If there is a common historical experience shared among all blacks, it does not mean that there is just one “Negro” value-system. Fanon holds that “Negro
experience is not a whole, for there is not merely one Negro, there are Negroes” (2008, 104). Moreover, since “negritude” proposes a beneficial return to the past as a prerequisite for freedom from white domination, Fanon holds that the “backward gaze of negritude” leads to “a concern with re-descent into a black soul” and “a preoccupation with the historical achievements of the Negro race”. Fanon is ambivalent about a re-descent; he argues that it represents an embrace of “humanity at its lowest” (2008, 96), which is easily rejected by white racists as it is irrational. As such, the black are looking for something which has no value in the white eye.

Fanon believes that the black can destroy the European image of them through self-purgation. The black can accordingly be free to pursue the path that Fanon favored – a progressive assimilation into the European culture. Wearing a white mask would then be pointless with the disappearance of the “dirty nigger” (Fanon 2008, 21). But Fanon does not attempt to connect this strategy with “negritude”. At the centre of Masks is the belief that the black so far had no choice but trying to adopt the European culture. Any idea about returning to the past is pointless because it has no historical reality and importance for the modern age. Fanon’s most important attack on “negritude” is that it changes nothing in the daily life of the black man. Moreover, “negritude” supporters look for an isolating path which is not really beneficial for black people. Fanon believes that the Negro problem is social and historical, not racial. He writes of the search for the “universal” which inspired so much of the literature of the “negritude” movement (2008, 143).

Fanon’s basic criticism of “negritude”, in other words, is that it is abstract. This abstraction appears in gathering all black people under a single group, denying their heterogeneity as individuals. Reiterating the criticisms voiced in Masks and “West Indians”, Fanon in The Wretched of the Earth holds that there is no natural solidarity among black peoples due to race. Movements that promote a cultural renaissance have a tendency to place all blacks into a single category, if only because “the efforts of the native to rehabilitate himself and to escape from the claws of colonialism are logically inscribed from the same point of view as that of colonialism” (Fanon 1967, 170). Fanon thus insists that “There will never be such a thing as black culture because there is not a single politician who feels he has a vocation to bring black republics into being” (1967, 188-9). Fanon here reiterates his points in Masks and highlights the fact that “Men of African cultures who are still fighting in the name of African-Negro culture […] should today realize that all their efforts” are “comparisons between coins and sarcophagi” (1967, 188). Furthermore, Fanon keeps a covert distinction between “the objective failings of the negritude movement and its subjective necessity” (McCulloch 2002, 47). Fanon is ambivalent about the necessity of the relationship between “subjective relevance and political progressiveness” (1967, 176). The de-culturing effect of colonialism can lead native intellectuals from hopelessness to assimilate to white society to the adoption of “negritude” and finally to a political commitment. On the other hand, native intellectuals may develop their agony of twin nationalities into the adoption of a universal mentality (1967, 176-177). Accordingly, reviving the native culture can be a good counteraction through which black intellectuals find “some very beautiful and splendid era whose existence rehabilitates us [black people] both in regard to ourselves and in regard to others” (1967, 169). Such renewed encounter between black intellectuals and black folk makes possible an “alliance” between the elite and the peasantry. The return to the source causes important changes in the “psycho-affective” balance of the black intellectual (1967, 168). Freeing him/herself from the pull of the colonialist rule is necessary for the black intellectual. “If it is not accomplished,” Fanon says, “there will be serious psycho-affective injuries and the result will be individuals without an anchor, without a horizon, colourless, stateless, rootless” (1967, 175).

2.2.1. Faulkner and Negrophobia in Light in August

Faulkner grew up in “a nation deeply rooted in ideologies of racial difference” where the “color line” was sharply drawn between the races (Ladd 2007, 133). Ralph Ellison included Faulkner in what he called the “great 19th century moral tradition” which tried to understand the black man as “a rounded human being” and a “symbol of man” (Ellison 1972, 33). Faulkner radicalized “a character’s identity in ways that
call attention to the culturally constructed nature of race and of language’s role in its construction” and knew that “racial epithets” deprive one of its identity and replace it with “a categorizing insult” (Towner 1999, 54).

*Light in August* (1932) explores “the devastating effects of racism” on people of color (Gale Editors 2007, 124), as depicted by Faulkner. In this study, Faulkner’s arguments in *Light in August* have been narrowed down to his portrayal of Joe Christmas, who was left to himself because he was recognized to have black blood. Entangled in his racial ambiguity, Joe is consumed with a life-long search for identity and is never able to overcome his loneliness and self-hatred. As he grows up, Joe develops a harsh attitude towards other people as he becomes conscious over his ambiguous racial identity. He tries to live among both white and black communities, but he cannot and thus begins a series of wandering throughout cities. By the end of the novel, completely tired of wandering, Joe takes refuge in Hightower’s house which becomes his death-bed. Psychic as Joe’s problem is, the questions are thus where does his problem arise from? Is it a consequence of the un-acknowledgement of his hybridity and his exposure to negrophobia internally and externally? And what is the nature of his relationship with the white woman, as the weakest target of the white society under likely harms by racially mixed men, in this regard? The conflicts that happen to Joe during the course of his life as a racially mixed man in a white society can thus be categorized into three main parts, having Fanon in mind: the black man in the white society, the black man and the white man, as well as the black man and the white woman.

### 2.2.2. The Black Man in the White Society

“In America,” Fanon says, “Negroes are segregated. In South America, Negroes are whipped in the streets, and Negro strikers are cut down by machine-guns” (2008, 85). And for the white racist, dealing with the black man is a problem with “Negro-phobogenesis”, meaning that “the Negro is a phobogenic object, a stimulus to anxiety” (2008, 117). In *Light in August*, “the characters’ failure to recognize the humanity and rights of blacks, coupled with their sense of righteousness” leads to Joe’s persecution and death (Gale Editors 2007, 134).

The people of Jefferson have ignored the blacks who are living on the margins of their town as long as they keep their distance from the white community. Joe thus becomes a threat and subject to punishment when he trespasses their territory. Joe’s story is centered on “the problem of the Negro in Southern society” (Holman 2007, 141). During his life, Joe’s “alienation” is intensified “on the gathering threat” that his presence poses to the white community, a threat finally culminated in Joanna Burden’s death (Porter 2007, 93). Racial identity stands at the core of this threat. Called “nigger” as a child at the orphanage (Faulkner 1990, 122), Joe does not understand that word until the dietitian uses it in upbraiding him when she finds him hiding in her closet and witnessing her affair. If she reveals to the matron of the orphanage that Joe is black, he will have to be sent away to the “nigger” orphanage and her secret will be safe. Thus for Joe, “the ‘woman-smelling’ closet is tied to the word ‘nigger,’ an identification of race and sex” (Porter 2007, 94). Joe thus becomes “racialized as black because this racialization will obfuscate the dietitian’s own guilt” (Dondlinger 1999, 102).

Kidnapped suddenly from the orphanage by the janitor who is in fact his own grandfather, Doc Hines, Joe is eventually adopted by the McEacherns who know nothing of his past. But by that time, at age five, Joe already knows his secret – that he has “some nigger blood” in him (Faulkner 1990, 196). Despite his white skin, Joe is said to be black, not because he is black either in appearance or by heritage, but simply because his grandfather says he is.

Joe literally gets around America on a road that runs “for fifteen years” (Faulkner 1990, 223), which has “much to do with the shaping of his identity” (Dondlinger 1999, 99). When Joe appears in Jefferson at age 33, he has already internalized the opposition between black and white, “so that his identity is secured precisely by that opposition” (Porter 2007, 95). Unable to cooperate with either race, Joe has developed a hostile attitude to both blacks and peoples. If Joe chooses one, as Porter says, “he cannot survive the threat to his singular identity, founded as it is on defiance of both black and white” (2007, 95). For the
racist society, as Faulkner shows in this novel, blacks and whites are not merely two kinds of people; they make a binary pair, each term negating the other. Regarding Joe’s appearance, black and white do not refer to the color of his skin; this opposition is best manifested in the opposition of the white man and the black man. Hearing Lucas Burch call Joe a “nigger,” the marshal answers, “You better be careful what you are saying, if it is a white man you are talking about . . . . I don’t care if he is a murderer or not” (Faulkner 1990, 98). The townspeople also talk through the idiom of blood: “[Joe does not] look any more like a nigger than I do. But it must have been the nigger blood in him,” one man says (349). The same man later admits that he is confused by Joe: “[Joe] never acted like either a nigger or a white man. . . . That was what made the folks so mad” (350). Joe has no place in such culture, “save in combat with the opposition that constitutes him”; in fact, Faulkner explodes the “blood” myth by which the tragic mulatto figure in American literary and cultural history is trapped: the idea that people of mixed racial descent are part black, part white, and forced therefore to choose whether or not to “pass.” Whichever choice they make, they reaffirm the binary opposition that condemns them to the choice in the first place. (Porter 2007, 96)

Joe refuses to make either choice. According to Dondlinger, while Joe does not initially generate his “black identity”, he “reiterates” this label and continually regenerates that identity. Because he has a white skin, Dondlinger continues, Joe “performs” as white to surpass the limitations imposed upon a black body. He has an identity”, since he apparently “self-identifies as black.” His dilemma is that he hates this identification. As “the product of a white supremacist society,” Joe sees his original blackness as “repulsive”, especially because blackness is connected with “sin, illegitimacy, and criminality” (1999, 104).

White people’s fear of the black, especially their “encroachment into white territory” (Gale Editors 2007, 134), is best shown in their response to Joanna Burden and her ancestors’ civil rights activities when they killed her grandfather and brother just because they helped black people. On the other hand, the community of Jefferson tolerates Eupheus Hines’s helpful involvement with the black community because they define him as “an old man” who is “harmless”; however, if a young man acted similarly, he would have been “crucified” (Faulkner 1990, 341). Also, the town has blinded “its collective eye” to the black women who brought food to Hines and his wife (341). However, the town will not ignore the fact that Joe is seemingly black and that he has murdered the white woman with whom he has slept. Accordingly, the white community is both against the black people and the white people helping the black in weakening the white authority.

Joe’s plight in life includes his mere attempts “to find a place where he could belong as an individual”, without any trace of racism (Roberts 2017, par. 3). Thus, rather than dealing with his problems peacefully, Joe frequently uses violence against anybody who tries to change him. Standing naked before the oncoming light of a pair of car headlamps on the night before murdering Joanna, Joe watches “his body grow white out of the darkness like a Kodak print emerging from the liquid,” (Faulkner 1990, 108). Here, in fact, Joe’s “racial ambivalence and ambiguity is being troped photographically” – Joe’s apparent racial “whiteness” is reflected through the “double negation” of photographic development:

for any print “emerging from the liquid” of a stop bath or a fixer is, first of all, a negative print – that is, a print in which white is seen as black, black as white. It is this print that must then be “bleached” to remove the developed negative image from the film, revealing a latent positive image that is then printed through a second exposure to light, and a second developer. What Christmas sees when he looks down at his own whiteness is then, undecidably, either of these two self-negating moments. Either his body is black and prints itself negatively as white, or it is white and appears as such in the image after the “bleaching” and redevelopment of a negative print. The photographic figure has meshed perfectly with the very tortured racial uncertainty of Christmas’s reflections; it is itself an “obverse reflection” of the truth that cannot appear unmediated. (Murphet 2017, 261)

Joe can never discover his real identity before killing Joanna. Hiding from the sheriff’s men, Joe realizes that finding his true identity is never achieved without accepting “full responsibility for his heritage and
his actions” (Roberts 2017, par. 4). His willful acceptance of death is obvious by the fact that he makes no attempt to fire his gun at the end of his life; instead, he passively accepts the death imposed on him by Grimm.

Passing as white for some time allowed Joe to get around some of the limitations against a black body, but it did not dismantle the racial hierarchy. It is not until the end of the novel that Joe, according to Dondlinger, “realizes his complicity in racism”, that “he has only endured his body and the racial constructions and stereotypes which that body symbolizes” (1999, 109). According to Fanon, “in the white world the man of color encounters difficulties in the development of his bodily schema.” Consciousness over one’s body is merely “a negating activity” because it is “a third-person consciousness” and the body is “surrounded by an atmosphere of certain uncertainty” (2008, 83). Joe never experiences his own body as an individual. Rather, he plays a white body as prescribed for him. However, all of his escapes merely restrict him more than before; Joe “is still inside the circle” and has “never got outside that circle” (Faulkner 1990, 339). Having been dragged by fate to his last destination, Joe is finally called by his “true, schizophrenic name” (Sundquist 2008, 91) – the “white nigger” (Faulkner 1990, 344), who never acts “like either a nigger or a white man” (350). Beginning his fifteen-year running, Joe actually starts the process of his death, since he loses his individuality and becomes, in Fanon’s words, “a toy in the white man’s hands” (2008, 107).

2.2.3. The Black Man and the White Man

The black man is not conscious over his blackness, as Fanon believes, “as long as his existence is limited to his own environment; but the first encounter with a white man oppresses him with the whole weight of his blackness” (2008, 116). At the end of the novel, Faulkner reveals that Eupheus Hines is Joe’s grandfather and also the janitor who kidnapped him from the orphanage. A “violent” and “a supreme egoist” (Faulkner 1990, 342), Hines considers his daughter to be a morally deviant woman and so would not send for the doctor when she goes into labor. He also insists that Joe is God’s abomination. So the primary image we have of the confrontation between the white man and the black man is a religiously biased one; Hines takes himself as the instrument of God’s will and attributes blackness as an evil sign to Joe from the moment of his birth. Such white archetype of blackness, according to Fanon, has been internalized in the (white) human race:

The torturer is the black man, Satan is black, one talks of shadows, when one is dirty one is black – whether one is thinking of physical dirtiness or of moral dirtiness. It would be astonishing […] to see the vast number of expressions that make the black man the equivalent of sin. (2008, 146)

Simon McEachern, Joe’s adopted father, follows the same path. He believes that his cruel deeds result from God’s direction and thus beats Joe when he does not obey him. Joe gradually adopts his father’s stubbornness, so that he cannot tolerate the possibility that his racial identity might not matter. He tricks white men into calling him “nigger” “in order to fight them,” and when black people call him white, he fights them too (Faulkner 1990, 225).

The intolerance of the white man against the black man is best represented in the character of Percy Grimm, a patriotic fanatic born and raised in Jefferson who served in WWI when he was young. His need to prove himself for his country leads him to fight anyone whom he thinks shows any disloyalty towards it, believing that “the white race is superior to any and all other races and that the American is superior to all other white races” (Faulkner 1990, 451). When Joe breaks from the prison, Grimm convinces the sheriff to act as his deputy to capture him. His bigotry causes him to think he has the right to kill Joe. Grimm’s America is “a racial republic,” organized “around white solidarity and supremacy”. Thus, for Grimm, “to guard the nation is to guard the white race” (Watson 1999, 83). Castrating Joe at the end of the novel in fact symbolizes the eradication of any danger against the white American. Castrating Joe with a butcher’s knife, Grimm addresses Joe’s dead body as such: “Now you’ll let white women alone, even in hell” (Faulkner 1990, 464), suggesting action against “miscegenation” (Sundquist 2008, 98). For many white
men, “the Negro represents the sexual instinct” or “the incarnation of a genital potency beyond all moralities and prohibitions” (Fanon 2008, 136).

2.2.4. The Black Man and the White Woman
Joe’s confrontation with the white woman and his rage against her seem somehow a legacy inherited from his true father. The circus owner who seduced Milly, Joe’s mother, was in fact “part nigger” (Faulkner 1990, 377). When Milly gets pregnant, Doc Hines “naturally” assumes that the circus performer has “nigger” blood, “since both Hines and his white society see the bestial sexual appetite of the black man for white women as part of his nature” (Dondlinger 1999, 101). Becoming aware of what is happening around him as he grows up, Joe faces the white woman himself. The 27-year-old Miss Atkins, the dietician at the orphanage, plans for his discharge by highlighting his black blood in order to save her own reputation. Later, when as a young man Joe sleeps with white women to whom he has no money to pay, he claims afterward that he is black and thus they kick him out in a burst of anger and disgust. Joe has learned how to manipulate racism in the southern parts of the country, but those he sleeps in more northern cities are indifferent to his claim. Once a white prostitute simply replies to Joe’s claim: “What about it? You look all right” (Faulkner 1990, 225). And her remarks are enough to stimulate Joe into beating her almost to death. Joe seems unable to tolerate the possibility that the racial line may not matter, because he has lived his life as a racially ambivalent person.

Bobbie Allen, Joe’s first white girlfriend, is patient with Joe as she gently educates him about women and sexuality. However, after a month, her explanations about her body and its functions lead Joe to reveal his own secret, that he has “got some nigger blood” in him (Faulkner 1990, 196). Initially indifferent, Bobbie finally believes Joe through his insistence and ends their relationship. Afterwards, Joe continues to expose his racial identity to others. He plays a white man to have the freedom to travel by consciously dressing in the “clothes […] of a city man” rather than those of black people. He announces his identity sometimes to “get around” with women: “he bedded with the women and paid them when he had the money, and when he did not have it he bedded with them anyway and told them he was a negro” and was kicked out of the place (224). Joe merely “verbalizes or iterates” a black identity to make his ends meet (Dondlinger 1999, 106). Ironically, when a white woman in a similar occasion is not outraged, Joe almost kills her. Anything against Joe’s internalized picture of himself disrupts his opinion about white superiority over the black.

Joe’s affair with Joanna Burden, who is another white woman, ends Joe’s affairs with white women. Although Joanna was born in Jefferson and has lived there ever since, she is not welcome there. The townspeople always gossip about the suspicious relationships she has with black people. Her brother and father were killed in defending blacks’ voting rights, and Joanna has continued their legacy ever since. But just like her grandfather Joanna has a contradictory attitude towards the blacks. She was brought up with the idea that the “curse of the black race is God’s curse. But the curse of the white race is the black man who will be forever God’s chosen own because He once cursed him” (Faulkner 1990, 253). Thus, Joanna grew up with the idea that she must dedicate herself to help black people up to a higher status.

Being lovers for over a year, Joe finally realizes that Joanna “had never invited him inside the house” and that he “had never been further than the kitchen”, that he has been stealthily entering the house and eating the food Joanna left for him (Faulkner 1990, 234). That realization leads Joe to perceive that the way he enters the house and his affair with Joanna “have been manipulated to make him play the part of the ‘nigger’”, an insult that Joe replies with raping Joanna, thinking “I’ll show” her (236). But, ironically, “the rape only makes him ‘blacker’ and Joanna more the white” (Dondlinger 1999, 108). Although she knows about Joe’s belief that he is black, she does not realize the extent of his self-contempt – that he hates his blackness. Later, Joanna tells him that she can get him a free education at any black school, arrange for him to study law with her black lawyer, and turn over all her business and money to him. But he rejects them all and expresses his contempt for black people. Joanna’s scheme requires that Joe publicly admit his blackness, a fact which makes him angry.
According to Roberts, “Joanna should have been the person who could have accepted Joe for what he was – as part Negro and part white” (2017, par. 3), but she fails him. Having remained a virgin for over forty years, Joanna is overjoyed in her bedtime affairs with Joe by exclaiming “Negro! Negro! Negro!” (Faulkner 1990, 260). But she gradually begins to demand changes from Joe – going to school or college, managing her business, or even praying. Joanna in fact kills Joe by killing his individuality. Disregarding the individuality of each black individual, as Fanon believed, is a great mistake, “for there is not merely one Negro, there are Negroes” (2008, 104). Joanna does the same mistake. Like the other members of her racist society, she sees black people “not as individuals but as a group”. Also, under the spell of “the religious dogma of her ancestors,” Joanna considers Joe “only as one of a doomed race and ultimately as a sinner who refuses to kneel down with her and pray for absolution” (Perkins 2007, 139). Consequently, believing that she has sinned along with Joe, she tries to kill them both, against which Joe reacts by killing her.

Although in Fanon’s view the black man tries to pass as white by “loving” a white woman so that he can be “loved like a white man” and thus steps into “the road that leads to total realization” (2008, 45), but Joe’s final reaction to his non-identification by the white woman is utmost violence. As Fanon says, thus “the attitude [of the black man] is one of recrimination toward the past, devaluation of self, incapability of being understood as he would like to be”, and thus he may seek revenge (54).

2.2.5. Did Really Joe Save Himself?

According to Bleikasten,

A man is “nigger” if he seen as such; a man is a “nigger” if he is called a nigger. When he becomes an adult, Christmas continues naturally to disdain the disdain, to hate the hatred to which he has been subjected since his unfortunate arrival in the world. Christmas is both white racist and black victim in a single person; he is their battleground. Two identities beneath the same skin… (2017, Chapter 4).

“Black blood” stands between Joe and a normal life, and it is Joe’s “own knowledge” of it that stands between him and his “becoming” (Holman 1958, 142), becoming “one with loneliness and quiet that has never known fury or despair” (Faulkner 1990, 331). Joe finally realizes that he must break “out of the ring” (339), which ends in his death under the white law. By remaining stagnant in the final moment of his inevitable death, Joe “gets through” rather than just “gets around” his situation and is shot to death. Although his death is not a proper solution to escape the limitations of the (black) body, it seems the only way possible not to submit to the white control. In other words, Joe could “only escape his body by destroying it” (Dondlinger 1999, 112).

Facing the white world, if the black man’s “psychic structure” is not strong, he may experience “a collapse of the ego” and “stops behaving as an actional person” (Fanon 2008, 119). Joe could maintain his psychic balance at least through negritude; Faulkner portrays Joe with a potent mentality to challenge all attempts at identification from outside. Joe really fights for his self-identification, but his violence does not mean negritude in the sense of keeping one’s individuality. The way he tries to resist white impositions merely darken him more. He is able to challenge white norms, but he does so through violence. And since Joe acts individually all alone, he receives no help from the black community. Joe’s death is rather sacrificial to save only himself. As the “white nigger” Joe in fact “embodies the twin acts of vengeance and sacrifice, neither of them within his control nor clearly ascribable to a conscious act of will” (Sundquist 2008, 113). In other words, as Fanon points out, “it is a question of a victim of a system based on the exploitation of a given race by another, on the contempt in which a given branch of humanity is held by a form of civilization that pretends to superiority” (2008, 174). Now “the scapegoat for white society” will be “the force” that challenges white norms of progress (150). For the white racist, people like Joe are that opposing force which is better eradicated, while a peaceful world requires “an absolute reciprocity” between the races (169).

3. Conclusion
Fanon highlighted the specific experiences and injuries of black people as well as their defensive strategies to either cope with the white society through whitening or to maintain their negritude. Fanon’s arguments apply to all black people worldwide and are not specific to any geographically bounded black person. Faulkner’s *Light in August* is a case in point. As such, the racially ambivalent Joe Christmas becomes a wanderer throughout America, especially the South, just because he cannot deal with the norms of the white society and is neither accepted by the white because of his mixed blood. Feeling like an alien within the same society in which he was born, Joe wrongly sees the solution in becoming white in appearance, an attempt in contrast to his black blood. But it is his death which turns out to be the best solution for the never-ending struggle for identification.

Joe gradually develops a neurotic problem due to the socio-cultural context in which he is struggling to live. Confronting the white man, the black man has two options: to be a white man or to keep on with his blackness and suffer. Attempts at whiteness, which is an illusion, arises from the black man’s weakness and identity crisis. In both Fanon and Faulkner’s view, the black man who tries to become like the white man is merely looking for the social respect otherwise not granted him. And since the white racist will never accept a dark-skinned or dark-blood person as a white citizen, the black man’s attempts at whiteness are doomed to failure. On the other hand, if the black man recognizes that he has the same physiological mechanism for living and the same rights for survival, he can regain his “negritude”. However, the black man after negritude may also fail because of the marginalization that follows. In Fanon’s view, the black man should either maintain his negritude or fight ideologically for his freedom. And Faulkner believes that the black man should keep his mental balance and does not let the white man accuse him of blackness, when implying evil. The white man and the white society in fact lead the black man into violence so that they have excuses to get rid of him or lynching him.

The white man also considers the black man as a sexual threat for the white woman, since the black man has mistakenly been associated with extreme sexual powers, a racial issue that finds its manifestation in Grimm’s last speech over Joe’s body before castrating him. Confronting the white woman, the black man not only feels that she is the gateway to whiteness but also he thinks that his affair with her will provide him with white respect, pure illusions which in Fanon’s terms deprive the black man of his “negritude”. Violence may occur if the neurotic black man feels belittled by the gate of its possible whiteness. That is why when Joanna, despite her early interest in Joe, finally turns against him and tries to kill both of them in a state of despair, in fact signs her own death warrant.

Joe’s fate at the end of the novel presents us with the ultimate misery of any black person within a racist white society, since white norms either expect the black individual to be white or not to exist. Joe’s fate symbolizes a black person’s miserable dilemma regarding racial issues. Having not the possibility to resemble white people or maintain “negritude” for the fear of isolation is the misery of any black person who cannot challenge the white racist mind.

References


The Role of Multicultural Education in Shaping a Democratic-pluralistic Society

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Abstract
Multicultural education, as an educational reform movement, has been given ample attention since 1960s. It has sought to promote the democratic values and educational equality in culturally and racially diverse communities. One of the most important issues at the forefront of education in multi-ethnic societies is how to bring social cohesion by helping people from different cultural, racial, linguistic and ethnic groups develop the positive intergroup attitudes. Given the importance of multicultural education in recognizing and respecting diversity, this paper seeks to investigate how multicultural education can promote the construction of a democratic society. In this qualitative investigation, data was collected through individual interviews, focus group discussions and oral history. The well-known technique of Delphi method was used to analyze the data. The results reveal that multicultural-pluralistic education is poised to maintain educational equilibrium, and develop cross-cultural knowledge and values. Results also imply that cultural discrimination is reduced and democratic education is promoted. The study also presents some practical implication for education.

Keywords: multicultural education; multi-cultural system; democratic society; outcast groups; ethnic diversity

Introduction
In fact, the formal education system, as part of the political structure of society attempts to produce and reproduce the political and social subjects for a defined time and place. Governments and political factions try to prevail through education, a wide range of selective laws and policies to apply their insights, in a way that achieving of national and political ideals become smoother. But such an approach, especially in modern Western countries in recent decades, not only did not provide public appearance and formation of educational public spheres, but overcoming of centralized educational structure that helped bourgeois and middle-class discourse rapidly used as a means for monitoring and firm foundation for the ideological and strategic domination of governments over citizens; therefore its consequences has been; social inequality and racial, ethnic and cultural discrimination.

The concept of social and cultural inequality in recent decades suffered a severe criticism. Basil Bernstein, referring to linguistic duality among children in lower and higher classes, notes the limited language of the lower classes against the extended language skills of children of the upper classes. In his view, the education system has provoked more to maintain social inequalities between these two categories, because the educational system more consistent with the language and values of middle and higher classes than the lower classes this caused the lower classes endure the inequalities and assumed it natural(Giddens, 1378: 8-467) This approach regarding class, gender, ethnicity and social groups is also true, extended language of dominant discourse, always operating and has been the main reason of the exclusion and restriction of such groups.

Recent developments after 1970, especially the final movement named as the ENDS which has sealed end all the biases and modern prescriptions, (like the subject, the end of ideology, the end of History, Macro narratives etc.) the necessity of return to the humanistic and pluralistic education system have been highlighted. Although functional and pragmatic perspectives, is considered education as a response to social and economic needs of society, but critics of such an approach viewed it as a form of passive
consumption (Ilyich 1973) and the creation of the Guardian organization, in which the educational system functions to normalizing of the unconditional accepting of the existing social order. Such criticism for reviewing the educational system as an approach have paved the way of shaping the public sphere and democracy. Modern thinkers pointed to the importance of this relationship and the critical function of education in creating an ideal society and free citizens, pluralistic and critical attention to education (Giroux 1991) so we need to pay attention to what is perhaps the educational system of multiculturalism and readout the social outcast elements. Such an approach, rebuilding the realm of education, not only as a place for education, but as a general position and democratic that include all cultures and ethnic groups interact with each other. This ideal will pave the way to achieve a peaceful democracy and equality. That means another opportunity to students and teachers to use their critical capacity in order to change social and cultural forms and norms. Such capacity with regard to cultural diversity and social and cultural pluralism in countries like Iran, creates the additional development on various aspects. On the other hand, it would create a more equitable distribution of job opportunities and social situations, that leads to the elimination or reduction of social and economic inequalities in society. The main question of this article is whether to relieve and prevent inequalities common educational content must be provided for all students or the opportunity to feature and design specific educational content according to the various ethnic within school, city, province and country? In addition it is possible simultaneously educational content to include cultural differences and challenging stereotypes at the same time developed and taught. Is the curriculum should be guided by stakeholders and community groups with the Design Center or can be delegated to local authorities and schools under a general framework. The second thing that planners and policy makers must deal with is the status of language teaching; What is it the advantages of non-competitive melting of minorities to the majority language which taught as a second language? decision-making about such things usually taken from political point of view, but any decision that is taken, levels of learning facilities and educational success of students will be affected. So these decisions surely will be effective on equality of educational and market opportunities, cultural diversity and identity. Generally, the answer should be given by paying more attention to pluralistic education that considered as postmodernist approach that flourishes rejected identities and circulating the marginalized cultures and their interaction with Central and dominant discourse and from other hand will prepare the society for the development and promoting greater tolerance and critical approaches to social development engine. The post-modern education can be effective for such an ideal environment in developing societies like Iran, which has multi-ethnic context. The problem of ethnic and national identity in recent decades has become an important issue - especially in countries with ethnic and cultural diversity -. (Rabbani et al., 1388). Therefore, one if important problems in multi-ethnic and sectors in the world like Iran, is that how ethnic groups should link and interact with each other in such societies. In other words, the problem is that social integration despite the extensive relations between social units how is it possible. (Tawasoli and Qasim’s, 5: 1381).

**Previous research**

Cultural diversity is the most basic property of societies throughout the world. The cultural variation, particularly after political developments in post-World War II became one of the most challenging issues related to modern democracy. Park (2000) named different cultural diversity in the community as follow: a) sub-cultural diversity: members of such groups also sharing of values and meaning with the dominant culture, are trying to offer different lifestyle or space for conventional family structure within the same culture. b) diversity attitude: some community members towards the principles and values of the dominant culture, are rarely critical, trying to substitute the old values with another alternatives. Like feminists who critical of patriarchal policies and religious groups who that are critical of secular trends. c) the diversity of the community or society, including groups in modern societies with self-awareness and a more or less organized communities acting according to their own belief system and their practical environment such as, immigrants, religious communities or indigenous peoples (Parekh, 2000: 87).
1.1. pluralistic education

Multicultural education is a perfect reform of process and school policies related to education system and students. This type of training rejects and challenges different strains of racism and all forms of discrimination between different social groups and recognizes pluralism and cultural diversity—students, civil society groups to which they belong, as well as the reactions of teachers—(Nieto and Bode, 2007: 44). Of course, definitions of multicultural education has changed over time. In the 1990s, American theorist of multicultural education emphasized on the importance of "social reconstruction 1" to overcome racist attitudes, social and cultural discrimination and inequality in access to power (Grant and Sleeter, 1999: 145).

James Banks as one of the most famous theorist of multi-cultural education argues that in order to have complete and correct implementation of multicultural education, teachers and officials should adhere correctly to five principles. In case of teaching concepts and skills, they should use different sources belonging to different social and cultural groups to help students learn this fact that knowledge is obtained from various sources, helping them to view and learn intergroup attitudes and behaviors. Need to modify their practices and their teaching strategies in a way that student from groups, races, cultures and different social classes have fair and equal educational experiences. And the overall culture of the school environment should be organized in such a way that students from different social and cultural groups in the school have equal status (James and Bank in Sleeter, 2005: 8).

Bank (1993) believes that the second phase of a multi-cultural education began when educators interested in ethnic studies, found that ethnic studies need to be noted in school curricula and teacher training. Accordingly, multi-ethnic education should be the basis for Multicultural Education, which aims to create structural and systematic changes in the educational environment of schools, which is intended to help increase educational equality and justice (Bank, 1993: 20).

Nieto and Bode, in relation to the goals of multicultural education or educational philosophy believe that any program would be worthless without focusing on the following three principles: 1. Eliminating inequalities and promoting equal access to educational opportunities. 2. Improving the efficiency and effectiveness of all students and providing high-quality education for all of them. 3. Providing equal opportunities for all students to help develop critical thinking and creative as members of a democratic society (Nieto & Bode, 2007: 10).

On one hand, multicultural education is the main foundation for a democratic society, and on the other, it is a criteria for the commitment and belief of politicians for constructing a democratic society. It also is a main criteria for distinguishing democratic societies from non-democratic ones. From this perspective, multicultural education means recognizing cultural, social and ethnic differences in society. However, the differences do not count only source of progress, but this differences can become a source of discrimination and inequality, and impose many material and spiritual costs on society.

This study investigates the multicultural education at three levels: micro (people such as teachers, professors, students, and their thoughts), meso (cultural and training units, such as schools and universities) Macro level (educational institution, educational system). The educational system consists of four components, namely: 1) input: pupils, students; 2) factors affecting system: teachers, books and educational content, and learning environment; 3) output: graduated, culture and knowledge generated; 4) feedback: evaluation process.

Preparing the ground for software development means creating change in its input processing (the students) in a way that meets all the characteristics of modern humans so they can influence the environment in such a way to establish proper and appropriate changes due to the tremendous waves of modernity. Such a person from the perspective of Inkeles has the following features: 1. The enjoyment of free opinion and attention to the diversity of ideas. 2. Willingness to organizing and planning. 3. Having the idea and potential of environmental mastery. 4. Calculated by knowing the world. 5. Respect for others. 6. Belief in science and technology. 7. Respect for equality and respect for the rights of others.

1.2. Post-modern approach
The idea of postmodernism as universal idea refers to a set of fundamentally different world in the fields of theoretical, attitudes, styles and disciplines, dating back to World War II in the West, especially after the transformation of the angle of view toward the universe. Uncertainty to Meta narratives and challenging the structures that had prevailed during the modern era on human subjects, caused movement that decentralizing of all what would become the center or the foundation. Postmodernism with the negation of viewing the world as an interconnected whole, coherent and inclusive, negating any expected final solution and a definitive answer and finally as a spirit of pluralism and pluralism and modernism disbelief and questioned the legitimacy of knowledge, authority of reason, centrality of man and nature and the rule of dominant ideas in the world, has created a shift in world opinion (Bayram A., 1389: 35). Such a situation is presented by Derrida as a critique of Logocentric. Such critic paved the way for formation of a trend which shaped the choice of orientation, uncertainty, complexity, multiple forms of multiculturalism and understanding of the world and texts.

Otherness and rejection of the whole orientation
This approach directly associated with the concept of pluralism and rejecting any whole-oriented. Accordingly postmodernism is tied to cultural diversity. The main essence of the idea of cultural diversity, is the acceptance of identity of other cultures, although they are sub-culture (ibid: 40) It means that in education, educational policy and planning should be decentralized in a way that the disadvantaged and the marginalized, the minorities of any category including: ethnic, linguistic, cultural and gender should be considered. (the Pakseresht, 1386: 137) on this basis, according to Marshall and Peters(1994) perspective, postmodernism is not just a political, philosophical and aesthetic movement, but it is advisable to take it into account as a rational and complex plan of thought and practice (Marshall and Peter, 1994: 9-46). Postmodernism and thinkers of this school, with an emphasis on the principle of freedom from the bondage of the grand narratives, raised concepts such as deconstruction, decentralization, remove the core and confirmed the word of otherness and respect for differences and the necessity of criticizing the dominant discourse as a whole, repression suppliers. Thus, this period can be seen as the culmination of cash, also called Post critical period. (Correns Hui, 2004: 11)

Agency and subject theory
Cartesian approach toward the 'thinking me' and the idea of "I think, therefore I am" is considered as a dominant aspect of modern subject. According to this idea which seeks a stable point, the man turned to the center of the universe and the basic foundation of understanding the world. So the modern subject, is a self-contained subject and based on the "I". Such a subject is always constitutive of the personal narrative of existence and identity, without having to have another in its place. So the modern subject is self-regulatory and self-awareness, so that social and political institutions and foundations always have in place in terms of unity and truth. It means the sameness of being, and thought. The idea of postmodernism by challenging this status and considering of the folded-rejected-subject criticized the self-centered and self-sufficient modern perspective. Thinkers of this school believe that subject of self-acceptance and integration, is ideological. In this vision, the subject and the self, forms from interaction with others. The subject always is not a centralized whole and it is Schizophrenic, and only in interaction with others can achieve its identity reconstruction and epistemological knowledge of self. Such a reversal in the ontology of the subject, is the very foundation of the theory of postmodernism.

Critical Regionalism:
Critical regionalism attitude, with regard to the developments of the modern era considered against the globalization and universalism which can be considered as the immediate result of the modern era. General approach of the modern age ranged for the development of universal pursuit of truth, knowledge, and culture. Such an approach without acknowledging relativism, considered the life based on the immutable laws which was always true, while the idea of regionalism with a critical approach in
tailoring programs and cultural products, their social identity and local characteristics. In such a situation cases like; history and language and perception of space as a position of being considered important. In general, critical regionalism resist assimilation and homogenization of the modern era and modernization process. As a result, critical regionalism with its critical strain is a theoretical alternative approach wants to look critically at local levels and tastes and help flow the abandoned and unnoticed interests and desires. Such a view will replace the macro culture with subcultures. Such an attitude rather than consider sub cultures as inefficient and belonging to marginal social and local groups know them as centers of resistance against the central, macro and homogenizing culture. This clearly shows political position of post-modernism.

This idea relates to Paul Ricoeur’s distinction between culture as local and specific phenomenon and civilization as the universal and dominant as it considers the opposition between nature and technology. As a result, if the modern age discourse, crush nature (specific local culture) the discourse of post-modern based on returning to nature and local culture.

Post Modernism as its philosophical and social point of view looks widespread and general and to some extent is vague, it is not so coherent in education and training too. But due to the thinkers of the postmodernism school the main lines and outlines of them in education can be noticed. Among points noticed by those thinkers in the field of education, their respect for ethnic, gender and racial minorities also paying much attention to the multicultural education can be named. (Najarian, Clean Nature, Safa’i Moghadam, 81). Posts Modernism by accepting the equality of all cultures, seeking to provoke the cultural diversity through education and training. (Hussaini, 87) Ideal education and training from Postmodernist opinion is that tolerate hearing the sound other than the dominant culture have.

Farahani (1383) in his book, postmodernism and education, stated that the possibility of creating and implementing a comprehensive and systematic program for the upbringing and development from teachers points of view does not exist, he accentuates some principles in his books as follow. 1. Training critical citizens: education must give students the opportunity to develop their critical capacity to meet their social and political change. 2. Providing conditions for study of radical democracy: The radical democracy, a democracy that can establish deep bonds between different perspectives. 3. Emphasis on constructive dialogue knowledge: knowledge of discourse that constructive dialogue in order to build knowledge, to prove knowledge is done. 4. Examine the differences and systems difference in as educational goal: Education and training should help student to notice and compare the differences that had neglected and not noticed before. 5. Valuing the practicality of knowledge: Students producer and consumer knowledge are considered, not just knows it. 6.Noticing to popular culture and cultural studies: the postmodern cultural studies provides tools that teachers and other stakeholders are able to deal with these cases critically. 7. Self creativity: self-expression through creativity is possible and creativity may also be possible through culture criticism and self-criticism.

Giroux, an American theorist of education, tried to predict the strains of postmodern education. Giroux inspired by the American tradition of democracy, makes free direct relationship between democracy and education as the foundations of democracy. Accordingly, education must not only to be understood as the creating of knowledge, but also the creator of the subjects and political actors as well. Critical Pedagogy rather than reject the language of politics, should link the public education to the requirements of a critical democracy (Giroux, 1381: 723). On the basis of this vision, educational institution is not just a school education, but also the field of democratic public for teaching of citizenship and identity and recovery and restoration of individual and social self-determination is a fundamental principle of it.

Giroux believes that thinkers of the postmodern pedagogy must provide the theoretical turn in their own language, a language that the opposite of solidarity and political vocabulary allows you to issues of power, justice, the fight against inequality and to release a unique and superior narrative and try not to reduce this basic issues into neglected ones. As a result, knowledge of curriculum not to be considered as a sacred text, but as part of an employment no end to the kinds of stories and traditions that can be read and re-formulated in different political circumstances. (Ibid: 6-725)
Generally, on the basis of this critical approach, students have different and diverse identities education should be a place for the removal of hierarchy and disposed discourses and a place for free expression. Such a policy suggests that between the personal and the political issue, must be a kind of relation that do not reduce the political issue into personal one and vis versa, but try to reinforce the connection between the two to address and resist racism, gender, ethnic and cultural discrimination and class exploitation.

Method
This study adopted a qualitative approach. It employed individual interviews, focus group discussions and oral history for collection data. The important point is that in addition to documenting the quality of personal experience, ideology and mentality, with them information on social structures and social movements and institutions can be collected (Frozoni, in 1998: 517). Any qualitative research even poorly designed studies, can be valuable hints to the theories. (Alasutari, 1 996: 382) Therefore, the methodology of qualitative research provides tools focusing on the meaning, power and engagement in social life (Zokaei, 1: 1381). In this, 20 teachers in different educational levels, 10 university lecturers in the field of humanities, some local authorities were interviewed. the sample was purposefully selected and individual and group interviews (focus groups) were conducted. the participants were asked for their opinions on issues related to multicultural education Finally, to analyze data the techniques of grounded theory (G.T.) were used. In fact, in this study we have used two types of samples taken at the same time. The two samples are taken were: purposive sampling and theoretical sampling. Purposive sampling used to select interview subjects and theoretical sampling to determine the number, location and find the data needed for research.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a total of 35 participants in over a two-month period. The. Initially 50 people were invited for interview, 39 of them agreed to participate in the study. The researcher explained the purposes the interview and they were told that the interviews would remain totally confidential. Each interview lasted about 30 minutes. The interviews were held in mother tongue of the interviews.

Results and discussion
As can be seen from the research paradigm, a combination of factors of post-modern education including: curriculum, use of media and cultural and ethnic diversity reception based on the main phenomenon of the research have affected the multicultural education. The concise description of each, as well as some confounding factors and consequences, and the strategies used in the operations of multi-cultural education and training and its role in reconstruction of democratic society will come.

Postmodern Curriculum
Postmodern curriculum focuses on topics that raise awareness of cultural, historical, political, ecological, aesthetic and theological issues. Curriculum should be such that put people in the process of "becoming". Curriculum development should be looking for some kind of education that makes teachers and students in a process of discovery and hoping to discover, to investigate the issues. As mentioned, the postmodern curriculum is against any type of generalization, does not relate learning exclusively to the transfer of relevant knowledge, looks at science as an interdisciplinary field, believes that no object(goal) is superior to other objects and believes that the sole criterion of excellence is due to difference, diversity and ambiguity, Critical wisdom and revelation, but no final solution able to meet, as a result of such efforts to create an approach and ultimately repressive system of Grand Narratives.

Postmodern School
The concept of school in the post-modern thought, like the cognitive structure roots in the process of freedom and democracy. School in such a state is fluid, about themselves and their place is retrospective and does not escape from the lack of consensus and conflict and no longer emphasizes only the rational aspects of life. Differences of postmodern school with the former one is, in the first shared a common ideology and in second individual identities will be binding factors. Interaction in postmodern schools,
is not limited and closed to the intellectual and morals which everyone brings to school, but in these schools heterogeneity and differences of opinion either ontologically or methodologically is commendable and do not prevented coordination and participation. Here's discourse, knowledge-based and device-even to produce knowledge. Due to postmodern perspective, knowledge is the discursive product of the educational system in the community. Therefore, appreciates freedom and democracy and demand challenging each type of discourse as a whole. So the school is an institution that should challenge the whole oriented, centralized and totalitarian structures.

Postmodern curriculum

Postmodernism sees the teaching materials and other resources as a source for presentation of ideas, information and a place for critique and deconstruction and criticism of determinant discourses. In general, postmodernism, do not see the science as the main source of fact, but science is always conceptual discourse that is related to the representation of power and domination. In the postmodern approach, knowledge considered as a way to escape from the totalitarian, hegemonic and authoritarian rule in terms of the science, because such knowledge does not confirm that it is the final or true. Such knowledge is trying to be practically used and instead the domination of man and nature have a relationship with it. This humanistic approach has been used by postmodernism as an alternative to object-oriented and totalitarian orientation approach of modern science.

Postmodern teacher

In postmodern education and training, the boundary between teacher and critic has declined. He is responsible for learning and organizing the environment for learning, and also prepared the conditions to help students criticize the dominant discourses. In short, postmodernism school: a) teachers are the pioneers and guides the learning experiences. They have a coordinating role. His role is to teach students “how to learn”. b) teachers have a central role to facilitate the learning process, and facilitate students' creativity. c) during this time, students and teachers learn together.

Postmodern teaching methods

One of the post-modern teaching methods which they consider to replace the scientific method, is the method of deconstruction. In which both teachers and students should have deconstructive approach toward the dominant discourse. Postmodernists believe that students should be encouraged to find new ways to overwriting elements and stories so that they are able to find a new way to read a text and divide it into sub-components. Teaching methods in postmodernism can be summarized as follows (Frmyhny Farahani, 83, 69):

1. An emphasis is on dialogue and democratic methods of teaching.
2. Cooperative group learning and interaction between individuals and between work groups is encouraged.
3. Independent learning along with interactive learning is concerned.
4. Streams of Alternative Learning curriculum used instead of modern programs.
5. The emphasis is on deconstruction methods, simulation and discourse analysis.
6. The conversational education is a key pillar.

Postmodern student

Postmodern education is mainly student-centered. From the perspective of postmodernism, a student-centered classroom, is a kind of class where opportunities for social interaction, research and independent studies, creativity and ability to provide experience with different learning styles is fully provided.

In such classes the student create and produce the knowledge. He should not full give up to the text, but based on the deconstructive approach, the reader is encouraged to be aware and critical of the fact that the author's intentions are not always consistent with reality. Careful reading of the text and read it critically, on the other hand has the advantage that it does not allow the structure impose and affect the meaning, and on the other hand this is a hint and point for students to prove that the meaning is multiple
and multilayer. In this perspective, students are encouraged while reading the literature, understand the contradictions and inconsistencies in them and help students develop their analytical knowledge. (Ibid. 157).

**Human relations at postmodern schools**

Postmodern teachers do not consider the human relations only from the social point of view, but they respect it and believe that dialogue is the main origin of knowledge and truth. Human relations in the post-modern approach flexible, diverse and constantly growing. In postmodern thinking, decision-making is not something that one person do it alone, but also it involves norms, structure, work, people's expectations and compliance managers and including factors that affect the decision making in the organization. (Ibid. 170)

The concept of dialogue, is a kind of refresh to refresh and re-invited the outcasts and marginalized. It fetches a solid basis for the development of democracy. If we accept the of Giddens that fundamentalism begins when the conversation ends, It must be said that human relations of postmodernism always considered a harbinger of a return to dialogue to make the process of democracy and freedom provided. Thus, a glimmer of hope of democracy in society can be seen when the marginalized are invited to have a say in their education.
Conclusion

We can say that the most important institution that can provide the context of software development, is training and education. "The role of education in a democratic society, is that to help all members of the community to make full use of their abilities as a human being and mobilize the community life and resources. To achieve this goal, education as a development process of the human mind must be liberated from ignorance and bigotry, so that creativity and logic as tools to deal with any kind of pressure, which causes human do not use his maximum capabilities" (UNESCO 1381). This issue needed more than ever in terms of multicultural education, so that it has attracted the attention of writers and critics. All in all the use and implementation of multicultural education seems essential as it:

1. offers alternative views on information.
2. gives a sense of belonging to the cultural and ethnic groups as they think that they have a place in science, literature and history.
3. will decrease stereotyping, racial stereotypes are offensive and humiliating, prejudices and ethnocentric and racist tendencies in society.
4. promotes organic cohesion of society.
5. will reinforce the minorities and the marginalized groups so that they feel that have a voice in their society.
6. will pave the way for the formation and development of democracy.

Pluralistic society is not simply a society where religious groups, different ethnic exist, or where all these groups have equal civil and political rights, but also a plural society is a society where members of each group respect the culture and values of other groups. Unlike mere tolerance, respect, needs to have information about another culture. In fact, a person cannot have respect for something such as a culture that does not recognize or have information about it (Putnam, 2004: 38).

The most important institution that can provide valid and reliable information in a peaceful atmosphere is education. In other words, the realization of this important fact is one of the functions of multicultural education. Of course, this goal will not be achieved unless there is an organic connection between educational institutions and society as a whole. Without cultural pluralism and democratic indicators
related to social justice in the public sphere not only these objectives but also the realization of multicultural education will be in serious trouble.

The idea of multiculturalism is to extend and institutionalize cultural diversity within the nation-state through the legal system, educational system, politics, government, health, housing and through respect for the customs and religious practices and specific language of each group and culture- (Mills Bravyt, 1385: 328). Such a principle is in fact the most basic principles of social and political democracy, that it can be found in returning to the theoretical foundations of human agency and the subject of postmodern theory, critical regionalism and finally relief from the whole orientation. In such circumstances deconstruction is a way to achieve a pluralism, freedom and democracy in society. Hence, this goal will not be achieved except through attention to multicultural education in schools and educational institutions of society.

But if the passing society of Iran (from traditional one to modern ones) to pass healthily of social changes, it is perhaps appropriate education to assume greater role in the community. So education and training should free itself from the shackles of traditional relations and constitutes an arm drop of intellectuals and prepare the grounds of humanist, emancipatory, democratic education. (Shyegan, 39, 1384) "Our schools should teach any member that would pay respect to each other " (Dewey, 1988: 205).

In fact, attention to the pluralistic education through deconstruction of what can be a hindrance in the way of achieving cultural diversity, can makes it easier to achieve democracy more safer and with lesser social and political costs. As long as the door to the presence of all cultural and social outcasts and marginalized of society not provided, we cannot see the realization of true democracy: Such an important issue needs to change the attitude of people, especially children in schools and educational institutions. Basically, social tolerance should be taught in schools so that people in adulthood can commit to tolerance in various fields. A right path to democracy passes through deconstruction and reconstruction of central and non-pluralistic educational systems. It hopes to achieve progress and freedom will be doubled.

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Students’ Perceptions of the Foundation Program English Language at an Arab University: Implications for Bridging the Policy-Practice Gap

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Abstract
Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) is one of the higher education institutions in the Sultanate of Oman which has implemented the Foundation Program English Language (FPEL) to help bridge the gap between school graduates’ English language levels and the level required for higher academic study. However, there have been repeated complaints from SQU’s college faculty members about the English language level of students exiting the FPEL and joining their college credit courses. This thematic analysis study, therefore, investigated the implementation of the FPEL at SQU. Findings suggested that the participants perceived the FPEL curriculum and instruction as the two main contributors to the FPEL ineffective implementation. The findings have important implications for the FPEL in other similar local and international contexts.

Key words: Foundation Program English Language, Sultan Qaboos University, Language Centre, curriculum, instruction

English and English Language Teaching in Oman
English in the Sultanate of Oman is recognized as a tool for modernization and national development. It has multiple institutionalized domains and is a fundamental tool for building a modern nation-state (Al-Issa, 2016, 2017; Al-Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2014).

The Omani government revolutionized English Language Teaching (ELT) education through its reform plan the Basic Education System (BES) (Grades 1-10) almost two decades ago (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). Huge budgets were allocated to planning the BES. Formal ELT instruction on the national curriculum was expanded, schools were equipped with advanced and sophisticated educational technology, foreign experts were invited to write new textbooks, new means of communicative and skill-based assessment were incorporated into the curriculum, and in-service teacher development programs were introduced to help meet the needs of the Omani and many non-Omani teachers and to solve their problems (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012).

However, almost 20 years later, students exiting the BES were found suffering from problems pertinent to a lack of intrinsic motivation (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2014) and competence in communication skills (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2014). Other problems reported were related to teacher inadequacy (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi, 2012), inadequate curricula (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi, 2012), memory-based exams which have failed to reveal students’ language performance (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012), limited exposure time to English (Al-Issa, 2013; Al-Mahrooqi, 2012), and the system and the school environment (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012). In fact, these
problems have existed prior to the inception of the BES (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). This situation has the potential to jeopardize students’ chances of academic success in higher and post-secondary education (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2014).

The central role of teachers as powerful agents of change sitting at the heart of any educational innovation and endeavor to fill any curriculum void was thus emphasized in the pertinent literature. Teachers were considered significant drivers of reform (Mok, 2007) and key actors in meeting the challenges and demands of globalization and internationalization (Prapphal, 2008). Other researchers (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi, 2012; Al-Mahrooqi & Denman, 2014; Al-Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2014) thus highlighted the role of teachers in helping students overcome these problems through motivating and encouraging them, guiding and directing their learning, and adopting a student-centered approach.

Statement of the Problem

Almost all Omani higher education academic institutions use English as a medium of instruction due to its recognized international status and vital role in modernizing Oman. At the pinnacle of all higher education institutions, SQU is the country’s only fully funded national university. At SQU, science-based colleges teach their specializations in English. English is also the medium of instruction in the College of Economics and Political Sciences and many specializations in the humanities. English courses (foundation and later credit) are obligatory for all English medium specializations. English is also taught as a university requirement in all Arabic-medium specializations. SQU has a student body of around 16,000 enrolled in nine colleges. SQU generally admits the top 5% of high school (or General Diploma, as per the Omani nomenclature) graduates. Unfortunately, the majority of these graduates come to the university under-equipped with English language skills. To illustrate, out of 3,121 students who were enrolled in SQU in September 2014 for the start of academic year 2014/2015, 2,549 of them were required to attend the Foundation Program English Language (FPEL) in order to improve their English before entering their colleges.

Al-Mashani (2011), Baporikar and Shah (2012) Al Hajri (2013), Tanveer (2013), and Al Siyabi and Tuzlukova (2014) viewed the English language incompetence of post-BES school (Grades 11 and 12) graduates as one of the major reasons contributing to widening the gap between post-BES outcomes and higher education requirements. They further considered it as one of the key challenges, that higher education institutions face and need to address to help prepare students with adequate language skills.

At SQU no fewer than 70% of accepted students enroll in the FPEL every year (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012). The Omani government introduced the FPEL to bridge the gap between school graduates’ English levels and the level required for tertiary-level academic study. The FPEL thus acted as a pathway to higher learning and combines intensive English language training and academic courses.

Unfortunately, there were repeated written and verbal complaints from different faculty members in the nine SQU colleges about the overall English language incompetence of students exiting the FPEL and joining their respective colleges. Many of those students were unable to use the English language to communicate meaning appropriately in spoken and written texts while completing their higher education studies. This situation can have negative implications for these students’ academic attainment and for the colleges’ attempts to achieve quality outcomes and accreditation – a goal that SQU has been pursuing for around the past decade to help improve its products and services in order to attain an overall increase in its world university ranking.

The FPEL

Higher education has been witnessing rapid changes and enormous transformations which necessitate thinking and acting strategically (Machado, Taylor, & Frahanghamer, 2004) in ways that lead to the
creation of a dynamic fit between different higher education academic institutions and their environment (Rowley & Sherman, 2002). In the Sultanate of Oman there is an increasing awareness of the need to establish and monitor quality assurance mechanisms in various branches of higher education (Carroll, Razvi, Goodliffe & Al Habsi, 2009).

The FPEL at all public and private higher education academic institutions in the sultanate is a part of the General Foundation Program (GFP). The GFP is a formal and structured program of study mandated by the Oman Academic Accreditation Authority (OAAA), previously known as the Oman Accreditation Council that aims at establishing “greater public confidence in the system and the benefits that flow from this, such as greater student mobility and employability” (Carroll, Razvi, Goodliffe & Al Habsi, 2009, p. 9). Carroll, Razvi and Goodliffe (2009) highlighted the academic, educational, psychological, social, and economic advantages of the GFP from the perspectives of students, parents, and the governments. The GFP implementation at colleges and universities around Oman is thus accredited on meeting certain requirements set by the OAAA.

The GFP exit standards were based on what has become known as Bloom’s Taxonomy (1956), which is a set of three hierarchical models used to classify educational learning objectives into levels of complexity and specificity and covers cognitive, affective, and sensory domains and “... were developed by pan-sectoral working groups comprising leading national and international academicians” (Oman Academic Standards for General Foundation Programs, 2010, p. 5). Bloom’s Taxonomy provided an important framework for teachers to focus on higher order thinking skills. It assisted teachers to organize a set of objectives to plan and deliver appropriate instruction, design valid assessment tasks and strategies, and ensure that instruction and assessment are aligned with the objectives.

Setting the academic standards further involved “national and international benchmarking, a review of past and current national experience, and extensive public consultations including a major public symposium held at Sultan Qaboos University (January 2007)” (Oman Academic Standards for General Foundation Programs, 2010, p. 5). The Oman Academic Standards for General Foundation Programs (OASGFP) (2010) stated that “all Oman Academic Standards were recommended by the OAAA and formally approved by a decision from the Minister of Higher Education” (p. 6). It further stated that “GFPs which meet the required standards AND which are being subject to successful continuous quality improvement efforts by its HEI [Higher Education Institutions] will be accredited” (OASGFP, 2010, p. 6).

The GFP is comprised of Computing, English, Mathematics, and General Study Skills. The program consists of 18 hours per week of English language instruction and two hours for Mathematics, Computing, and General Study Skills. According to the OASGFP (2010):

These four areas have been selected based on the advice of academic staff in Oman, international literature and international benchmarks. They provide a comprehensive intellectual base that is relevant to all further study and to the development of broad thinking and life skills in general. This strategy is consistent with the development of generic graduate attributes for Oman. (p. 6) [emphasis in original]

The program, which precedes the first formal year of higher education study is “only required for students who do not otherwise meet all the entrance criteria for the first year of their higher or postsecondary and higher education” (OASGFP, 2010, p. 6). It was designed to help prepare students entering higher education in Oman for their further studies. It can therefore be considered a compulsory entrance qualification into degree programs within the country.

The FPEL is divided into six proficiency levels. A placement test determines where students should be placed within these levels. All assessment is based on the learning outcome standards; i.e. they are criteria-based. Students’ progress is gauged through continuous assessment, midterm tests, and final
An exit assessment, which each higher education institution is responsible for developing, is required to determine whether a student has met the required GFP learning outcomes. OASGFP (2010) stressed that “a variety of formative and summative assessment methods could be considered . . . in order to assure that the learning outcomes have been achieved and to avoid institutions focusing solely on exam results” (p. 11). Students are expected to exit the FPEL at a level equivalent to the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Band 5 or Testing of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) 500, bearing in mind that the English language level of many of the school system graduates can be described as “zero-level” (Al-Mamari, 2012).

Al Mamari (2012) thus asserted that “the biggest challenge facing HEIs [Higher Education Institutions] now regarding the exit requirements is to ensure that students reach the required IELTS proficiency (5.0) within not more than three semesters” (p. 5). Al Mamari (2012) concluded by stressing the role of standard-based education in substantially contributing to monitoring and improving educational programs and the central role of selecting appropriate teaching and assessment methods, recruiting qualified faculty, providing professional development opportunities, and setting up an appropriate learning-teaching environment with all necessary resources. The author asserted that carrying out such task was a challenge that higher education institutions had been encountering since the GFP national standards “define what students should know before starting their academic programs; they do not define how students should learn or how teachers should teach” (p. 2).

Carroll, Razvi and Goodliffe (2009) and Al-Busaidi and Tuzlukova (2013) thus emphasized the central role of faculty members’ updated pedagogical and curriculum development skills and knowledge and the implications these have for the implementation of the complex and challenging GFP. This is particularly important in a context which relies heavily on foreign/international contract academicians who have limited experience in curriculum development, which can affect the chances of the different higher education academic institutions achieving program accreditation (Carroll, Razvi & Goodliffe, 2009).

The FPEL at SQU
The FPEL at SQU is run by the Language Centre (LC) – one of the university’s support centers. The LC states on its webpage that it “will provide a creative, co-operative and flexible environment in which students and staff can learn, grow and fulfill their potential” (Language Centre, 2015, para. 1) and sees its mission as providing “high quality language services to meet the requirements of academic study, the challenges of a changing work environment and the needs of the wider community” (para. 1).

The LC is equipped with adequate facilities, educational technology, and resources. Each classroom usually features 18-20 students representing both genders and streamed into levels based on language proficiency. Furthermore, the LC has a Tutorial Centre where students can go to get assistance with improving their English language skills in areas such as reading, writing, speaking, presentation skills, study skills, vocabulary and so on.

In addition, the LC has a Curriculum Unit, which “strives to ensure the production and use of quality materials that correspond to the stated learning outcomes for each course” (Language Centre, 2015, para. 1). The unit also helps oversee the curricula that are taught across LC programs. It pilots new textbooks, supports the piloting of new e-learning materials in the FPEL, and produces materials. The Curriculum Unit at the LC works with the course coordinators to ensure that the in-house and commercial textbooks they use match course outcomes and objectives. The former category of textbooks is written by program teachers, often with the supervisory assistance of the Curriculum Unit. The latter category of textbooks, on the other hand, is imported from the large international academic publishers.
Another important unit at the LC is the Assessment Unit. It is responsible for preparing and administering placement and exit tests in addition to tests across the six English foundation levels. It also liaises with credit program coordinators about matters related to testing and assessment. The Foundation Program English Language Curriculum Document (2012-2013) stated that

In the Language Centre, we have always stressed the importance of collaboration between testing and curriculum on the one hand and testing, curriculum and teaching on the other . . . We try to ensure that there is continued communication among them for the sake of effective delivery of the curriculum and assessment. (p. iv)

The document continued by stating that “the CU [Curriculum Unit] and AU [Assessment Unit] work closely with teacher and programmes to plan and realize the curriculum and assessments” (p. iv). It went on to say that “we rely heavily on teachers’ expertise and creativity to deliver the curriculum in the best way possible” (p. iv). It additionally stated that “we fully understand that the materials are not a perfect match for the curriculum. Teachers will invariably find themselves in need of supplementation. This is accepted as long as the target objectives are met” (p. iv).

The LC also has a Student Support Unit which aims to encourage effective and autonomous learning among LC students. The unit aims “to support students’ language and academic development with professional learning assistance and individualized service” (Language Centre, 2015, para. 1). This is intended to result in the effective use of resources and the successful development of language learning strategies by students.

Moreover, the LC has an Extra-Curricular Activities Centre. This centre aims to “promote students’ and teachers’ involvement in clubs outside of class, aiming at creative ways to interest and captivate students’ talents in various activities that ultimately have specific aims and a timeline of achievement” (Language Centre, 2015, para. 1). The centre further supports building students’ confidence and their abilities to express themselves as creative individuals.

More than 200 teachers representing around 30 nationalities and a wide range of academic, cultural, and social backgrounds, work on a full-time basis at the LC. Those teachers usually go through a rigorous series of interviews and teaching demonstrations prior to being selected for the employment at the centre. The minimum qualification requirement for hiring LC English teachers is a master’s degree, although there are also a handful of Ph.D. holders. Some of the teachers working at the centre are SQU graduates. To serve the professional needs of LC teachers, a Professional Development and Research Unit, comprised of a Research Committee, an Induction and Mentoring Committee, and a Professional Development Committee, also exists. Carroll, Razvi, Goodliffe and Al Habsi (2009) view professional development as a means to stimulate teachers’ creative and innovative skills and thinking to prepare and evaluate curricula for their students. The Professional Development and Research Unit aims at “providing interactive, informative and entertaining events for all staff” (Language Centre, 2015, para. 1). A good example of those events is the organization of occasional professional development workshops led by local and global experts in the field and the annual international conference on ELT which was started in 2000 and draws hundreds of presenters and participants every year from SQU, the sultanate, and beyond.

Furthermore, the Foundation Program English Language Curriculum Document (2012-2013) states that

We . . . believe in teamwork. Two or more teachers usually share the same course. We encourage teachers to collaborate with each other in teaching and sharing materials. We encourage teachers to take advantage of this wealth of knowledge and expertise [more than 200 teachers from more than 25 countries] to enrich their own and to best serve their students’ needs”. (p. iv)
The FPEL Implementation Challenges

A survey of the pertinent literature revealed that, in addition to SQU, different Omani and foreign higher education academic institutions had been experiencing various challenges implementing the FPEL. These challenges were mostly related to curriculum and instruction. Therefore, such a situation can have serious negative implications for students’ academic and professional success and disturb policy implementation.

For example, in his cross-sectional evaluation of Sohar University FPEL students’ performance in writing and by employing a mixed-method approach to data collection, Trabelsi (2015) involved 200 students representing different levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate) and 25 teachers and content analysis of students’ writing assignments and portfolios found numerous problems with the curriculum which was seen as being more geared towards product writing than process. In addition to issues with the curriculum, the researcher also attributed students’ low levels of English writing to their lack of development of writing skills at school and the lack of autonomous learning and critical thinking skills.

Trabelsi (2015) drew a host of implications related to the curriculum and teachers. As far as the former is concerned, the author recommended expanding instruction time and paying more careful attention to the selection of writing topics. When considering the latter, the researcher recommended giving process writing rather than product-oriented writing, more focus. He additionally recommended using more handouts or supplementary materials in class and assigning more homework. He further recommended that teachers need to adapt their teaching styles to suit their students’ learning preferences and to develop innovative methods and strategies that enable students to learn more and better. The writer also recommended that teachers need to use different kinds of positive reinforcement to motivate their students.

A different kind of challenge at the FPEL was discussed by Ptak and Ginosyan (2014) about the learning and teaching of reading and vocabulary acquisition skills amongst SQU FPEL first year students. The two authors conducted a needs analysis project amongst first year FPEL students, English teachers, and college faculty members at SQU in order to identify the most common practices and strategies regarding the teaching and learning of reading and vocabulary acquisition skills. They further aimed at exploring students’, teachers’, and college instructors’ perceptions and challenges in order to determine whether the FPEL curriculum reading goals, recommended materials, and teaching approaches were effective and relevant. The two authors stated that the findings of their study would be used in establishing a framework for in-house reading and vocabulary course materials, which would be developed for lower proficiency level students in the FPEL.

Ptak and Ginosyan (2014) stated that currently a wide array of intensive and extensive reading activities and strategies were used with the aid of different materials and resources such as libraries, different reading software, and computer laboratories to help students build intrinsic motivation towards reading to enhance their future academic success, develop fluency in reading, and to develop as autonomous learners. Nonetheless, reading according to the researchers continued to be the most problematic of the core language skills because FPEL students continued to “lack sufficient reading comprehension and critical thinking skills to deal with long academic passages” (p. 73).

Ptak and Ginosyan (2014) attributed these problems partly to imported textbooks, which “rely mainly on higher-level, knowledge-based strategies” (p. 73). By contrast, they stated that “research conducted among Arab students has shown that a lack of automaticity in applying lower level, bottom-up text processing techniques impedes these students’ comprehension of texts” (p. 73). The researchers
suggested considering developing in-house textbooks which could take into account students’ schemata as a way to facilitate their reading process and to develop their intrinsic motivation to read.

Ptak and Ginosyan (2014) further held teachers accountable for providing students with a learning environment that is both appropriate and stimulating in order to help them enhance their reading comprehension skills through appropriate instruction. Teachers according to the researchers were also responsible for creating a positive reading environment and encouraging and motivating students to become independent readers through the appropriate selection of materials and teaching methods and approaches.

Tanveer (2013) explored the gap in English language and study skills between FPEL and undergraduate level studies at Majan College – an Omani private university college. He focused on the areas of students’ weaknesses in English language and study skills after successfully completing the GFP and starting undergraduate courses. The author interviewed eight undergraduate lecturers, administered a five-point Likert Scale questionnaire along with some open-ended questions with 176 students, and conducted a focus group discussion with nine English lecturers.

Tanveer (2013) found that gaps in reading and writing in terms of English language and study skills between both levels of studies continued to exist due to students’ lack of vocabulary and exposure to the target language. He made a host of recommendations to bridge the gap between the two levels of studies, including expanding instruction time, including exercises that foster the transfer of skills, provide support classes for weaker students, enhance new entrants’ involvement in the new learning environment, and acknowledge and appreciate outstanding performers who excel via being self-driven and self-responsible for their success to help offer examples for the low achievers.

Al-Hajri (2013) administered a questionnaire on 184 students and used 106 students in gender specific focus groups from two colleges in Oman to investigate their of the English language assessment in terms of its effectiveness, reliability, validity, and the students’ preference of its constituting instruments. The researcher found that the students perceived the FPEL assessment as generally effective but were ill-informed about its nature and contents. She also found that there was a perceived need for more assessment instruments and an unexpected low social impact of the FPEL assessment considering its high stakes. The author recommended that assessment details should be shared with both the students and teachers at the beginning of the academic semester to eliminate any underperformance due to uncertainties and increase the validity of FPEL assessment. She additionally recommended that more emphasis should be laid on formatative assessment instruments that provide enough feedback to students and that show a high degree of validity should be considered. Al-Hajri (2013) suggested that this could be achieved by incorporating smaller units of classroom assessment early in the semester to allow enough time for feedback. These units should be validated prior to use and teachers should be trained to mark them as consistently as possible, preferably using a similar marking scale to that used for other performance assessment tasks.

In her second study, Al-Hajri (2014) evaluated the English language assessment in the FPEL at the Colleges of Applied Sciences in Oman. She used thematic analysis in studying 118 documents on language assessment. She investigated the theory and practice underlying assessment and found that there was a gap between assessment policy and practice due to a lack of certainty about assessment content and structure, which resulted in producing difficult tests and inconsistency in implementing marking criteria for essay tasks which has negative implications for the validity of the FPEL. The researcher further found that summative assessment dominated assessment in the FPEL at these colleges, in spite of the directives of the OASGFP (2010) to avoid an over-reliance on exam results by using both...
formative and summative methods of assessment. The author recommended considering continuous assessment to help students receive feedback on their performance as directed by the OASGFP (2010).

In a different study but in a very similar context, Liton (2013) used questionnaires to explore the perceptions, evaluations, and expectations of 25 teachers about English language courses in renowned Saudi universities. Results revealed that students suffered from weaknesses in the four skills, grammar, and vocabulary. Findings further showed that more than half of the students either felt bored or did not like the existing FPEL. The researcher also reported that the existing FPEL syllabus was not tailored appropriately to the needs of higher education students. Therefore, Liton (2013) made a series of recommendations. First, university FPEL courses should be redesigned to assimilate learners’ standard and previous learning. Second, the course content should encompass learners’ socio-cultural factors. Third, teacher-centered classrooms should be replaced with a student-centered approach. Finally, more emphasis should be placed on practicing speaking and listening.

Relf et al. (2017) used a mixed method approach to data collection to examine the Foundation Program curriculum design approaches/models in three different Australian universities. They found that the curriculum document lacked mapping as it did not capture all that occurs in “enabling education” and hence had implications for achieving alignment between program attributes, unit learning outcomes and assessment. Enabling education prepares students academically, provides students with pastoral care, empowers and transforms students’ thinking, builds their skills and proficiencies, builds their cultural capital, builds their confidence, builds a whole person, helps adapt to the students’ levels, backgrounds and experiences, helps students connect with their learning, helps them discover their potential, helps them test their selves, and helps them pursue an academic career. The authors further found that the curriculum document did not identify the “enacted”, “experienced”, or “hidden” curriculum; the last being undervalued despite its importance to quality and standards. They also found that articulated principles and values were missing in these documents.

However, Relf et al. found that the three programs were successful due to the academic educators’ qualities, attributes and styles, which impacted the implementation of the experienced curriculum and hidden curriculum. Educators were described as understanding, flexible, adaptable, interactive, engaging, encouraging, compassionate, caring, empathetic, patient, approachable, responsive, open, authentic, inclusive, non-judgmental, prepared, organized and good communicators.

Rationale
This research was motivated by bridging the gap between micro-macro and the policy-practice levels and by looking at curriculum policy and methods and materials policy to enhance the delivery of ELT programming (Mahboob & Tilakaratana, 2012). Little is known about how the FPEL policy is formulated in the Omani context and the role teachers play in its implementation or non-implementation. This study was designed with the intention to fill this gap in the literature.

Therefore, this study was a pioneering piece of exploratory research in the context of Oman and even possibly in the neighboring Gulf Cooperation Council Countries. It attempted to stimulate thinking for further research to contribute further to theory building and hypothesis testing and to draw implications across several local and global population groups.

Research Questions
This study was hence motivated by asking the following questions:

- What are students’ perceptions about the SQU FPEL curriculum?
- What are students’ perceptions about the SQU FPEL instruction?
• What implications do the students’ perceptions about the curriculum and instruction have for the implementation of the SQU FPEL?

Method

Participants
A large group of Omani male and female students representing different regions of the sultanate were invited to participate in the study. All participants were enrolled in the different FPEL proficiency levels at the LC. The participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 20 years old. We received their verbal consent after they had been briefed about the purpose and nature of the study. We assured them that their identities would remain anonymous.

Data Collection
Qualitative data used in this study derived from two sources. The first and main source was the students’ or participants’ discourses, which derived from their unique perspectives about the FPEL and was grounded in their different statements. The second source of data was the pertinent literature on the FPEL, which included different important texts and discourses about various theoretical and practical aspects of the FPEL and helped us draw conclusion about the implications the implementation of the FPEL at SQU has for bridging the policy-practice gap.

We collected our data through structured personal interviews and focus groups due to the relative sensitivity of the topic and to help collect rich, thorough, in-depth, and complex data leading to insights about participants’ experiences and firsthand accounts of the FPEL. We used the questions found in the appendix for data collection, which were validated by a panel of experts in the field. We applied for an ethical clearance for involving human subjects in the research, which was granted to us by the Deanship of Postgraduate Studies and Research at SQU.

This was a pilot study that would be used to guide larger-scale research that investigated the challenges and opportunities underlying quality assurance mechanisms in the FPEL at the different public and private HEIs in Oman. The study was funded by Oman’s TRC (The Research Council). We hired four trained bilingual Omani professional research assistants on a contract basis. They held a first or postgraduate degree in different specializations and worked as full-time assistant researchers at the Humanities Research Centre at SQU for a number of years and were known for their trustworthiness, resourcefulness, and friendliness. While Arabic was their first language, they all had practical knowledge of English, advanced computer literacy and data recording skills, and experience in collecting qualitative research data. They conducted the interviews and focus groups, audio-recorded them using MP3 digital recorders, and transcribed them. However, prior to this they sought each participant’s consent to participate in the study and when consent was given a mutually convenient time was arranged to conduct the interviews or complete the open-ended questionnaires.

A total of 21 students completing their FPEL at the LC agreed to be interviewed. The length of the interviews varied depending on the participants’ answers. Participants were asked to choose whether they preferred to be interviewed in Arabic or English. All of them chose to be interviewed in Arabic.

Three focus groups were formed and interviewed on three separate days by the research assistants. While the female group was composed of seven people, the other two male groups were composed of six people each. All 19 students were completing their FPEL at the LC. They too chose to be interviewed in Arabic.

We conducted an initial examination of the data collected and coded manually and schematically on a laptop and compared them to the pertinent literature, the OASGFP (2010) document, and the official LC
webpage and realized that they reached theoretical saturation and were sufficiently rich and thorough. All interviews were completed within around six weeks and the interview responses were saved on a laptop computer file and translated into English by the two of us in preparation for analysis.

Analysis
The analysis of the data in this study was guided by the phases and stages of theme development in qualitative thematic analysis developed by Vaismoradi, Jones, Tutunen, and Snelgrove (2016). Themes in this study were implicit and abstract constructs and required interpretation (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Vaismoradi et al., 2016).

In the “initializing” phase and using an inductive approach to our thematic analysis we read and re-read the transcriptions and constantly moved “back and forward between the entire data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 15) to familiarize ourselves with “the depth and breadth of the content” (p. 16). We highlighted the meaning units to help us identify any patterns grounded in the data. We then used Microsoft Word text highlighting colors to reduce the data and organize it through coding it and looking for abstractions in the participants’ accounts, which also helped us to compare between the accounts and find answers to our first and second research questions. Next, we wrote reflective notes for trustworthiness purposes.

In the “construction” phase we first classified and grouped the codes we identified to help us define and produce “a satisfactory thematic map” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 19) to identify the essence of what each theme was about. This was followed by comparing the codes and revising them to detect negative cases and connect codes together to delineate overarching themes. We then labeled the codes and tried to give each one a compelling name.

In the “rectification” phase we aimed at reviewing and refining the data. We first immersed ourselves in the data “. . . to assess and examine the accuracy of the coding process” (Vaismoradi et al., 2016, p. 106) and examined the degree of the data coherence. In the next stage and using our established theoretical knowledge of the study phenomenon, themes started to emerge from the empirical data. We could see the very close relationships between the two overarching or core themes – curriculum and instruction, which described the bulk of the data. We could also see the quality of saturation of each of the two themes through its four subthemes.

In the “finalization” phase and using a “semantic” or “explicit” (Braun & Clarke, 2006) approach we used our creativity and innovation to present a story deriving from the two themes and connecting them and their subthemes together. We used the literature on the FPEL as a source of additional and complementary data to facilitate understanding the study phenomenon and show how it has been advanced.

Methodological Rigor
In order to reduce bias and increase rigor and in addition to our own critical reflections on the methodological details of the study we sought the assistance of an expert colleague or an independent reviewer from the ELT field to act as a critical friend to validate the themes, review the process, and confirm the findings for corroboration purposes. On completion of the paper, we asked him to review the entire paper to judge the methodological and substantive accounts of the study.

Results
Curriculum
Textbooks. Data about curriculum were various and multi-faceted. Some of the participants looked at extrinsic motivation and academic success from materials’ perspective and thought that the textbooks used in the SQU FPEL were interesting and relevant and contributed to their language learning. One of
the participants praised the listening textbook: “The listening book is good.” The next participant praised
the reading book and though it was useful: “The reading book was good. I learnt a lot from it.” A third
participant had positive views about the level of the textbooks and though that they had contributed to
enriching his lexical repertoire: “The textbooks were good and simple. I learnt a lot of new vocabulary
from them.”

On the other hand, many others believed the textbooks were boring and affected their extrinsic
motivation since they were ineffective and irrelevant and thus failed to achieve their goals. One of the
participants did not think that the writing textbook was interesting: “The writing books are boring.”
Another participant linked the textbooks being boring with loss of motivation and thought that they were
a source of discouragement: “The textbooks are very boring and didn’t encourage me to learn.” A
different group of participants had other negative views about the textbooks as a demotivating and
discouraging factor. One of them believed that the textbooks were boring because they lacked colors:
“The textbooks are unattractive and lack colors.” The next participant did not like the textbooks and did
not think they were not relevant to the level of the students: “The textbooks are silly and irrelevant. I
don’t like the textbooks at the FPEL.”

**Contact and exposure time.** Contrary to the discussion above, another kind of books that a large number
of intrinsically motivated participants found useful and helpful to develop fluency in reading, helped
them develop as autonomous learners, provided extensive reading opportunities, took them beyond
mere exposure to the mandated textbook knowledge, and expanded contact time with the target
language, had been stories. One of the participants read stories weekly since stories are one source of
facilitating cultural analysis and understanding of the target language: “I read stories weekly.” Unlike
the last participant, the next participant read stories on a daily basis for two hours: “I read stories for two
hours a day.”

While the last two participants read hard copies, the next two participants, who belonged to the Net
Generation and digital or information age and who were technology savvy, resorted to educational
technology and online facilities to increase their exposure to and contact with the target language and
enhance their future academic success. The first participant mentioned using the Moodle for reading
stories as an example of intensive reading: “Reading stories from the Moodle helped me a lot.” Almost
similarly, the second participant used the Moodle for reading stories and doing the accompanying
exercises: “I like the idea of reading stories and doing the exercises on the Moodle.”

Interestingly, in the age of globalization and encrypted and free-to-air satellite TV channels, other
participants directed their attention to different materials beyond the classroom and mandated textbooks
to expand their contact time with the target language and support their language improvement and
diversify their sources of cultural analysis and understanding of the target language: “I watch movies and
listen to songs every day.” Similarly, another participant acted independently and autonomously and
adopted similar strategies that increased his exposure to and contact with the target language and its
culture: “I try to improve my English through watching movies and listening to songs almost every day.”

**Learning support and enhancement.** Some participants praised the extra-curricular activities that the LC
organizes to help students maximize their exposure to and practice of the target language thereby leading
to an overall improvement. One of the participants spoke about the benefits of the interactive nature of
the activities designed and implemented by the LC and their relevance to his language adequacy: “The
extra-curricular interactive activities at the LC helped me improve my English a lot.” A different
participant looked at the extra-curricular activities from a wider perspective and thought they had a
linguistic, social, and psychological effect on him and supported his social skills and self-confidence
respectively. He specifically mentioned speaking due to the relatively limited oral language practice
domains in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context like the Omani one: “I relied on the workshops and groups organized by the LC like the Speaking Club. They helped me improve my language and gain self-confidence.”

By contrast, some of the participants were critical of certain aspects of the GFP like Mathematics and Computing for various reasons. One of the participants questioned the relevance of Mathematics: “Mathematics is irrelevant and we don’t need it in the first place.” Another participant suggested increasing the formal English language instruction time through cancelling Mathematics: “SQU should replace the Mathematics course with more English language courses.” The following two participants were critical of the Computing course too. The first one thought that it was redundant: “The Computing course is not useful and overcrowds the timetable.” The second participant, nevertheless, commented on the reduced exposure to and contact with the English language through an Arabic-medium Computing course, especially that English is the language of science and technology acquisition and computers largely facilitate this acquisition process: “The teachers explain the Computing course in Arabic! So, we don’t get any benefit from it.”

Assessment. Different students were critical of the summative tests they took and thought they lacked validity, were product-based, negatively affected students’ cognitive abilities through discouraging critical thinking, and were a poor source of extrinsic motivation. They also thought that there was a lack of certainty and shared assessment details between the students and teachers leading to students underperforming. One of the participants drew an analogy between the exams at the FPEL and at school in the sense that they both encouraged memorization and relied almost exclusively on textbook knowledge and hence lacked validity: “The exams were like the ones we took at school. We memorized the textbook and then poured the information into the paper. I didn’t feel any difference.”

The next few participants looked at the summative tests’ validity from a different perspective. One of the participants criticized the level of the exam and thought it lacked validity and alignment with the course objectives, which led to loss of a sense of achievement: “What hindered my learning was the level of the exams. The exams were above our levels.” Similarly, the next participant criticized the exams at the FPEL and thought they lacked clarity and did not measure what they were supposed to measure: “The exams were difficult and unclear.” The next participant used the listening test as an example of an invalid test: “The listening test was the most difficult.” Unlike the last participant, the next participant criticized the reading test for lacking validity: “The reading test was the most difficult.”

Instruction
Positive reinforcement. In an EFL context where many students do not see the relevance of English, some of the participants thought that their teachers were good because they extrinsically motivated them to learn English. This appeared evident in the next three statements. One of the participants spoke in general terms about the role of teachers in motivating their students to learn the target language: “The teacher motivated us to learn English.” The next participant had more than one good teacher who helped contribute to improving his self-confidence, which reflected directly on his motivation and could reflect on his academic success: “Some teachers are good, because they motivate us to improve, as this gives us self-confidence. In the CLT-based era, where teachers are expected to play multiple roles inside and outside the classroom, the next participant linked motivation with the role of the teacher as a helper and a needs analyst of students’ weaknesses in two underdeveloped skills students lack critical thinking and autonomy in due to school ELT education: “The teacher motivated us and helped us to develop our reading and writing skills.”

Student-centered learning. The next two participants looked at their teachers’ adequacy from the perspective of using their knowledge, skills, and expertise to create language practice opportunities. The
first participant praised the teacher, who devoted considerable time to help students speak in a context where practicing speaking opportunities are relatively limited: “I liked the teacher who gave us the freedom to speak.” The next participant described his teacher’s teaching creativity and innovation and believed it affected students’ speaking as an important social skill that can facilitate achieving academic success, finding a white-collar job, and engaging in inter-lingual communication: “My teacher used a variety of teaching methods and approaches and helped us improve our speaking.”

The next three participants, nevertheless, addressed oral presentations as a student-centered approach to ELT and a contributory factor to their spoken language improvement and motivations and an effective strategy, which compensated for the relatively limited time available for practicing speaking in an EFL context like Oman. The first participant spoke in general terms about oral presentations as a good practice and believed they helped her improve: “The oral presentations helped us improve a lot.” The next participant associated the relevance of oral presentations with the frequency of presenting leading to expanding the target language practice time: “The oral presentations were useful. The teacher gave us a chance to present three times.” The next two participants related oral presentations with the highest language level she reached at the LC, which prepares students to join their undergraduate courses where English is the language of science and technology and academic success leading to employability: “I learned from the oral presentations, especially in Level 6.” Interestingly, the next participants went as far as saying that oral presentations were the only source and most common practice of helping students to improve their lexical repertoire and practice speaking and that oral presentations helped prepare students for their undergraduate courses: “Oral presentations were the only outstanding aspect of preparing them for their credit courses, as they helped us acquire new vocabulary and speak without fear.”

The following set of participants looked at student-centered learning from the perspective of supplementing the mandated textbook and compensating for some of the poorly designed and produced textbooks discussed in the previous section. The first participant looked at the advantages of supplementing the textbook from the point of view of expanding the students’ theoretical and practical knowledge about the technical terminology they are likely to encounter and need in their subsequent courses since English is the language of science and technology: “The teacher didn’t adhere to the textbook. He helped us acquire technical terminology and gave us the confidence to speak.” The next two participants thought that the aim behind supplementing the textbook was to create more spoken language practice time through using a reading textbook, which illustrates the teacher’s understanding of his/her students’ levels and needs and responding to them accordingly: “The reading teacher helped us develop our conversation and discussion abilities and didn’t adhere to the textbook.” Similarly, the next participant praised his teacher for varying his teaching techniques, catering for his students’ levels and needs, and creating a positive learning atmosphere inside the classroom: “The teacher didn’t rely on the textbook. He used every minute of the lesson to involve us in dialogues. His teaching techniques were very entertaining.”

**Textbook-based teaching.** The following participant thought that in an age where sources of language acquisition are varied and people learn English for multiple purposes, some teachers were textbook-slaves and failed to understand their students’ levels and needs: “Some teachers didn’t care about helping us to acquire the language. They relied heavily on the textbook. Teachers shouldn’t rely on the textbooks.” Another participant criticized the teachers for teaching for the exams, focusing entirely on the marks at the expense of language attainment, and ignoring their students’ needs and interests: “In the FPEL, the teachers weren’t concerned with our language learning in a professional way. The focus was totally on how we could perform in the exams.”
Therefore, this kind of unsatisfactory teaching, according to some participants affected their expectations about the ELT delivered at SQU. Some participants were explicit about their expectations about their teachers’ methods and approaches, which were criticized for being boring and identical to the ones used at school and thus failing to create a dynamic fit between SQU as a higher education academic institution and its environment: “I expected the teaching methods and approaches to be different than what was used at schools. I expected to learn a lot of new things in an interesting way.” Another participant expressed her disappointment and frustration about teachers’ methods and approaches and thought they were teacher-centered and delivery, transmission, and textbook-based: “My expectations haven’t been met because the teachers use the same teaching methods and approaches used at school.” One of the participants expected to improve his listening, but it did not happen: “I expected my listening to improve.” The second participant talked about her speaking expectations, which were not fulfilled: “I expected to be able to speak fluently.” The third participant’s expectations were more related to acquiring writing skills to cope with the English medium instruction courses: “I expected to acquire academic writing skills.” The next participant, however, was relatively more positive than the previous two participants, but still suffered from drawbacks in his language use: “I have improved, but I still can’t speak in public places.” Unlike the previous participants, the last participant expected the FPEL to help him improve his grammatical knowledge of the language: “I expected my grammar to improve. However, the program failed to achieve this goal.”

**Teachers’ adequacy.** Teachers’ adequacy was questioned by a large number of participants who expressed their dissatisfaction with the teachers’ adequacy with each one of them looking at the issue from a different angle. The first participant thought that some teachers lacked teaching experience and practical knowledge to engage students in learning: “Some teachers were knowledgeable, but they couldn’t deliver that knowledge to the students.” Similarly, the next participant thought that his teacher was ill-prepared and not qualified to teach and failed to create speaking opportunities for the students: “My teacher failed to create an interactive atmosphere in the classroom.” The next participant linked teachers’ old-fashioned and traditional teaching techniques with the negative impact they had on students’ motivation and learning: “Some teachers were bad because they never motivated or encouraged me to learn. I felt bored with them because they used traditional teaching methods and techniques.”

A different group of participants were more vocal and critical about their teachers’ adequacy and suggested ways of improving teaching quality at the FPEL to meet the set standards. One of the participants spoke in more general terms about teacher recruitment: “SQU should hire better qualified teachers.” Another participant suggested monitoring and assessing teachers to guarantee better instructional quality at a time witnessing a change in the uses and values of English and the emergence and decline of different teaching and learning theories, methods, and approaches and teachers are held accountable for students’ performance: “Teachers should be monitored and assessed continuously.” A third participant suggested that teachers should undergo in-service training in the challenging and demanding CLT-based era to take responsibility of their own professional development to help understand and meet students’ levels, needs, and preferences: “Training courses should be designed for those teachers to enable them to become more knowledgeable about dealing with the students and supplementing the textbook.”

**Discussion**

In this thematic analysis study, we investigated students’ perceptions of the SQU FPEL offered by the LC. The results revealed that the FPEL suffered from some inconsistencies in curriculum and instruction, which contributed to the generation of certain challenges and limitations in implementing the program. At the heart of these inconsistencies and challenges lied the teachers. The review of the pertinent literature revealed that teachers’ responsibilities at the LC extended beyond teaching. They were involved in the textbooks and tests writing process. However, results showed that some summative tests
lacked different forms of validity and had negative implications for students’ motivations and self-confidence.

In addition, certain textbooks were reported as being boring and silly. Teachers were expected to show more awareness regarding their students’ textbook needs, interests, and preferences to help enhance their motivations and facilitate their learning.

Thus, research showed that textbooks and textbook-based teaching were not popular in the Omani ELT context (Al-Issa, 2007). Findings in this study indicated identical perceptions. Therefore, teachers through their theoretical and practical knowledge were expected to rise to the challenge and supplement the syllabus. The results revealed that teachers who supplemented the syllabus and adopted a student-centered learning approach catered for their students’ needs, interests, and preferences and met their expectations and hence affected their academic, cognitive, educational, psychological, and social aspects, teachers’ roles and practices, and ELT policy implementation at SQU FPEL (Al-Issa, 2017).

An important example was thus the use of oral presentations. Research showed that oral presentations helped students develop their general and generic language acquisition and use, generic knowledge acquisition, critical thinking, decision making, academic skills, and oral presentation strategies (Al-Issa, 2016). Oral presentations also reinforced students’ personalities, motivation, self-confidence and self-esteem while involving them in decisions relevant to course planning, instruction and evaluation, promoted humanistic, progressive and liberal education, and reflected positively on integrating content and language in higher education policy implementation (Al-Issa, 2016). Al-Issa (2016) attributed such success to the teacher’s professional credentials and advanced professional learning.

Moreover, some students were reported as possessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation about learning English and taking personal initiatives and making independent effort to increase their contact with and exposure to the target language. The LC thus provided all the necessary extra-curricular facilities to enhance and support students’ learning. Research showed the importance of language-related extra-curricular activities as they provided a safe learning environment, instilled more confidence, developed a sense of community, created a sense of interaction in a safe environment, helped acquire the target language quickly (Park, 2015). Language-related extra-curricular activities also built and maintained a high level of integrative and instrumental motivation, created the target language environment, explored different cultural issues of the English-speaking countries, developed intercultural competencies and communication, and added more practice and contact hours to students’ language studies, (Reva, 2012).

Additional support for a communicative student-centered language learning environment and empowering and promoting students’ development of “linguistic and communicative skills”, “independent learning” and “team work”, was the Moodle (Al-Busaidi & Tuzlukova, 2013). The Foundation Program English Language Curriculum Document (2012-2013) stated that

Moodle exercises are available to improve a variety of language skills. Students use them along with CALL programmes in their free time. Since effective use of all LC resources is one of the main Study Skills objectives in the FPEL, it is highly recommended that CCs [Course Coordinators] and teachers incorporate e-learning and self study components into their course. (p. 16)

Teachers at the LC, according to Al-Busaidi and Tuzlukova (2013), not only facilitated and moderated the courses on Moodle, which came from the Internet, local media, and local literature, but also developed and integrated some materials which addressed their students’ individual needs and experiences in order to enhance and increase motivation. The two authors thus highlighted the role of teachers as inquirers about their students’ levels and needs prior to material selection and informed selection of materials.
A further example of the extra-curricular activities provided by the LC is the Speaking Club. Research showed that such ELT clubs helped overcome the lack of time and created an appropriate context that facilities language acquisition and learning (Al-Issa, 2012). Students in the ELT club developed their language acquisition, production and practice and reflective learning, and cooperative and collaborative learning (Al-Issa, 2012).

Therefore, despite the fact that the LC provided all the necessary professional development facilities to help teachers advance their ELT knowledge, some of them failed to rise to the occasion as effective agents of change and meet the objectives of the FPEL through planning and delivering effective instruction, designing valid assessment tasks and strategies based upon their students’ levels and needs, and directing and guiding their students to take advantage of the existing resources and facilities to help facilitate their learning and positively reinforce their motivations and self-confidence, which were found integral for success. Teachers at the FPEL should be additionally collaborating and working in teams and sharing knowledge and materials. Nonetheless, some teachers seemed to prefer individual work, which affected their teaching and their students’ learning and led to disturbing policy implementation. Such situation should provide food for thought for the LC about its recruitment policies and the selection criteria set for hiring, monitoring, and assessing English language teachers to ensure providing quality and standard-based ELT education that would potentially meet public confidence, satisfy the GFP national standards, and meet the OAAA required accreditation requirements.

In fairness to the teachers, who come from diverse backgrounds, the policy documents produced by SQU and OAAA failed to achieve alignment between program attributes, unit learning outcomes, and assessment due to a lack of mapping and failure to capture all that occurs in enabling education. The so produced policy documents further failed to identify the enacted, experienced, and hidden curriculum. Teachers coming from different backgrounds vary in their knowledge about the Omani ELT context and thus bring different philosophies, beliefs, perceptions, and agendas to the profession, which have significant implications for policy implementation (AUTHORS, 2007). In fact, this has been the exercise in Oman over the past five decades or so.

Limitations and Future Research
First, since this was a small scale study and since the students did not represent all FPEL students, the findings from the study could not be generalized. Therefore, further research could focus on a wider-scale examination of this issue using quantitative methods or a mixed approach. Second, because we recruited participants with a purposeful sampling method, it was impossible to assess the difference between the students in the study and those students enrolled in the FPEL. Third, the focus of this study was the SQU FPEL, although the review of the pertinent literature showed that other local and international contexts share similar to identical problems with the studied context. A study in the future comparing and contrasting between the FPEL at SQU and other contexts can hence support and extend theory. Finally, other significant stakeholders such as teachers, teacher trainers and educators, syllabus designers and examination officers can be involved in further future studies. An additional source of data can be the different documents used to theorize ELT at the GFP and FPEL levels.

However, regardless of the limitations of the current study, we believe that the findings add to understanding participants’ perceptions toward the FPEL at SQU. These perceptions need to receive attention in order to make progress in assisting students in becoming better English language users.

References


**Appendix**

**Interviews, Focus Groups and Open-Ended Questionnaires Questions**

*Please answer the following questions about the Foundation Program English Language (FPEL) you attended at the Language Centre, SQU.*

1. What were your expectations when you first joined the FPEL?

2. Were these expectations met? If they were, how? If they were not, please explain why?

3. Please tell us about the positive experiences you had when studying the FPEL? Which elements did you like best and you felt they really helped you acquire English?

4. Which elements you did not like and you felt they prevented you from learning English at the FPEL?

5. How did you feel about your English teachers at the FPEL? Tell us about a teacher who was successful in motivating students to learn English?

6. Tell us about a teacher who was not successful in motivating students?
7. How qualified were the teachers who taught you English at the FPEL?

8. How did you feel about the textbooks you studied at the FPEL?

9. How did you feel about the tests at the FPEL? Please explain your answer in detail.

10. How many hours did you spend every day doing independent learning?

11. Upon passing the FPEL, did you feel ready to join your college and start studying content courses?

12. How successful was the FPEL in preparing you for your courses? Please explain your answer in detail.

13. Did studying Mathematics, Computing, and Study Skills help you improve your English in any significant way?

14. What effect did studying Mathematics, Computing, and Study Skills with English have on your English language learning?

15. If you were the Director of the Language Centre, what would you change in the FPEL?
Ubiquitous learning to enhance lab practice

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Abstract
Ubiquitous learning (U–Learning) is a novel environment where physical and digital surroundings represent a rich source of stimuli and a diversity of interaction ways between learners and the educational setting. In this work we present a trial where college students learn how to program a conveyor belt and control board to automatize a production cell by means of the DeviceNet system. In such a setting, experimental group acquires domain knowledge (DK) delivered by a U–Learning system through mobile and pervasive devices, whereas control group follows instruction from professor. The results reveal that even though there was not a training phase, experimental subjects accomplish higher learning in average than their control peers. Thus, the trial provides empirical evidence to suppose people, particularly higher education students, are suitable users of technology enhanced education, due they are able to shift from traditional learning environment to modern paradigms such as U–Learning.

Keywords: ubiquitous learning; technology enhanced education; mobile learning; domain knowledge.

Introduction
When U–Learning empowers classic learning settings (e.g., classroom, lab, workshop, museum,…), they are able to provide immersive learning experiences to students, where the educational environment becomes aware of learners and its physical objects deliver DK content and interact with users. Moreover, these kinds of learning sceneries take advantage of mobile facilities, as well as pervasive devices. But, what does it mean ubiquitous? The term refers to: “Existing or being everywhere at the same time” (Merriam–Webster, 2017). This concept inspires ubiquitous computing, a paradigm defined by (Peng et al., 2009) to claim: “On–demand computing power with which users can access computing technologies whenever and wherever they are needed”. Therefore, U–Learning can be considered as: “A learning paradigm which takes place in a ubiquitous computing environment that enables learning the right thing at the right place and time in the right way” (Yahya, Ahmad, & Jalil, 2010).

As for the educational surroundings, they are distinguished as indoor and outdoor settings. These types shape the learning context where U–Learning activities take place. Particularly, a frequent site to perform indoor learning activities is the lab. In this regard, (Ahmed & Parsons, 2013) report a mobile learning application called “ThinknLearn”, which assists high school students in generating hypotheses during abductive inquiry investigations. Other work studies the use of camera-equipped mobile phone and two dimensions barcode technology as an alternative to computer screen for complementing printed course material (Ozcelik & Acarturk, 2011).

In this work an automatization control lab represents the indoor setting, where engineering undergraduate students learn the DeviceNet system, an open industrial control networking system to connect control devices by data transference (Lei & Djurdjanovic, 2010), to program the performance of a conveyor belt and control board to automatize an industrial cell. Traditionally, the teacher provides the DK to students, as well as develops some blackboard explanations and demonstrations using the conveyor belt and control board. Later on, learners follow their notes in order to develop programming practices under the supervision of the instructor. This educational environment was upgraded by the deployment of a U–Learning system prototype, where DK content was delivered through mobile smart phones. Moreover, quick response (QR) code labels were allocated on the control devices and the physical surroundings to provide hints to advice learners when they use their QR code readers.
The trial shows a superior learning achievement accomplished by experimental subjects that were taught under the U-Learning paradigm in contrast of control volunteers who learned according to the traditional style. Such a difference is relevant when it is considered that experimental participants did not receive any kind of training before being exposed to the digital content, were demanded to use a mobile device and interact with QR readers. In consequence, there is empirical evidence to suppose, U-Learning systems are worthy to be considered as suitable educational environments to take advantage of natural surroundings to improve the students’ apprenticeship.

Nomenclature
DK domain knowledge
QR quick response code
U-Learning ubiquitous learning

Method and materials
This research lays on the scientific method based on models (Humphreys, 2004), which privileges the development of experiments to gather empirical evidence to ground the hypothesis. In consequence, a prototype of the model is built to characterize and deploy the main attributes of the learning setting. In addition, the U-Learning system prototype is inspired in the meaningful learning (Mayer 2002) and the situated learning (Korthagen, 2010) paradigms. Where the former asserts that acquired DK is not only fully understood by the student but also she knows how it relates to prior DK, whereas the later claims: learning is unintentional and situated within authentic activity, context, and culture because it is embedded. Indeed, social interaction and collaboration are essential items of situated learning, thereby learners become involved in a community of practice.

In regards the materials, they correspond to: mobile smart phones, a U-Learning system prototype, QR code labels and readers, and the ubiquitous setting that corresponds to the automatization control lab, shown in Fig. 1a, which holds several conveyor belts and control boards. In addition, DK digital content is authored and organized in a repository of 70 multimedia learning objects (e.g., video, image, sound…). Where such objects are tailored to be displayed on smart phone screens to facilitate user interaction by touch screen events as appears in Fig. 1b.

1.a) Ubiquitous setting, automatization control lab
1.b) DK multimedia learning object

Fig. 1. Ubiquitous-learning setting and a sample of domain knowledge content to be delivered through smart mobile phones

The DK content corresponds to the following three topics: 1) DeviceNet introduction; 2) application of DeviceNet to the conveyor belt; 3) application of DeviceNet to the control board. Whereas, the assessment of such three topics is made as the level achieved by the student for five, one, and one concepts respectively according to the Bloom taxonomy of learning objectives (Manzano, 2001). Thus, such a mastered level corresponds to one of the next instances that are quantitatively and qualitatively identified.
in ascending order as follows: 0 ignorance, 1 knowledge, 2 comprehension, 3 application, 4 analysis, 5 synthesis, 6 evaluation. Thus an open question is attached for each of those six levels to measure the learner apprenticeship. This is why 42 questions are made to learners for estimating their former and later DK. But, for statistical purposes, only the 30 questions corresponding to the five key concepts about “DeviceNet introduction” (e.g., nature, advantages, devices, speed, and transmission scope) are considered. Based on these criteria, three learning measures are fulfilled: 1) knowledge level, is the highest taxonomy level in a row rightly mastered by the learner; 2) basic learning, is the difference of the level achieved at the posttest and pretest; 3) learning gain, is the quotient of such a difference between the complement of the pretest.

**Trial and results**

With the goal to demonstrate the research hypothesis that claims, U-Learning stimulates students’ apprenticeship at least as the in-person paradigm does, a trial was made with 12 subjects. Six of them composed the experimental group, and the remainder the control. The designed experiment embraces the following three stages:

1) pre-test, a quiz about the already identified five key concepts was applied to both groups; 2) stimuli provision, concerning to the three DeviceNet topics during two sessions of 1.5 hours each, where professor instructs control subjects whilst the U-Learning system prototype delivers on-line DK content to experimental volunteers through their mobile smart phones; 3) post-test, a similar exam of the five key concepts about DeviceNet introduction.

The result of the raw assessment is edited in Table 1 and Table 2 for control and experimental groups respectively. In those tables it is shown the quantitative highest taxonomy level in a row rightly mastered by each learner for the five key concepts, $k_c$, as well as the summation of those values reached by a specific learner, who is labeled by an Id, ci or ej. Moreover, the corresponding frequencies estimated for each taxonomy level are presented in Table 3 for both groups, control and experimental, at the pre-test and the post-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Id</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kc1</td>
<td>kc2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Highest taxonomy level consecutively mastered by control subjects for the five key concepts about DeviceNet at pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Id</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kc1</td>
<td>kc2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Highest taxonomy level in a row mastered by experimental subjects for the five key concepts about DeviceNet at pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxonomy</th>
<th>Control Pre-test</th>
<th>Control Post-test</th>
<th>Experimental Pre-test</th>
<th>Experimental Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3. Frequencies estimated for each taxonomy level at the pre-test and the post-test by control and experimental groups
Based on the prior results, the summation of the knowledge level for the five key concepts achieved by control and experimental subjects during the pre–test and post–test are unveiled in Table 4, whilst their corresponding normal distribution plot is sketched in the series of Figures 2 and 3. In addition to such statistics, classic descriptive estimations are calculated for the knowledge level in Table 5 and for the basic learning and learning gain in Table 6.

What is more, in order to test the hypothesis, firstly the significance and the confidence levels are respectively stated as 0.05 and 0.95. Later on, the three kinds of measures (e.g., knowledge level, basic learning, and learning gain) are examined according to the \( t \) test in Table 7, as well as the Pearson's correlation coefficient and the linear regression, whose graph and parameters are unveiled in the series of Figures 4.

**Table 4.** Summations and normal distributions of the knowledge level achieved by control and experimental groups at pre–test and post–test, where exper. means experimental, and distrib. corresponds to distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contr.</th>
<th>C4</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0.15</th>
<th>0.04</th>
<th>e4</th>
<th>0.04</th>
<th>e4</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>e7</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>e8</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>e7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>e1</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e1</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>e2</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e2</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>e3</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e3</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>e3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>c8</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>c6</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>c7</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>c3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.a) Sampling distribution for the pre–test of the control group

2.b) Sampling distribution for the post–test of the control group

Fig. 2. Sample distribution for the pre–test and post–test for control group
3.a) Sampling distribution for the pre-test of the experimental group

3.b) Sampling distribution for the post-test of the experimental group

Fig. 3. Sample distribution for the pre-test and post-test for experimental group

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for the *level of knowledge* achieved by control and experimental groups at pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control: pre-test</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control: post-test</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental: pre-test</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental: post-test</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>14.83</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>6.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Descriptive statistics for *basic learning* and *learning gain* achieved by control and experimental groups at pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control: basic learning</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control: learning gain</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental: basic</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental: learning</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. *T*-test of the post-test measured for knowledge level, basic learning, and learning gain between control and experimental groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of measure</th>
<th>Post-test level</th>
<th>knowledge</th>
<th>Basic learning</th>
<th>Learning gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>14.83</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical difference</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>T</em>-statistic</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>-2.16</td>
<td>-2.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P</em> (<em>T &lt;= t</em>) for one queue</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical value for <em>t</em>, one queue</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H0: there is no difference between means</td>
<td>No: It is rejected</td>
<td>No: It is rejected</td>
<td>No: It is rejected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1: there is difference between means</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
¿| $T$-statistic | > critical value for $t$, ¿| 2.18 | > 1.81? yes ¿| -2.16 | > 1.81? yes ¿| -2.27 | > 1.81? yes
one queue?
¿P ($T <= t$) for one queue < ¿0.03 < 0.05? Yes: it meets confidence range ¿0.03 < 0.05? Yes: it meets confidence range ¿0.02 < 0.05? Yes: it meets confidence range

### 4.a) Knowledge level, where:

$r = 0.91$ for experimental and $r = 0.23$ for control groups

### 4.b) Basic learning, where:

$r = 0.92$ for experimental and $r = 0.98$ for control groups

### 4.c) Learning gain, where:

$r = 0.92$ for experimental and $r = 0.95$ for control groups

Fig. 4. Pearson’s correlation coefficient and linear regression for control and experimental groups, whose plot is respectively drawn in red and blue, where the abscissa represents the pre-test and the ordinate corresponds to the post-test

**Analysis and interpretation of the results**

Firstly, it is pertinent to acknowledge that the sample is small because the limitations of available equipment, only two conveyor belts and three control boards, in the automatization control lab. However the results are significant and provide an empirical idea of the impacts that U-Learning environments are able to produce on learners. Thus in this section an account of the results is given in order to interpret and discuss the outcomes.

In regards the raw evaluations that estimate the mastering level held by subjects of both groups prior and later the stimuli provision reveal that: the subjects of control and experimental groups had similar DK background with just one exception, where $c7$ volunteer achieved the highest score, whereas $e4$ was
ignorant. The fact stands out for learner c3 whose DK only grew from 3 up to 5 in contrast to c8 that learned from 3 up to 14! Before such a big contrast, experimental students’ apprenticeship ranged from 11 up to 13! As for to the frequencies, both groups reveal similar lack of knowledge at the pre–test due their volunteers ignored 18 concepts, whilst at the post–test the frequencies for the higher taxonomy levels, from 3 to 6, are greater for experimental subjects than for control ones!

As for the summations and normal distributions, it is evident that control subjects held a disparate background DK and acquired DK in contrast to the estimated for experimental peers, whose DK is homogenous at pre–test and post–test. Such an assertion is confirmed by the plot sketched for the sampling distribution, where the coefficient of determination of the experimental group unveils a lesser proportion of variance than the one for control group!

In relation to the descriptive statistics computed for the three kinds of measures at pre and post tests the results show that: At the beginning control and experimental groups held similar mean DK, but at the end the difference was nearly 40% more for experimental group than control one. Other advantage for the experimental group concerns to the standard deviation estimated at post–test, where control group deals with a greater one than experimental group. Inclusive the minimum value increases very little for control group than for experimental group! What is more, the post–test mode and the median for control group are lesser than the ones for experimental group. According to these analysis, there is a difference between the means estimated for both groups. This assertion is confirmed by the t–test computed for the three kinds of measures, where hypothesis H0 is rejected!

With respect to the statistical inferential measures, two of them show a greater slope for control group than the one of the experimental group due the high contrast between the achieved levels among its control subjects that is confirmed by the standard deviation. In counterpart, the dispersion area where the values for experimental group are found is narrower than the corresponding are shaped for control group!

The interpretation of such results is summarized as follows: The kind of stimuli provided by the U–Learning system prototype to experimental subjects produced a higher and more homogenous learning than the one acquired by control volunteers, due: 1) their minimal values for the three measures are greater than the ones reached by control peers; whilst the maximum value is quite similar; 2) the mean estimated for experimental group is greater than the one obtained for control group; 3) the standard deviation calculated for experimental group is lesser than the one observed for control members.

Conclusions

Even though the statistical inferential measures show a light higher learning tendency for control group, the central tendency and variability measures are more favorable and balanced for experimental subjects. That means, that a U–Learning setting produces a better learning accomplishment for the whole group than the one reached by a traditional learning environment. Moreover, as the experimental volunteers were not trained before the trial, in some sense they faced an initial handicap because they were not accustomed to such kind of U–Learning experiences.

In consequence, these empirical results encourage to continue the research and development of U–Learning settings in order to enhance traditional learning environments and take advantage of technology enhanced education advances. Particularly, those concerned with the recreation of authentique U–Learning sceneries.

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References
The interconnection between future engineers’ professional mobility in higher school social and cultural environment

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Abstract
The modern social and economic situation actualizes the personality professional educational problem, the initiatives and competent, corporate, professional and mobile preparation in higher school. Today, the professional mobility determines the higher school social and cultural environment concept and the future ecologists’ involvement degree. The higher school social and cultural environment main aim (for example “English club”) is to prepare a not only intelligent, creative and professional mobile, but also independent, initiative person who can quickly adapt to all changes and his careers change. The theoretical and methodological foundations of the practice-oriented concept are unity of the theoretical and methodological approaches for the future ecologists’ professional mobility development process in higher school social and cultural environment that define a strategy and tactics of this process organization. For the scientific level, I choose a systematic approach, for the concrete scientific level - an integrated active, regional and competence approach; for the technological level - a problem project approach. The foundation of the practice-oriented concept of future ecologists’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment presents laws and principles. The theoretical and methodological approaches have served us as the basis for the provisions of laws. I have determined three laws and three groups of connected principles.

Keywords — professional mobility; social and cultural higher school environment; concept; higher school youth association; systematic approach, organizational pedagogical conditions.

Introduction
The modern social and economic situation actualizes a personality professional educational problem, the initiatives and competent, corporate, mobile specialists’ development in higher school (Spector, 2014). Today, the professional mobility determines the higher school social and cultural environment concept and the future engineers’ involvement degree. In social and cultural higher school environment, we can use such mechanisms as mutual support, responsibility, and control for the development of characteristics such as the professional mobility and others.

Various forms of social and cultural higher environment (for example “English club”) extend the social and cultural integration conditions and present the socialization "secondary institutions". In my opinion, the social and cultural higher school environment is one of the most important areas for future graduates and has a great potential for the professional mobility development. One of the aims in higher school social and cultural environment is a graduate preparation for life.

The social and cultural higher school environment includes youth associations school (Yaroshenko, 2013). The higher school social and cultural environment main aim is to prepare a not only intelligent, creative and professional mobile, but also independent, initiative person who can quickly adapt to all changes and his careers change.

Research objective
The main idea of this research is the thesis that the future engineers’ professional mobility development is an important structural and conceptual component of the social and cultural environment system. This ensures a scientific basis development of social and cultural activities in the professional mobility field and leads to the practical experience in solving this problem in higher school social and cultural environment.
The research objective is to develop the conceptual foundations and to implement the practice-oriented activities in the future engineers professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment.

In order to achieve this objective, it is necessary to resolve the following research tasks consistently:

- Support the historical and pedagogical analysis of the conceptual and terminological problems for the future engineers’ professional mobility in higher school;
- Description of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school as a basis for practice-oriented activities;
- Determination of the theoretical and methodological approaches to investigating the future engineers’ professional mobility in higher school;
- Concept development of the future engineers’ professional mobility in higher school includes a methodological basis, the conceptual and terminological apparatus, laws, principles and a conceptual system;
- Organizational and technical support for the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school;
- Implementation of the practice-oriented activities in the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school.

Methodology description

The most important approaches to my analysis of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school are a systematic approach to the research subject analysis, an integrative approach to the teaching process organization, a competence approach in the personality education, a regional approach in a particular region, a problem-project approach.

Theoretical and empirical research methods are to solve the research tasks and to examine the assumption. Theoretical methods: analysis (sociohistorical, theoretical and methodological, conceptual and terminological), comparison, interpretation, theoretical modeling, generalization. General empirical methods: educational experiment, expert opinions, mathematical methods of data processing. Private empirical methods: observation, testing, surveys, questionnaires, interviews; psychological diagnostics.

Problem statement

I consider the professional mobility as a complex integrative phenomenon that includes the sociological, pedagogical and psychological components. A number of authors in their explorations on the professional mobility phenomenon provide common definitions of this phenomenon (Balikaeva, 2015), (Nuzhnova, 2010) and etc., consider sociological aspects of professional mobility.

The literature analysis on the future engineers’ mobility development in higher school helped me to define the conceptualization of "professional mobility."

In summary, on the base of philosophers, educators and psychologists views and the own experience of theoretical research, I consider the professional mobility definition as an integrative quality in the production conditions on the basic components of professional culture covers (key competencies and qualifications) and professional competence (high intelligence, creative skills, professionalism). This reflects in their ability to move horizontally and vertically on the social professional structure of society and to change a social, economic and professional (including status) position. This captures the motivational, cognitive, competence-based, operative, active components, reflecting a certain level of general cultural, general professional skills and competencies.

The mobility development basis can be the youth associations’ activity in higher school social and cultural environment and represents as an extension and deepening of the general cultural, general professional and professional competences.

As a system phenomenon, professional mobility presents a unit of functional and structural components. Functional components characterize the relationship of the personal aspect (motivation component) and the professional aspect (cognitive oriented and operational active components).
Structural components are general cultural, general professional and professional competences. These competences reflect the qualification requirements for future engineers’ education and skills in this profession. Thus, a future engineers’ activity is a personality structure formation by general cultural (GC), general professional (GPC) and professional competence (PC). The future engineers’ competences or professional personal characteristics form an integrated system. The social and cultural environment is a human environment and an integrating system of conditions for the personality development. The social and cultural environment is a reality for life and human development.

I consider a higher school social and cultural environment as factors to improve a level of future engineers’ mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment. The theoretical analysis of factors groups influence the future engineers’ career mobility in higher school social and cultural environment and can have four main groups: pedagogical, psychological, educational, social and economic factors. The analysis of the works on the future engineers’ professional mobility development may identify some effective ways of their development in higher education social and cultural environment. They are various possibilities of vocational counseling, forms and other types of production tradeshows, organization of psychological professional group training and other forms of practical teaching aimed at the formation of future engineers’ mobility various elements.

For my problem analysis of modern youth there are different definitions "youth". In the approaches of Russian and foreign authors are defined significant differences and the causes for a misinterpretation of this term. The analysis showed that the basis for an interpretations variety of youth as a category with the concrete historical conditions. This conveys a special importance for young people in different historical phases of social development, which determine a social and cultural subject activity of the youth. The term "youth" has appeared in the days of antiquity (Aristotle, Plato, Seneca and others) and is associated with the advent of young people in the age groups associated with the division of labor. In modern society, the interpretation of this concept includes many factors. For example, UNESCO identifies youth as a major advancement of society and as a subject of social reproduction. The higher school youth association is a leisure organization form in social and cultural student environment. It involves a voluntary association and common interests of young people for the needs of social cultural activities.

High school social and cultural environment includes: student government; amateur creativity (associations, interest groups, student distribution); art and entertainment events (festivals, parties); events for health and fitness (sports clubs, competitions, tourism); additional training (courses, optional subjects, clubs at the chairs such “English club”), additional qualification); voluntary work; enlightenment (meeting with interesting people, concerts, tours); professional orientation. The theoretical and methodological foundations of the practice-oriented concept are unity of the theoretical and methodological approaches for the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment define a strategy and tactics of this process organization. The application of a systematic approach allows us to consider the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment as an integrated, uniform system. The principles of the system approach in the research of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment serve as a prerequisite for the promising directions development of the process development. In my research, a systematic approach considers the professional mobility as a system, determines the components of the system elements and underlines the system features: the presence of the aim and its link with all components.
The systematic approach basis is an object consideration as a system. The object integrity is a part or element of a higher school system.

In this case, all components of the future engineers’ professional mobility development process in higher school social and cultural environment are in direct and reverse relationship. Therefore, a systematic approach is the process as a highly organized, coherent education system; a set of process components as a whole system; the conditions of this process realization as an education system; its relationship; the place of the research process in the higher school social cultural environment, and especially in the higher school youth associations.

The use of a systematic approach is the explanation of the ordered concept and its experimental control. For the most effective theoretical basis in research of the professional mobility, different aspects there are the four major theoretical approaches elements. I choose the systematic approach for the research subject analysis, its description and interpretation; an integrated active approach - for the teaching process organization in the continuing education system;

A competence approach gives an assessment of professional mobility through a series of specific competences;

A regional approach makes it possible to solve the future engineers’ professional mobility problem in higher school, taking into account the specific social economic and social cultural factors of a region;

A problem-project approach is a learning strategy in terms of mobility development that combines a combination of optimal reproductive and creative student activities.

Each of the above approaches reflects the various aspects of the multi-faceted phenomenon as a professional mobility that shows the professional mobility factors.

The most important research approaches analysis helps to determine the conceptual basis constructs of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment.

The foundation of the practice-oriented concept of future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment has laws and principles. The theoretical and methodological approaches have served us as the basis for the provisions of law. I have determined three laws and three groups of connected principles.

The first law - the future engineers’ professional mobility development aim in higher school social and cultural environment is determined by the requirements of the modern society, a dynamic sphere of the production taking into account the long-term economic development and the specific professional activity.

These principles follow from these laws:

1. The objective principle in pedagogical research has an aim and task. The objective of the research process is to develop the future engineers professional mobility in higher school youth associations by their integration into an activities multitude of higher school social cultural environment. The outcome of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in the higher school youth associations I could compare with the planned result and evaluate the special criteria. In this way, it is possible to determine the degree of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment.

2. The principle of continuity. The continuity is a sequence of every form in a dialectical relationship with the preceding and in accordance with the usual conditions and aims. The principle of continuity is a cross-sectional characteristic. The principle of continuity requires the achievement of the common learning objective based on the conceptual approaches in the requirements for the level and content of their theoretical and practical training.

The second law - the effectiveness of future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment is determined by the developmental level of general cultural, general professional and professional competences.

The following principles follow from this law:
The principle of integration determines the future engineers’ professional mobility development strategy in higher school social and cultural environment, an interactions and complex form of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment.

The principle of professional orientation includes the selection of the teaching material for practical application in the future specialists activity and in order to obtain the necessary information in the future engineers’ professional mobility development process in higher school social and cultural environment. This allows the specialists to participate in international programs that show professional mobility and competitiveness on the international labor market.

This principle is a major didactic prerequisite for the motivation of all educational activities for the organization and implementation of the education process. The principle of professional orientation shows the future engineers’ professional mobility development process, for example, in the youth association "Workshop of future engineers in the English language" creates a foreseeable professional reality.

The principle of complementarity (optional) is an elimination of opposites by complementing opposites. Niels Bohr formulates this principle. The principle of complementarity realizes in the various forms of training in the higher school social and cultural environment.

The third law of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment is that the professional mobility development depends on motivation technology in student activity. The activity motif is an interest in professional activity and professional mobility development.

This principle follows the following principles: the principle of feedback; the principle of interactive learning (professional mobility development through experience); the principle of individualization.

The concept implementation represents the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment. It presents the integration of the components and characterizes determination, continuity, complexity and dynamics: aim component, diagnostic and design component, motivation and promotion component, content component, organization and activity component, evaluation and diagnostic component.

The future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment - a necessary set of basic components (objectives, approaches, principles, etc.) to create an organized, targeted pedagogical influence on the development of professional mobile ecologists.

The main objective of the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment is to create favorable conditions for this system with different levels of professional mobility, which reflects a level of the formation of common cultural, general professional competences.

The system-relevant factor is an objective. The main features and possibilities for the realization of the individual components were determined based on the following levels of pedagogic research: methodological, theoretical, and technological.

The aim component of the research process includes social needs, purpose and tasks. The up-to-date mobility of the future ecologists in higher school social and cultural environment determines the social need to prepare the future mobile ecologists. Social needs for mobile professional ecologists - a reflection of the interests in the activities of higher school.

Participants are higher schoolteachers, students - future engineers and their parents, a higher school are as a social institution, representatives of society and employers, industrial enterprises, a region, a state.

The systematic tasks of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment concretize the aim of this process with the structure consideration and the conceptual content of the "professional mobility". I distinguish the following groups of research tasks: the creation of positive motivation in higher school social and cultural environment for the future specialists; the development of general cultural, general professional competences.
The aim component of the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher social and cultural environment has the technical requirements for technical specialists. The function of this component is to determine the outcome of the educational interaction. The awareness of the educational aim determines its analysis of the first data and the formulation of pedagogical diagnosis. Diagnostic and design component of the research process includes entry-level diagnosis of the future engineers’ professional mobility and this feature development in higher social and cultural environment. The function of this component is a data analysis and a design summary of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher social and cultural environment. The motivational and stimulating component reflects the relationship between the developments of future engineers’ internal motives. The course content component is the responsibility for all the specific and general pedagogical principles. The function of this component is its role as the subject of the activity of the teacher and the student, its practice and the leadership development means. This component contains the principles and contents of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher social and cultural environment. The assessment and diagnostic component includes the examination and evaluation of the research results. This component fulfills an analytical and productive and correction function. The formation and development of competences (the structural components of professional mobility) begin in the first year of the university, and the development of the individual characteristics there is in all study years. Four levels of the future engineers’ professional mobility development there were in higher school social and cultural environment: preliminary, design and development and result level. All components are equivalent, so their simultaneous implementation into the education process.

The effectiveness of the developed system depends on a complex of organizational and educational conditions. The system’s organizational and pedagogical conditions are a series of measures in the social and cultural environment in higher school. They are close to the factors, which have a direct influence on the level of future engineers’ professional mobility development. It is a group of social and cultural conditions creates a system of coordination and social partnership within the university with an innovative pedagogic environment and international cooperation; the group of the scientific and methodological support conditions of the future engineers’ professional mobility development. The proposed social and cultural conditions always have features of the complex because it characterizes the completeness (the conditions complement each other and affect the different components of the research process.) The necessity of the conditions is justified by the theoretical analysis and in the course of the experimental work. Thus, the concept expresses the nature and content of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher social and cultural environment. All of its sections (general regulations, conceptual framework, basic principles and foundation), the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment, and organizational pedagogical conditions for its application are above.

Literature review
The category "mobility" has been studied in pedagogy relatively recently, but it is widely used in a number of scientific disciplines: psychology, educational philosophy, Economy; vocational education and training (Tran, 2017) and others. The origins of the professional mobility development problem stem from the phenomena of the labor and social movements division. The mobility problem in the professional activity area stems from the need of human beings for the professional activity new conditions through the processes of their differentiation and integration. Many philosophers, sociologists, psychologists, and educators expressed the ideas for education new forms, which are oriented towards the skill development of the expert for creativity and innovation in education activity.
The philosophical approach basis to the professional mobility development problem was the works of Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, A. Shuts, Sheller and others, where the scientists discovered the essence of the category "mobility" in the light of the basic dialectics laws. An important role in the mobility understanding also plays the dialectical law of unity and struggle of opposites. This law determines the movement source and the objects development, processes and phenomena. The development of the category "mobility" passed through the technology revolution: preindustrial, industrial, postindustrial, modern development stages of technology.

The following stages of the professional mobility development problem are identified in the science history: Stage I - "Origin" (V - XIII century); Stage II - "Formation" (XIV - XVIII century); Stage III - "Dynamization" (XIX - XXth century), Stage IV - "Modern Phase" (the end of the XX - beginning of the XXI century).

In my modern perspectives analysis, the different approaches presence was determined in the problem analysis of the future engineers’ professional mobility development. This shows its multifactorial, versatility, causes a scientists’ interest on the psycho-pedagogical, educational and social aspects of the phenomenon.

Key results
Experimental verification of the effectiveness of the system implementation of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment and organizational educational conditions took place in the Tyumen state university of architecture and civil engineering. Since 2003 to 2015, 255 students of the technical directions and 45 university teachers, 25 specialists of construction companies were involved in the experiment.

The experimental phase was concerned with the definition of the objective criteria for assessing the effectiveness of the system's implementation of the progress and results of the future engineers’ professional mobility development process in higher school social and cultural environment(for example "English club"). In selecting the criteria, I have based on the definition and structure of professional mobility. We have defined the following criteria and gradients: motivation (social, cognitive or pragmatic motivation, degree of interest); the cognitive criterion (completeness and system character of the common cultural, methodological knowledge) and activity (accuracy and independence of the ongoing measures.)

Taking into account these grades, three levels of professional mobility has high, medium and low levels. The research object was students from 1-4 courses.

A control group (KG - 31 students) and three experimental groups (EG1 - 34, EG2 - 35, EG3 - 32 students) were formed by the students in the technical direction.

The analysis of the data shows that the majority of students in the fifth year of studies have a high level of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment. However, in the experimental group, this grade is higher than in the control group. The Reason is the implementation in the experimental groups the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment, the organizational and educational conditions.

The analysis of the results determines the Pearson test (χ²) by the formula (1), which is the sum of the deviations in the square of the experimental results to the initial values before the experiment, based on the results obtained.

\[
\chi^2 = \sum \left(\frac{O - E}{E}\right)^2
\]

(1)

n1 - the group of the students.

In the comparison of the control and experimental groups according to the criterion of Pearson, the following data were the control group and the experimental group 1 - χ² = 7.9984; the control group and the experimental group 2 - χ² = 8.5650 and the control group and the experimental group - χ² = 14.2548.

The statistical analysis and processing of the results showed that the implementation of the future
engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment and a complex of the organizational and educational conditions successfully developed the professional mobility in higher school social and cultural environment. The differences between the results in the control and experimental groups are statistically significant for all components, which confirms the hypothesis.

Conclusions
The research scientific novelty is the problem solving in the conceptual foundations of the future engineers’ professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment (for example “English club”) The future engineers’ professional mobility concept in higher school social and cultural environment is developed and justified; It covers the general provisions, the conceptual apparatus of the theoretical and methodological foundations and the basis; the future engineers’ professional mobility development system I have carried out in practice at higher school social and cultural environment; The integration of the components is characterized by the unity of the aim security, complexity, continuity, dynamics: aim component, diagnostic and design component, motivation and promotion component, content component, organization and activity component, evaluation and diagnostic component; The complex of organizational pedagogical conditions promote effective implementation of the future engineers’ professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment. There is (a) a group of social and cultural conditions creates a system of coordination and social partnership at the university innovative educational environment and international cooperation, b) a group of the scientific and methodical support conditions of the future engineers’ professional mobility development. In summary the research tasks are solved the aim is achieved.

Literature:

Summary. The modern social and economic situation actualizes the personality professional educational problem, the initiatives and competent, corporate, professional and mobile preparation in higher school. Today, the professional mobility determines the higher school social and cultural environment concept and the future engineers’ involvement degree. The higher school social and cultural environment main
aim is to prepare a not only intelligent, creative and professional mobile, but also independent, initiative person who can quickly adapt to all changes and his careers change. The theoretical and methodological foundations of the practice-oriented concept are unity of the theoretical and methodological approaches for the future engineers' professional mobility development process in higher school social and cultural environment (for example "English club") that define a strategy and tactics of this process organization. For the scientific level, I choose a systematic approach, for the concrete scientific level - an integrated active, regional and competence approach; for the technological level - a problem project approach. The foundation of the practice-oriented concept of future engineers' professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment presents laws and principles. The theoretical and methodological approaches have served us as the basis for the provisions of laws. I have determined three laws and three groups of connected principles.

The implementation of the concept is the future engineers' professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment. It presents the integration of the components: aim component, diagnostic and design component, motivation and promotion component, content component, organization and activity component, evaluation and diagnostic component.

The future engineers' professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment - a necessary set of basic components (objectives, approaches, principles, etc.) to create an organized, targeted pedagogical influence on the development of professional mobile ecologists. Thus, the concept expresses the nature and content of the future engineers' professional mobility development in higher school social and cultural environment. All of its sections (general regulations, conceptual framework, basic principles and foundation), the future engineers' professional mobility development system in higher school social and cultural environment, and organizational pedagogical condition
The Higher Achiever Students’ Strategies in English Learning

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Abstract
Learning strategies are one of the factors that are of importance in learning a foreign language. They could affect the learners’ achievement in the learning process which could be divided into the high achiever and low achiever. The aims of this study are to know the learning strategies and its role in high achiever students’ achievement and what we can take advantages of their strategies. This study meets mixed method research which is a combination between the quantitative method that refers to the statistical analysis and qualitative method which refers to the descriptive analysis. The results of this study show that high achiever students used all six categories of learning strategies style by Oxford (1990). The frequency scale is in medium to the high category; this means that they used it sometimes or always. Based on the frequency and popularity, metacognitive strategies are placed as most frequently used (M=3.99), while memory strategies placed at the last with medium scale (M=3.10). It is also found that learning strategies take a role in high achiever students' achievement by affecting their way of thinking and motivation.

Keywords: Learning strategies, high achiever students

Introduction
Learning English cannot be avoided due to the fact that there are more people learning English either as a second language or as a foreign language. In Indonesia, there are so many education agencies put English as their mandatory lesson from elementary school until high school. The importance of English also put English as one of the requirements in the workplace. Learning English means that learner must mastered four skills in English before, such as listening, writing, speaking, and reading. This statement also in line with Oxford (1990: 5) whose point out that learning English necessarily involves developing four modalities in varying degrees and combinations: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. These modalities are known as the four language skills. If we look into the dictionary, the term skill can be simply explained as the ability, coming from one's knowledge, practice, aptitude to do something well. In the learning process, not all learners are able to develop their skill. Some learners face difficulties in a learning process to develop their skill while other learners learn a new language more quickly and easily than others although they studied and are guided by the same teacher. Based on their achievement, learners are divided into high achiever and low achiever. Travers (1970: 447) stated that achievement is the result of what an individual has learned from some educational experiences. A high achiever learner is a person who knows what it takes to be successful in school and is willing to put in the time and effort. They are also known as a good language learner. From the explanation, it can be assumed that learner who is successful in school is likely to be a learner who gets a high score or passes the standard which is determined by the school. Rubin (1975) claimed in her pioneer work that the “good language learner” has a strong desire to communicate, is not afraid of making mistakes in order to learn and communicate, is an accurate guesser, is looking for language patterns, creates opportunities for speaking, and monitors his/her own learning.
To be successful in understanding four major skills in learning language, learners need to take more responsibilities for their own language learning and personal development. Learning strategy is one of the factors that help determine how well the learner in learning a language. Oxford (1990: 1) considers language learning strategies as the “steps taken by learners to enhance their own learning”, and later she elaborates on the term by referring to “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques, such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragements tackle a difficult language task used by students to enhance their own learning.” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992: 63). The learning strategies will guide the implementing of the methods and approaches (Bin-Tahir, 2012; Fatahuddin, et al, 2017). It is also to determine the appropriate techniques and tactics to be used by the teachers in managing classroom activities that consequently affect the success of the language teaching and increasing learners’ achievement (Tahir & Hanapi, 2017; Salikin, et al., 2017)

Based on the writer’s observation to some students of English Department, Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Jember, there are the high achiever and low achiever students and to study the strategies that are used by high achiever students is quite interesting. In this case, the study involves high achiever students of English Department Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Jember of the academic year 2014-2015 who have already taken the reading, speaking, listening, and writing class. This study is aiming at: a) Measuring what learning strategies that high achiever students apply when learning English as foreign language, and; b) Exploring the way how learning strategies play roles in high achiever students’ four language skill achievement.

Nomenclature

A Abstract
B Keywords
C Introduction
D Literature Review
E Method
F Results and Discussion
G Conclusion

Review of Literature

Learning strategies concept is important in learning a language because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence (Oxford, 1990:1). The basic term of strategy comes from the ancient Greek word \textit{strategia} which means generalship or action taken for the purpose of winning a war implies characteristics of planning, competition manipulation, and movement toward a goal. Similarly, the strategy concept also can be interpreted as a plan, step, and a conscious action toward the achievement of a goal in non-military context. While in education, the warlike meaning of \textit{strategia} has fortunately fallen away, but the control and goal
directedness remain in the new world. This concept has taken on a new meaning and it has been transformed into learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Around the 1970s, there are so many definitions of learning strategies, so that there is no single technical definition of them. Griffiths (2008: 83), points out that “the concept of language learning strategy has been difficult to define”. Although it is difficult to define, Rubin (1975:43) initiated language learning strategies by defining it as “techniques or devices that a learner may use to acquire knowledge”. Furthermore, Cohen (1998) points out that language learning strategies are “processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in actions taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language” (1998: 4). While according to Chamot (2005: 112), “strategies are most often conscious and the goal has driven especially in the beginning stages of tackling an unfamiliar language task. Bin-Tahir (2017: 74) defined the strategy as an internal cognitive or affective action taken by the learner or teacher to learn both simple and complex material. Once a learning strategy becomes familiar through repeated use, it may be used with some automaticity.” If we look closely to the definition of learning strategies concept, we may find the general consistent feature like conscious, action, and goal. In summary, language learning strategies can be assumed as conscious action towards the achievement of a goal.

Some experts classified learning strategies into some classification. Stern (1992) classifies language learning strategies into five categories. There are management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal, and affective strategy. In addition, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) combines three components in a language learning strategies model like metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective. While this study uses Oxford’s learning strategies types. Oxford’s (1990) model, as regarded by Brown (1994), is one of the most useful manuals of learner strategy training that currently available because her taxonomy which distinguishes between direct and indirect strategies is both comprehensive and practical. Oxford’s (1990) model consist of two main strategies, they are direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are the strategies that directly involve the target language. Direct strategies are further divided into three categories which consist of memory related strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. While indirect strategies are those that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language which is also categorized into three categories that are metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. There are six strategies which are derived from these two strategies:

2.1. Memory strategies
Memory strategies, as suggested by Oxford (1990) reflects principles such as arranging things in order, making associations, and reviewing, which all involve meaning. Memory strategies help learners establish their mental by linking all the information through images, sound, words or numbers. Memory strategies have a highly specific function like helping learners to store and retrieve new information. The examples of memory strategies: Grouping, associating, placing new words into a context, using imaginary, semantic mapping, using keywords, representing sounds in memory, structured reviewing, using physical response or sensation, using mechanical techniques.

2.2. Cognitive strategies
Cognitive strategies refer to the learner’s mental process to accomplish a certain goal for performing specific tasks such as summarizing or reasoning deductively. It enables learners to understand and produce new language by many different means.

The examples of cognitive strategies: repeating, formally practicing with sound and writing system, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, practicing naturally, getting the idea quickly, using resources for receiving and sending messages, reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, translating, transferring, taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.

2.3. Compensation strategies
Compensation strategies indicate that learners know what they already knew and utilize their acquired knowledge to fill in the gap of unknown information by guessing the clues from the context. The examples of compensation strategies: using linguistic clues, using other clues, switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting and approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym.

2.4. Metacognitive strategies
Metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process (Oxford, 1990). Metacognitive strategies allow learners to coordinate the learning process by using functions such as centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. It allows language learners to control their own cognition.

The examples of metacognitive strategies: over-viewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, delaying speech production to focus on listening, finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating.

2.5. Affective strategies
Affective strategies help learners to manage their emotions, motivations, and attitudes during the stages of learning. Brown (1994) reveals that the affective refers to emotion or feelings both about oneself and about others with whom they usually contact and communicate. The examples of affective strategies: Lowering anxiety, encouraging yourself (such as making positive statements, taking risks wisely, and rewarding yourself), using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing the feeling with someone else.

2.6. Social strategies
Social strategies help learners to learn through interaction with others. Social strategies include the actions which learners choose to take in order to interact or cooperate with other people and they are important in language acquisition because language involves other people and is so heavily involved in cooperation and asking questions for clarification (Oxford, 1990). The examples of social strategies: asking for clarification or verification and correction, cooperating with proficient users of the new language, developing cultural understanding, and becoming aware of others’ thoughts and feelings.

Language Learning Strategies are used by high achiever students to get a high achievement. Language learning achievement or proficiency has been consistently linked to strategy use, and the general pattern is that increased success is linked to greater strategy use. It has been observed that some language
learners are more successful than others in terms of language proficiency. Some individuals appear to be more endowed with abilities to success while the others seem to lack those abilities (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996). Successful learners make use of learning strategies to learn and that the learning strategies they use are different from less successful ones. Rubin (1975) asserts that good language learners are willing and accurate guessers who have a strong desire to communicate, and will attempt to do so even at the risk of appearing foolish. Good language learners are highly motivated to communicate and attend to form and meaning. She distinguishes successful learners from the rest, stating while all learners use learning strategies, successful learners learn how to use them effectively and are able to plan their learning approach, monitor their success, and modify their approach as needed and that they recognize whether their learning strategies are effective or not.

Learning process can’t be separated from students and their achievement. Evan, et al (1992) defines achievement as “how well you have done”. Kaura & Sharma (2015: 504) also adds the explanation of achievement as the students grasp of somebody of knowledge or proficiency in the certain skill. It means that achievement can be interpreted as the result of the study. In Universitas Jember, the result of the study is represented in the alphabet to classify how well they have done as it is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The standardization of the assessment with the score (0-100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alphabet</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Score scale</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>≥80</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>75≤ AB &lt;80</td>
<td>Very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>70 ≤ B &lt; 75</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>65 ≤ BC &lt; 70</td>
<td>Good enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60 ≤ C &lt; 65</td>
<td>Enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>55 ≤ CD &lt; 60</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50 ≤ D &lt; 55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>45 ≤ DE &lt; 50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>&lt;45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Buku Pedoman Akademik Fakultas Ilmu Budaya, Universitas Jember, 2016)

Method
This research uses a mixed method as it deals with quantitative and qualitative methods. Qualitative research is the research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical
procedures (Mackey and Gass, 2005:162), while quantitative is a type of research that uses quantification data and some sort of numerical analysis (Mackey and Gass, 2005:2). For quantitative data, the questionnaire is used in this study. The questionnaire is adopted from Oxford (1990) that is Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 for EFL/ESL without any modification. Furthermore, the qualitative data in this study is derived from the interview. SILL questionnaire is the most extensive questionnaire for obtaining information on the language learning strategies of subjects and is frequently used in studies worldwide (Ellis, 1994). SILL questionnaire consists of 6 parts which have 50 close-ended statements eliciting the participant’s frequencies of strategy use in learning English. The first part includes 9 statements related to memory strategies. The second part includes 14 statements about cognitive strategies. The third part consists of 6 statements about compensation strategies. The fourth part has 9 statements about metacognitive strategies. The fifth part involves 6 statements of affective strategies, and at the last, sixth part consists of 6 statements on social strategies. The questionnaire applies a Likert type 5-choice response format: 1 (never or almost never true for me), 2 (usually not true for me), 3 (somewhat true for me), 4 (usually true for me), and 5 (always or almost always true for me).

All high achiever students from academic year 2014/2015 who have already completed Reading Comprehension 04, Speaking 04, Listening Comprehension 04, and Writing 04 at English Department, Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Jember participated in this research. High achiever students are the students who have excellent scores or pass the standard with the highest value according to the school’s standard. According to Buku Pedoman Akademik (2016) the Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Jember, there are nine scores in the alphabet (A, AB, B, BC, C, CD, D, DE, E) which represent learner’s quality or achievement in the learning process. The highest score in Universitas Jember is represented in alphabet A or >80 in scale number and the highest Grade Point Average (GPA) in Universitas Jember is about 3.51-4.00. Among 78 students, there are 9 students who fulfill the criteria to be the participant in this research: 7 females and 2 males.

First, data analysis was meant to answer the first question of the research about the kind of learning strategies that high achievers apply when learning English. The data was derived from SILL version 7.0 questionnaire designed by Oxford (1990) which was distributed to all participants. The questionnaire was collected after the participants had completed answering the questionnaire. The answer to the questionnaire was analyzed using SPSS version 17 to find the mean score. The mean score which is indicated above or equal to 2.50 were identified as the learning strategies that frequently used by high achiever students.

After calculating and obtaining the result of the questionnaire, the next step is giving an interview for the participants to get more information of their language learning strategy use in the learning process. Semi-structured interview uses a list of questions to limit the conversation with the interviewee but some questions can be added and these additional questions should maintain on the right track. Although the interview seems formal because it needs the list of questions but the interviewer still can develop the answer freely as stated by Dornyei (2009) that “the format of semi-structured is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate the issue”. With this type of interview, the interviewer needs to prepare the list of questions, while the interviewer is still possible to ask the question out of the list in the process of the interview later. The advantage of the semi-structured interview is that the answers are open-ended. By giving the interviewee a chance to speak more deeply could be very possible. The interview is recorded in order to get the qualitative data, and then the record of the interview is transcribed. The transcription of interviews analyzed and compared with the result of quantitative data.
to know whether the qualitative data support the quantitative data. This step helps to prove the existence of learning strategies’ role in high achievers’ achievement. The last step is interpreting the whole data to answer the research questions and representing the result of the analysis.

**Results**

The frequency of learning strategy can be directly determined through the total score of SILL from all high achiever students who participated in this study. Oxford (1990) provides a score scale to measure the frequency of strategy use from high frequency until low frequency, as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Oxford’s Scale Showing the Frequencies of Strategy Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5 to 5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5 to 4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5 to 3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.5 to 2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.0 to 1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples of how your references should be listed are given at the end of this template in the ‘References’ section, which will allow you to assemble your reference list according to the correct format and font size.

High usage is defined as a mean item score from 3.50 to 5.0, medium usage is defined as a mean item score of 2.5 to 3.4, and low usage is defined as a mean item score of 2.4 and below.

The findings of this study show that high achiever students tend to use language learning strategies in the learning process. Their frequency use of learning strategies is medium and high. The mean score of each learning strategies are above or equal 2.50. The frequency used for high achiever students’ learning strategies used is shown in Table below:

Table 3. Mean of Overall Strategy Use across All Participants Ranked by Mean Usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data from the current research participants (n = 9) have been statistically analyzed using SPSS software version 14. The mean overall strategy use for all participants was 3.56. Metacognitive strategies had the highest overall subscale mean usage (M=3.99), followed with compensation strategies (M = 3.97), and cognitive strategies (M = 3.69). While, in medium frequency use there are social strategies (M=3.47), affective strategies (M=3.18), and memory strategies with the lowest subscale mean (M=3.10) among six learning strategies. Based on these result of the questionnaire, it is found that high achiever students use all learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1990), at least medium frequency.

**Discussion**

The first discussion relates the learning strategies applied by high achiever students in learning process. The discussion for each language learning strategies arranged in descending order.

5.1. Metacognitive strategies

The most frequently used strategy by high achiever is metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are the actions which provide a way for the learner to coordinate their own learning process, as told by Oxford (1990). The utilization of metacognitive shows in Table below.

Table 4. Frequency Distributions of Metacognitive Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>LLS descriptor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I pay attention when someone is speaking English</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>I think about my progress in learning English</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>I try to find out how to be a better learner of English</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>I look for people I can talk to in English</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I have clear goals for improving my English skills</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the mean of each strategy in metacognitive strategies, high achiever students admit that paying attention is the strategy that they use regularly in the learning process. Most of the participants choose to sit in the front seat to pay attention more than their friends. Sitting in the front seat gives students many advantages, like getting more information, motivating them to keep concentrate in the class, and can be acknowledged by the lecture.

Followed in the second place, “I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better” is also frequently used. The result with mean 4.44 suggests that high achiever students learn from their mistakes and make sure they do not redo the same mistake in the future. High achiever students are willing to monitor and take note of any mistakes made in their learning process. While another very popular metacognitive strategy is “I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English”. It actually proves the definition of high achiever students proposed by Rubin (1975). High achiever students have a strong desire to communicate and make a progress of their own learning. Based on the interview, some of the participants recognized that it is hard to use their English. Despite they are studied in English Department, they still regularly use Javanese to communicate with each other. For high achiever students, doing a practice is really important to increase their skill so they try to find a lot of ways to practice, like a monologue or taking a famous line from a movie or TV shows spoken in English. Another way to practice is from reading which is also a popular strategy that chosen by high achiever students.

To be successful in understanding four skills in L2, learners need to take more responsibilities of their own language learning and personal achievement. High achiever students take responsibilities of their own personal achievement and find out how to be a better learner of English and look for the opportunities to make use of their English.

High achiever students also point out that motivation is really needed in the learning process. It makes them motivated to reach the goal of the learning process. When learners keep the goal of their learning, they also keep an eye on the progress. For the learners, especially high achiever student, progress can be an important thing to improve their skill. While planning a schedule placed as the strategy of
metacognitive strategies is not too popular among high achiever students. Some of the participants point out that making a schedule do not certify that they will follow the instruction in the schedule.

5.2. Compensation strategies

Compensation strategies take a place as the second frequently used strategy among high achiever students in this study. Compensation strategies itself enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge, which are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar, and especially of vocabulary (Oxford, 1990). The table below shows the utilization of compensation strategies in this study.

Table 5. Frequency Distributions of Compensation Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>LLS Descriptor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>If I can’t think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing</td>
<td>4.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>When I can’t think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I read English without looking up every new word</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I try to guess what the other person will say next in English</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table above, high achiever chooses to use circumlocution or synonym if they cannot think of an English word. This substituting strategy is really useful even in the first language communication. Using circumlocution or synonym means that learners must have a lot of English vocabulary. Although this was a good substituting, not all learners can use it. Placed below this strategy is guessing strategy. Here, high achiever students may pretend that they understand what is being said by another person in English, while at the same time learner will guess from the overall context. It is also a quite useful strategy because at the same time learners will achieve new words indirectly. Besides the use of circumlocution and guesses, another very popular strategy in compensation strategies is “When I can’t think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures”. This statement suggests that using a
gesture or body language is a one of very useful strategy, especially in communication (speaking skill). Learners usually use gestures to freely express themselves in speaking English when they do not have a choice to express the forgotten word. For high achiever students, this strategy is the third option to express the unfamiliar word or forgotten word.

At the last rank of the compensation strategies are to making up the new words if they do not know the right ones in English. At this point of view, high achiever learners are afraid about the consequence of making up new words. They admit that making up a new word is not really a good strategy since it can trigger misunderstanding in communication. The other reason, making up a new word can make them shy if another person knows that they are making up a word because of the lack of knowledge.

5.3. Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are one of the strategies that highly frequently used by high achiever in this study. The utilization of cognitive strategies can be seen in Table below.

Table 6. Frequency Distributions of Cognitive Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>LLS Descriptor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movie spoken in English</td>
<td>4.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I practice the sound of English</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I try not to translate word-for-word</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I try to talk like native English speakers</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I read for pleasure in English</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I say or write new English words several times</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I use the English words I know in different ways</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>LLS Descriptor</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I start conversations in English</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I try to find patterns in English</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following the table above, the most popular cognitive strategy was watching English language TV shows or going to the movie in which the dialogues are in English. This is not only popular among cognitive strategy but also popular among all six types of strategies. All the participants in this study agreed that it was the best strategy to learn English for all learners. Learning from the audio visual is fun and doesn't need much time to do it. This does not only improve their listening skill but also practice the speaking skill and add new vocabularies. They also add that listening English song also the way to practice their listening and speaking skill like the movie. In the second position, high achiever students do practice the sound of English. They admit if high achievement does not come instantly, it needs a lot of practice. Taking notes, messages, letters, or reports in English also categorized as one of many ways to practice their English. Indirectly, learning English makes they initially have a desire to write or speak English. The last ranked strategy from cognitive strategy was making a summary. High achiever students do not regularly make a summary of information that they hear or read in English, they usually are repeated by themselves in memory. Making summaries is not really an effective strategy because it wastes the time.

5.4. Social strategies
As a social creature, the writer already expects that social strategies would be frequently used not only by high achiever students but also by all learners. In this study, high achiever used social strategies at medium scale and they do not always use it. High achiever students’ utilization of social strategies can be seen in Table below

Table 7. Frequency Distributions of Social Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>LLS Descriptor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>I try to learn about the culture of English speakers</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The highest ranked strategy chosen by high achiever students was “I try to learn about the culture of English speakers”. High achiever students assume that student who chooses English Department has an interest in English. When someone is interested in something, they will learn about it. This situation also happens when someone is interested in English; they will also learn the culture the language. This strategy relates to the reason why watching movie spoken in English chosen as the best strategy so far. The other strategy that regularly used by high achiever students was “If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again”. This strategy has a close relation with compensation strategies such as guessing, particularly in regards to speaking and writing which as stated earlier that guessing took the highest rank in compensation strategies. When high achiever students do not understand something in English, they have two options to choose. In one hand, some of the participants choose to guess the context, while the rest choose to ask. On another hand, some of the high achiever students made use of both these guessing or asking strategies when they did not understand something in a conversation. The answer was different depending on the situation and the person who was speaking to them. Sometimes, it might be more appropriate to guess so that the conversation could flow without interruption, while at other times it was better to ask in order not to have any misunderstanding in conversation.

In the opposite, the strategy to ask helping and the correction from English speaker is not really popular with mean 2.78 and 2.67. The reason is that high achiever students rarely meet the native speaker of English in Jember, especially in the Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Jember. It seems impossible to ask the help and correction from the native speaker. The other reason is, high achiever students do not have this strategy as their option when communicating with the native speaker of English.

5.5. Affective strategies
In this study, high achiever students use affective strategies to manage their emotions, motivations, and attitudes during the stages of learning. Affective strategies usually used to reduce any negative effects caused by stress and anxiety. The frequency used for this strategies are in medium scale (M=3.18). The frequency distributions of students’ utilization of affective strategies can be shown in Table below.

Table 8. Frequency Distributions of Affective Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>LLS descriptor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistake

I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English

I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English

I give myself a reward to treat when I do well in English.

I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English

I write down my feeling in a language learning diary

High achiever students have a mindset that it is okay to do a mistake. Motivation is really needed if they want to improve their skill. But, as a learner who learns English, high achiever students admit that they feel anxious and stress when using English although they got a good achievement in the learning process. So, encouraging is really needed if learners want to make a progress on their learning process. That is why the top three strategies are encouraging themselves, relaxing, and noticing whether they are nervous or not.

Giving a reward and talking to someone else about the feeling is a strategy with medium scale out of affective strategy. High achiever assumed that they are not always rewarding themselves when they do better than the expected. High achiever students do proud of themselves in several situations. They also point out that they only talking about their feeling to someone else when they feel anxious.

The last ranked strategy among affective strategies is writing down the feeling in language learning diary. High achiever students admit that they do not usually write a diary even in the first language. Using diary is too old fashioned in this era of technology. People nowadays prefer to write down their feeling or activities through social media rather than write it in the diary. In the interview section, only one out of the total participants write the feeling in language learning diary. With language learning diary, the learner can monitor the improvement or the progress in the learning process and this strategy actually is very useful.

5.6. Memory strategies
In this study, high achiever students use memory strategies on the lowest scale. Even though memory strategies placed last, the frequency of use is still medium with mean 3.10. High achiever students used memory strategies to store new information in memory and retrieve it later, as can be shown in Table below.

Table 9. Frequency Distributions of Memory Strategies
The table above shows the frequency of distributions of the memory strategies used by high achiever students. In term of the popularity of each LLS descriptor, the results show that the most frequently used memory strategies are those related to associating and creating mental linkages, like “I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English”. High achiever students try to associating what they have with what they get in the learning process. While strategy “I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them” shows that high achiever use their knowledge whenever they have a chance.

As mentioned before that progress is an important thing for high achiever students, reviewing can be one of the ways to monitor the progress in the learning process. While to make a progress, high achievers do connect the sound of a new English word and an image or the picture of the word to or try to remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
Another memory strategy deemed unpopular is the use of flashcard. “I use flashcards to remember new English words” strategy is not only being the lowest frequency used strategy among memory strategies but also among all strategies. Refer to the answers in the interview section; it can be assumed that the reason behind this less popular strategy is the lack of functionality for learners. High achiever students do not find flashcards is useful for intermediate students.

To answer the second questions in this study, the researchers did an interview. In the interview section, the writer also asked about learning strategies role in their high achievement. It is found that some of the high achiever students admit that learning strategies take a big role in the learning process. When they are asked further, they say that without learning strategies they might not get a high score. Learning English in the environment where there were only a small number of people who speak English makes learner does not have much chance to develop their skill. Therefore, to make and create a chance itself, high achiever students need a strategy. Not only for high achiever students, it is possible for learners who are not listening to the teacher in the class or do not taking a lot of notes in the learning process to get a high score. There are many strategies to increase skill in English. With learning strategies, high achiever students assumed that they can easily manage their achievement. Besides learning strategies, high achiever students also point out that motivation is needed to make learners know and remember the goal of their learning process.

Conclusion
Based on the data used (questionnaire and interview), this study is able to answer the two of research questions in this study.

The first question is to know the learning strategies that high achiever students apply in the learning process. The data are from the transcription of SILL questionnaire. Based on the result, high achiever students use all learning strategies in medium scale until high scale which means that the frequency is sometimes to always. The order of learning strategies’ frequency used in descending order are metacognitive strategies (M=3.99), compensation strategies (M=3.97), cognitive strategies (M=3.69), social strategies (M=3.47), affective strategies (M=3.18), and memory strategies (M=3.10). Based on the micro-strategy for each category, the strategy that involves audio visual like movie, song, or news is the best strategy to increase their four skills in English. In the opposite, strategy with using flash cards placed last. High achievers admitted that flash cards are not really effective. Generally, flash cards only use one vocabulary for one card, and it seems to be effective for children who start learning English, not for intermediate students.

The second question relates to the first question, in which to know the role of learning strategies in four English skills achievement. The data are from the transcription of the interview. Learning strategies (memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies) play a big role in the learning process. First, learning strategies are used to manage the progress of goal achievement. Second, learning strategies are used to decrease the difficulties in the learning process. At the last, learning strategies can increase the confidence of high achiever students.

References


Discursive acts embedded in English RPs’ introductions of a non-Anglophone academic discourse

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Abstract

Driven from discourse analysis framework, this paper focuses on the discursive acts in introductory parts of English research papers (RPs) by Turkish authors in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) to expand the discussion about the scientific rhetoric in non-Anglophone academic discourses. By following qualitative paradigm, the rhetoric in manuscripts was elaborated by drawing on interview-based study of 2 referees and 5 editor/referees’ accounts of the issue and contrastive rhetoric analysis of two ELT research paper (RP) corpora by Turkish researchers and Anglophone researchers. In this regard, the accounts of referees and editor/referees and the chi-square values of the differences between two corpora broadly related to raising issues regarding: i) the strength of introductions in accomplishing theoretical research foundation and the reflection and argumentation in terms of evaluative perspectives, ii) the research justification through the discussion of specific reasoning, and iii) the unity and connectedness between/within paragraphs. These matters suggest that the acts noticed in opening sections of English ELT manuscripts by non-Anglophone Turkish authors seem to function just indexing the previous works done, and so the rhetoric involved in these acts is of little depth in succeeding situating the manuscript into the relevant research domain.

Keywords: A non-Anglophone Academic Discourse; Discursive Acts; English Language Teaching; RPs’ introductions

Introduction

Contextualization of academic texts, particularly research papers, is a critical issue for delaminating knowledge in a scientific manner and intelligible way to the relevant audience for accomplishing welcoming position through academic platforms. In this respect, the manipulation of rhetoric devoted to the status of English linguicism and the norms of this trend has been regarded as a central player in accomplishing recognition just considering English as the international line of academic dialogue. Besides, it seems that many academic discourses warrant this position and recognize the implementation of the rhetorical rules instilled in their products (Buckingham, 2014; Clyne, 2002; Dahl, 2004; Martin, 2003; Mauranen, 1993; Moreno, 2004).

However, the uniqueness of the rhetoric and, especially, the sine qua nons of English conventions have, at the same time, called for more efforts for those from peripheries in “situating the texts in wider context for recognition” (Kanoksilapatham, 2005, p. 283). Here, changing, challenging, or adapting the established academic convictions of the non-Anglophone contexts they come from arguably drive these efforts. Besides, these members of peripheral discourse communities are also required to ‘write in

\textsuperscript{1}This study is based on part of the doctoral thesis “Rhetorical Construction of English Language Teaching Research Articles in Turkish Context: A Genre-based Discourse Analysis”, supervised by Assistant Prof.Dr. Savaş YEŞİLYURT at Ataturk University
disciplinary approved ways as a means of demonstrating their acculturation into the field (Hyland, 2013, p. 250). Here, the sort of tasks or rhetorical acts that are expected to accomplish seem to be challenging for many because of the identified functions and communicative codes—compulsory and optional ones—embedded in each part of an academic research paper. In this regard, years of studies since the groundbreaking work of Swales (1990) and the insightful contributions of other scholars (Brett, 1994; Kanoksilapatham, 2003, 2005; Kwan & Chan, 2014; Nwogu, 1997; B. Samraj, 2002, 2005; Yang & Allison, 2003) have provided sample models of text segments with defined “social rhetorical acts” (Miller, 1984)—the ones commonly expected in a straightforward research paper genre—on the basis of discursive dynamics across certain scientific platforms. Over these models and following contrastive rhetoric analysis frame, scholars have issued various corpora of manuscripts produced by non-Anglophone researchers and Anglophone ones produced in English and local languages to argue the sort of specified constructions rooted in accomplishing “the relationship between rhetoric and context of situation” (Miller, 1984) (Ahmad, 1997; Alotaibi, 2013; Fakhri, 2004; Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001; Loi, 2010; Sheldon, 2011).

For local productions written in native tongues, considering the situated acts of the discourses working to fulfill the needs of their own communities, cultural overlaps and contextual traces are the obvious remarks to make. In this respect, these context-bound acts of peripheral discourses are commonly observed especially in the opening sections of manuscripts. Presumably, researchers are entrusted with drawing such inferences from the data by basing them on evidences from the non-English versions of introductions by non-Anglophone scholars. Actually, introductory parts from texts of non-English products have been extensively studied in the fields of ESP and EAP so now numbers, figures and texts would easily permit easy generalizations of how far the social actions are from the logic and values of Anglophone content manifested. Still, there are also some sample texts, though written in a native tongue, showing rhetorical affinity to the basic tenets of Anglophone generic system. The most prominent example of this sort would be Chinese texts, on which Loi (2010) argues the observed effect of global trend, that is English linguicism, and its norms on Chinese scholars’ text editing. As for the other parts of research papers, a huge body of research has addressed English texts published in English-medium journals (Basturkmen, 2012; Kanoksilapatham, 2003, 2005; Kwan & Chan, 2014; Lim, 2006; Nwogu, 1997; Pho, 2008; B. Samraj, 2005). The facts and statistics collected about these sections evidence the running social actions, which are established, or contextualized rhetoric so it would be possible to discuss those texts, more specifically, relevant parts as globalized ones based on rules of thumb of English linguicism. In this regard, those acts turn out to be self-fulfilling prophecies because of the platforms, where the aforementioned texts are displayed, expecting the rhetoric to be as it should be.

Considering that the ideological course of Anglophone academic system now seemingly needs to be adopted by all EAL scholars seeking publication in English context, little attention has been, however, paid to peripheral English participation, or, English texts produced in peripheries. Compared to the work about native tongue publications and English manuscripts of celebrated journals, English texts produced in peripheral contexts have received relatively little attention. Sheldon (2011) studied introductions of 54 research articles (RAs) including 18 RAs in English L1, 18 RAs in English L2, and 18 RAs in Spanish focusing on the discourse practices employed in these three RA sets over Swales’ CARS model (2004). It was found that RAs in Spanish showed cultural traces while the discourse practices in English L1 corresponded to the ones displayed in Swales’ scheme. As for the RAs in English L2, the
results indicated that the rhetoric in introductions appeared to run parallel to the generic framework of the model. By using a thematic coding framework developed over the quality criteria set by international journals, Jaroongkhongdach, Todd, Keyuravong, and Hall (2012) conducted content analysis on two corpora of RAs written in English including 100 articles by Thai academics and 100 articles from five international selected journals to assess the quality differences of certain sections (literature review, methodology, discussion) between two corpora. It was found that among three sections, discussion and, particularly, literature review of Thai academics’ articles showed clear differences in ratings in terms of justification, awareness, and coherence. By means of these findings, they discussed the poorer quality of the Thai ELT manuscripts compared to the higher ratings of international ELT texts by emphasizing that it would be all but impossible for the articles rated poorly to be welcomed for international publication.

While these studies are important in underlining the sort of acts akin to rhetorical codes of English linguicism and the localized ones featuring the contexts, more studies are needed to highlight the features of English texts produced by other non-English speaking discourses. And, these studies may register the sort of distinguishing patterns formed in the English texts of non-Anglophones and thus demonstrate how different acts are performed in English products separate from English conventions or discuss how the acts are joined to the so-called conventions. At this point, regarding Turkish academic context, little attention was paid to how the moves in English scientific products are substantiated, especially in the fields covering English studies (e.g. English language teaching, linguistics, literary studies, translation studies). Probably because, given the scope involved with scientific domains, there are levels of textual organization for authors which ineluctably intersect with the mentioned English linguicism and its principles. But, here the questions should be designed to elicit information about whether these pieces of works are really constructed to the favoured frame. Among these pieces, research papers have been the regular analysis tools of researchers seeking to locate the generic structures prompted by either contextual habits or universal rules because research papers could provide more space for writers to elaborate on several rhetorical acts.

Therefore, in the present study attempting to address the gap in the literature regarding English studies in Turkish context, more attention will be paid to research papers by Turkish researchers. Here, the researcher intends to move on discourse analysis framework with a pragmatic presumption of bending of alternative paradigms through multiperspectival approach (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002). On this basis, this study is driven from two basic impetuses. Theoretically, the rhetorical operation and, thus, discursive formulas embedded in the English texts of Turkish researchers would be described, which may set the grounds for further studies to expand on the non-Anglophone academic discourse of Turkish context to see how the authors organize their papers or the types of mechanisms welcomed and/or performed. Pedagogically, the evaluative discourse of the referees and editors, where they manipulate their critical voice by discourse strategies such as criticisms, recommendations, negative evaluations, requests and complements (Betty Samraj, 2016), might work as useful discourse toolkits for non-Anglophone authors seeking ways to build sophisticated and recognized structures in their texts. Thus, in an attempt to extend the scope of discourse studies on non-Anglophone contributions beyond the bare focus on corpus analysis and certain contexts, this study will look for answers to the following questions through reporting referees and editors’ comments about the introductory parts of ELT manuscripts by Turkish authors and deepening the issue of non-Anglophone products over contrastive rhetoric analysis:

1) What sort of rhetoric do referees and editors remark in English RPs’ introductions of ELT manuscripts in non-Anglophone Turkish academic context?
2) What are the prevalent discursive acts in the introductory parts of ELT RPs performed by non-Anglophone Turkish academic discourse?

Methodology

Interview and data collection procedure

Referees and editors to take part in this study were recruited by stratifying the sample (ELT editors and referees in Turkish context) randomly and purposefully on the basis of the parameters defining the demographic and academic background of academics embedded in an online survey, and also by asking informants “to refer the researcher to other participants” (Merriam, 1998, p. 63) to take part in the study. By contacting the candidate informants at ELT departments of universities in Turkey through an online survey, eliciting information from the statistics and consulting some informants recruiting probable informants, the cooperation of 7 informants (2 referees and 5 referees/editors) were eventually secured. These informants mainly represent the characteristics of three main strata having statistical majority: (i) editors and referees, the sub-strata of whom are Referees (58.9%), Referee/Editors (16.43%), and Editors (6.8%); (ii) the sort of journals they work for, the two main sub-strata of which are referees and/or editors of national journals (10%) and those of both national and international ones (40%); (iii) the number of articles they edit or review per year, the sub-strata of which covered four types of article editing/reviewing counts ranging from 0-5 research articles to more than 15 research articles. In this third stratum, deviating from the sampling system in the first two strata, editors and/or referees were not sampled by the weight of percentage. Indeed, the main factor used to represent the importance of each stratum was the weight of work-load truly offering a great way to expose editors and/or referees to not only contextual but also individual discourses, and so the manifoldness. Therefore, two sub-strata, reviewing/editing of 10-15 research articles and reviewing/editing of more than 15, were the conclusive evidence of sampling.

The qualitative interview was selected as the data collection methodology for this study because it is ideal for “capturing direct quotations about people’s personal perspectives and experiences” (Patton, 2002, p. 40) to deepen understanding about real-life situations and emerging cases. However, to avoid any off-topic information but also to accomplish flexibility in probing into the rhetoric in manuscripts, the interview format of this study was semi-structured (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002).

In this regard, interview questions were systematically developed by constructing well-informed questions generating from the quintessential works (Bornmann, Herich, Joos, & Daniel, 2012; Bornmann, Nast, & Daniel, 2008; Bornmann, Weymuth, & Daniel, 2009; Bruce, 2008, 2009; Flowerdew, 2001; Mungra

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1. Among 70 referees and/or editors completing the online survey on the kinds of rhetorical patterns faced in ELT manuscripts by Turkish authors including demographic questions.

2. To sort out the discursive acts exactly, the sub-stratum of both national and international journals played a decisive part in sampling referees and/or editors because the systems specified for each journal type would likely shape the conception of discourse.

3. The percentage distribution of editors and/or referees by the frequency of article editing/reviewing per year is 37% editors and/or referees editing/reviewing 0-5 articles per year; 38 editing/reviewing 5-10; 15 editing/reviewing 10-15; 10 editing/reviewing more than 15 articles.
& Webber, 2010; Pérez-Llantada, Plo, & Ferguson, 2011; B. Samraj, 2005; Sheldon, 2011; Yang & Allison, 2003) with an expert auditing by caring the focus of the study (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002); avoiding yes-no questions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) and especially leading ones (Merriam, 1998); piloting; modifying, adding and eliminating questions and probes. Throughout the process, the reliability and validity analyses were iteratively conducted to demonstrate that the questions could be intelligible enough for eliciting in-depth knowledge about the contexts (that is, the language and knowledge constructions over experiences, social world understanding, pragmatic concerns, setting) integrated in the rhetoric of manuscripts. In this regard, besides long-period of question construction and piloting the questions with an ELT referee of national and international social science and education journals, the authenticity of the questions was also established by ensuring authentic data regarding the rhetoric in English chemistry education articles by Turkish authors with interviewing with an editor/referee from Chemistry Education Department. Each pilot interview was analyzed by the researcher, transcribed and coded, using the course of qualitative data analysis from Creswell (2005) and (Patton, 2002). The emergent segments and categories of each transcription were cross-checked by seeking the common and deviant codes, with the final coding scheme comprising 9 shared categories. Here, the researcher acknowledges that for reliability checking a systematic coding through inter-rater reliability tests with two or more raters would be more satisfactory and, in a way, this study would seem to fail in achieving a reliability score through the study of multiple coders on the verbatim accounts of editors and referees. However, although such systematic coding is , on the one hand, heavily discussed to enhance the reliability by some certain experts (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002), there are arguments against the checking of codes using inter-rater reliability tests emphasizing the probable conflict across different stances each coder would have on the other hand (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, & Marteau, 1997; Smagorinsky, 2008).

The entire interview process lasted from 25 to 40 minutes, and all the interviews were digitally recorded with use of two devices simultaneously, a voice recorder and a smart phone, in case of any possible technical problems. The detailed information about the interview schedule can be found in Geçikli (2016, pp. 70-88), where the researcher provided a fuller account of the process including coding and analysis of the results. For the purpose of the present paper, the data provided by the editors and referees for the rhetoric issue of introductory parts in manuscripts of Turkish ELT academics were the main focus. Briefly to mention, the researcher asked editors and referees a number of questions directly related to the sort of discursive acts operated in ELT RPs by Turkish academics within their own academic context. For instance, the researcher asked informants whether they encountered any typical rhetorical patterns in various sections of the manuscripts of non-native English speaking Turkish authors. The researcher also asked informants whether they characterized a culture-specific organization within the generic structure of Turkish authors’ research articles.

**Corpus and data collection procedure**

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*Discourse-rhetorical features, authorial voice, nativized varieties, parochialism, lexis and grammar, writing/presentation, section content, overall discourse structure (cultural reflection)*
The corpora of the study were compiled from research papers to the parameters such as genre, form, mode factor, channel factor, temporal factor, language code, journal, etc. put by scholars of English for Academic (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) with a concern of accomplishing to have two separate but comparable corpora by moving on the principles of contrastive rhetoric framework (Atkinson, 2000; Bruce, 2009; Burgess, Gea-Valor, Moreno, & Rey-Rocha, 2014; Connor, 2002; Moreno, 2003, 2004, 2008; Nwogu, 1997 among others). In this regard, contrastive rhetoric provides more space to open further discussion on not only cross-cultural variations but also contextual features of local discourses. After a longitudinal study of screening manuscripts within Turkish and Anglo-American contexts, the data to be used were a corpus of one-hundred fifty RPs, seventy-five of which were by Turkish ELT academics and the other seventy-five from the academics of Anglo-American contexts (see Geçikli, 2016, pp. 55-60 for details). To get more stable and valid results with a credible comparison between two corpora, the content analysis framework developed by Jaroongkhongdach, et al. (2012) to assess quality in ELT articles was used.

For the analysis of corpora, one of the non-parametric tests, chi-square analysis, was administered using IBM SPSS 23 package programme. In this respect, the reasoning behind the decision for the use of chi-square analysis was two-fold. Firstly, the coding scheme used in collecting qualitative data was in nominal form constructed with categories in which specific type of aspect could be counted to set frequency (see Jaroongkhongdach, et al., 2012 for the coding scheme). The last but not the least, there was a need to compare the counted frequencies in each rhetorical category between Turkish and foreign articles with expected frequencies (fE) that the frequencies of codes would be expected to be the same (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

Findings and Discussion

**Introductions as rhetorically the most problematic sections in Turkish academics’ RPs**

In this part, the researcher will address the research question aiming to elicit the remarks of editors and referees on rhetorical aspects within the introductory parts of Turkish academics’ manuscripts by presenting the major themes they emphasized answering the interview questions. To this end, the following part will be arranged on the basis of the thematic structure of interview data editors and referees provided for the questions examining rhetoric issue in the ELT manuscripts’ introductions constructed by Turkish researchers.

3.1.1. **Lack of strength regarding theoretical research foundation**

Here, editor/referees and referees frequently addressed Turkish authors’ weakness of these parts in achieving the ultimate function to meaningfully and rationally ground the study in the relevant literature and establish the specific reasoning for the research on the basis of assessment or the reflection of authors on the studies and the context with consideration of the gap and raising issues:

E/R3: Many Turkish writers also find it difficult to state the importance of their research. They are not always able to indicate gaps in the literature, and they may have difficulty explaining how/why their work is significant. For example, in an introduction, they may state that “This study aims to find out...” but fail to follow up the aim of the study by expressing its importance/expected contribution. Likewise, in a literature review, they are often unsuccessful in drawing attention to areas that have been overlooked.

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1 Two raters with ELT background and informed about the content analysis framework coded corpora separately. Then, inter-coder reliability was checked through percentage agreement, and the overall agreement measured is 83.56%.
and need further study, or in pointing out flaws in existing research. For instance, Turkish writers may argue that their work is significant simply because no such studies have been carried out at their institutions; they are not able to demonstrate any potential practical or theoretical contribution beyond their particular context or explain its significance to the wider community.

In this regard, it would seem that introduction parts of Turkish academics’ research papers seem to share common points with the those of several manuscripts from peripheral researchers, or in other words, from other non-native speakers of English (Ahmad, 1997; Fakhri, 2004; Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001; Sheldon, 2011). Then, when examining introduction samples from Turkish context over the Swales’ CARS model (1990; 2004), Turkish authors would apparently have some challenges establishing research niche, or colloquially, performing Move 2 of the CARS. Actually, such move demands a well-established background by clearly stating the previous works and their weaknesses. Therefore, researchers should know the relevant literature basically concerning their research problem and how this literature fails in addressing the research problem. Then, here, regarding Turkish academics’ introductions, there appear two issues. The first one is linked to the establishing research territory, or in other words, presenting relevant works before discussing gaps. Accordingly, editor/referees implicitly argued the lack of authorial voice, which they refereed was “the lack of argumentation” or “critical evaluation”, indeed. In this regard, the role or argumentation to strengthen the study was clearly put by many with the note that they could not see any in the texts.

3.1.2. Lack of research justification through the discussion of specific reasoning and Lack of reflection and argumentation in terms of evaluative perspectives

Some of previous studies point out that the lack of argumentation or authorial voice is a cultural feature (Fakhri, 2004; Jogthong, 2001). On this basis, considering Turkish culture, it could be argued that a kind of criticism avoidance seems to be relevant for Turkish academics, as well. This is also a kind of pragmatic act and it could be considered as a discursive strategy, maybe, to keep a positive face for recognition by scholars. But, for Turkish academics, what is commonly observed in those parts is, as Hyland (2002a) puts, a dilemma in terms of “a credible representation of themselves and their work” (p. 1091) rather than a discursive strategy. However, it is essential to note that this is just an assumption about Turkish academics’ case and the researcher believes that corpus linguistics-based studies are essential to see whether the avoidance of argumentation is a cultural issue or a kind of metadiscourse strategy by focusing on the frequency of certain lexico-grammatical elements. Overall, the rhetorical organizations of these parts, editor/referees and referees expressed, tended to cover just listing the studies actually:

E/R1: And it is not only, you know, summarizing... This is what I can see in most of the research studies conducted by Turkish authors... When they are writing literature review they just summarize, which is wrong... To me, writing a literature review is not just listing the studies conducted in the field that you are working on, you need to have a ... you need to make a link and you need to develop an argument... So basically writing effective literature review is not only listing the articles. There should be some more arguments developed. There should be sort of more links, you know, between the research itself and the literature review. That is what I don’t see in most of the research papers in Turkish studies. They mostly list the studies... I would like to see more developed arguments there.

The other emerging issue related to introductions is mostly concerned with authors’ awareness of the literature and awareness of the link expected to be established between research questions of the study and the relevant aspects of that literature. In this sense, it is possible to question whether the
academic background of researchers is put into practice because both academic writing and research methods courses seemingly enlighten novice researchers and, the experienced ones. Moreover, editors and reviewers’ reports have similar functions. At this point, the previous literature clearly shows that the knowledge acquired through instruction is transferred to the scientific products (Dovey, 2006; James, 2006, 2010), and so it seems that this is not the case for Turkish researchers. Nevertheless, it would be too risky to surely claim this; therefore, further investigations, especially, experimental ones are needed to instantiate that Turkish academics do not transfer knowledge to their texts.

3.1.3. Lack of unity and connectedness between/within paragraphs

Regarding introduction section, also, one editor/referee specifically pointed out the problems about the unity of the whole text by discussing the “choppy series of paragraphs” that are not well-connected or coherent:

E/R3: ...In the literature review section of a paper, Turkish authors often have difficulty in creating smooth transitions between topics/sub-topics. This can result in a choppy series of paragraphs that are not well related and do not create a logical flow of thought.

In this sense, it would appear that Turkish academics do not effectively use the linguistic tools to form a jointed body in introductions. In terms of connectors preference, Carrio-Pastor (2013) discusses the effect of target audience, styles of writers, and the linguistic background of authors (p. 200). Among these, considering the question of coherence and cohesion regarding introductions in the papers of Turkish researchers, the effect of writers’ styles could be supposed to be one reason. In this regard, Basturkmen and von Randow (2014) point out that the means of language are employed due to the pragmatic concerns of the writers in terms of guiding their readers. In addition, discussing writers’ efforts to make texts coherent, Basturkmen and von Randow (2014) specifically emphasize the reader issue as the key factor of making texts coherent through meaningful interpretation and understanding of texts. Then, back to Turkish researchers and their introductions, it could be argued that writers’ styles or the ways to use connectors seem not to function as they are expected by their readers, or in other words, editors and referees. So, the texts of Turkish academics have seemingly a chaotic organization.

Additionally, the disjointed structure of introductions may very well be linked to the linguistic background of writers. Indeed, the sensible use of connectors would be probable if their functions could be accomplished according to the normative standards of English language. Thus, it is possible to doubt about Turkish researchers’ competency in the intelligible use of those connectors to develop logical and consistent texts. To add, despite being competent enough about the functions of those connectors, still Turkish researchers could not achieve logical flow because this also demands the mapping of cognitive components into the texts, and if these components are not systematically linked in the cognitive schemata, then it is difficult to get a meaningful whole. Therefore, the researcher also believes that for coherence writers should also cohere the elements of texts cognitively before transferring these elements into texts, which seems the main problem of Turkish researchers.

Discursive acts in ELT RPs’ introductions of non-Anglophone Turkish academic discourse

The differences in the rhetoric of introduction parts between the corpus of Turkish academic discourse and that of Anglo-American one are presented in Table 3.2.1. This table shows the frequency of articles of each corpus for which a relevant category was rated low, medium or high, and the chi-square value of the differences between two corpora for those ratings. Here, as the main concern of this study is to put the discursive acts in ELT RPs’ introductions of manuscripts by non-Anglophone Turkish academics, Anglo-American corpus is associated with the probable criterion for Turkish one which is, then, to be expected
to have similar rhetorical content of its international counterpart. In this regard, to be at a significant level of 0.000 and the frequency count in the ratings of any level (low, medium or high) for one specific category of a certain corpus are the two main parameters that would be descriptive about rhetoric variation between the two corpora for the related category.

Each category pertaining to the introduction seems to ensure the expected parameters set for fixing the difference for the rhetoric of those sections between the two corpora. Mainly, for the two categories of literature, which concern the issues of coherence and informativeness, more than half of the articles in Turkish corpus were rated medium in the logical flow of ideas within-across paragraphs/sections and in careful composition and balance of aspects on the point being studied over relevant literature while the majority in the international one were rated highly coherent and informative in those aspects, suggesting the difference which is noticeable in the chi-square value. But, interestingly, though it would be considered fundamentally related to those first two categories, the frequency count regarding reflection seems high to some extent. However, it does not reach the expected occurrence of international corpus as the total number of those articles rated medium and low is still high, which may suggest the inefficiency of Turkish authors in generating judgments on the aspects of previous works.

Table 3.2.1. Differences in Rhetoric of Introduction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency Count</th>
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<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>19.78</td>
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<td>31.96</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*The total frequencies do not add up to 130 because 1) some research articles did not cover related...
category, or 2) the rater could not identify relevant content.

On an ongoing basis, strength of literature review as a research foundation is the lowest rated category that the ratings and chi-square value manifest the remarkable difference between Turkish and international articles in building the study on relevant literature. Indeed, on this matter, one can easily comment that this lower rating would be the presumed one when considering the incidence of the first categories below the expected levels for Turkish research papers. As of the final category, the strength of research justification, the coding showed that some research articles of Turkish corpus did not have the content for this category or it could not be identified, as seen in Table 3.2.1. Moreover, though a considerable part of texts (36) were rated highly, it is still controversial to claim that specific reasoning for conducting the study is properly explained or convincing mainly because of the difference between two corpora. Then, it would be more convenient, as so in the reflection category, to express that the strength of research justification in literature review parts of Turkish articles is on average.

As expected, and also pointed out by the referees and editors of this study, the introduction parts of ELT texts in Turkish context seem to manifest the elements in the relevant literature but this manifestation does not actually go beyond, with the very terms of editors and referees, listing studies considering the medium of informativeness. At that point, it would appear that, the findings of many studies confirm the weighted distribution of previous works done in those parts, either written in English or in any other language, as the straightforward feature of the sections (Ahmad, 1997; Alotaibi, 2013; Jogthong, 2001; Kanoksilapatham, 2003, 2005; Lim, 2012; Loi, 2010; Ozturk, 2007; Sheldon, 2011). Then, researchers from both peripheral contexts, including Turkish one, and Anglophone regions, would rather establish the territory by mainly reviewing previous works and thus may accomplish suggesting academic expertise or considerable knowledge of the field, or at least, relevant tasks in literature. But, for Turkish corpus, it is still questionable whether this medium of informativeness, or review of literature, is really genuine because, if an introduction covers rounded aspects of relevant literature or, in other words, presents supporting elements and all sorts of paradoxes for the issue, then the theoretical foundation would be considered well-established, but this is obviously not so for the introductions of Turkish academics. This would suggest that the items or elements presented in introductions are synthesized just to outline the previous works briefly but not to precisely discuss the central issues or raising questions. In this regard, relatedly, the evaluative skills of academics would be immediately questioned. Actually, in Turkish academics’ opening sections of research papers, making evaluative judgments of the previous works seems some sort of superficial consideration for the critical points of literature. In this respect, as mentioned before, researchers widely discuss that lack of argumentation in these parts are generally linked to cultural values of the contexts (Fakhri, 2004; Jogthong, 2001). On the basis of culture factor and considering discussion of Swales and Feak (2004) referring to introductions as mini-critiques in terms of pointing gap or raising questions, we could suggest that Turkish academics might avoid evaluative perspectives due to the conventional moralities so the cultural reflections are also possible in Turkish corpus’ introductory parts. Again, moving from Politeness Theory put by Brown and Levinson (1987; as cited in Woods, 2006), we could interpret this tendency as a kind of strategy seeking approval from leading figures and dominant discourses. Here, one may question that research justification seems one of the observed cases looking at the frequency from the table despite the occurrences regarding theoretical
foundation and evaluative perspectives. In this respect, not directly emphasized, the reasoning would be embedded in the overall manuscript. Finally regarding unity, the poorness of logical relationship between parts of introductions, or weakness in coherence, would also be the predicted one because only a coherent body would ensure a meaningful flow across sentences and paragraphs through achieving cognitive links (problem-solution, cause and effect, argumentation, compare and contrast) among ideas and truly listing studies without any connection would naturally result in independent items in texts.

Overall, the introduction parts of Turkish academics seem to be caught in a vicious circle – any of rhetorical categories are interwoven with the other so any issues concerning a relevant section of introduction appear to affect the other ones. In this regard, this observation in the introduction sections of Turkish academics’ texts is closely corroborated with that of Thai articles Jaroongkhongdach, et al. (2012) focused on in terms of remarkable difference with the features of native speakers’ manuscripts. Similarly, the in-turn effect of one rhetorical category on another in those parts is clearly put by Jaroongkhongdach, et al. (2012). In short, drawing on the similarities between these two discourses, the cases noticed in introduction parts could be attributed to the peripheral or contextual factors as well as the issue of non-nativeness especially concerning the adoption of Anglophone discourses’ academic norms.

Conclusion

This study was concerned with rhetorical constructions in introductions of ELT research articles in Turkish context by drawing on the situated social and rhetorical acts performed in the texts. In this respect, the rhetoric issues in manuscripts were questioned on the data handled through verbatim accounts from editors and referees, and the numeric data from chi-square analysis of the differences between two ELT RP corpora by Turkish researchers and Anglophone researchers. Accordingly, the study queried whether there were peripheral evidences in the texts by benefitting from the arguments contrastive rhetoric study and the remarks of referees and editor/referees centered. Thus, the types of discursive acts embedded in introductory parts were defined and discussed over the peripheral samples. Now, following those facts collected and discussed, the concluding remarks about the research problem will be put.

The introduction units of ELT RPs by Turkish academics are of little depth with indexing of previous works rather than a review or evaluation of their scope. Precisely, the issue of theoretical foundation in introductions is the questionable matter for ELT research papers of non-Anglophone Turkish academic discourse. In this regard, the findings clearly put the weak rhetoric in creating research space in those parts with the lack of emphasizing the gap and establishing the clear reasoning behind the research study through identifying the potential links between previous works and the raising issues, and then announcing their research’s position in addressing the questions. Here, the lack of argumentation emerges as the prevailing case for Turkish academic discourse, and so especially over the emphasis of editors and referees, it would seem that Turkish academics mostly prefer an impersonal way of thinking in their written products. From Swalesian perspective, the lack of theoretical basis and niche establishment could be regarded as the lack of not only Move 2, or establishing niche, but also the absence of the first move, that is, establishing research territory to certain extent, simply because, the smooth transition between of which would only promote the logical grounds for the study being conducted. Moreover, although the introductions of ELT RP’s produced within Turkish academic discourse show some similar features with those of texts produced in different peripheries by the other non-Anglophone researchers in terms of problems regarding establishing niche and the absence of
criticism or argumentative styles (Ahmad, 1997; Fakhri, 2004; Hirano, 2009; Jogthong, 2001), as to establishing research territory, the rhetoric in introductions seems mostly based on descriptive paragraphs about previous studies without further reflections on the works done. This paper deepens the understanding of the discursive acts operated in non-Anglophone Turkish academic context over the discussion on introductory sections of typical and authentic materials, research papers. The particular aspects emphasized about the emerging cases regarding ELT research papers contribute to demystifying the discursive acts and critically evaluating the deviation observed in Turkish academic discourse from the Anglo-American academic writing norms and contextualization issue. In this aspect, the study also informs the needs for designing appropriate materials, well-planned courses, and well-established EAP curriculums. In addition, this study has made an intriguing contribution by monitoring editors and referees’ points about the rhetorical issues in the research papers, whose evaluative judgements on the content of RPs can be used as educational instruments in accomplishing situated discursive acts in not only introductory parts but also other relevant sections of manuscripts.

Despite some similar evidences from peripheral countries shared with the ones observed in some other EFL contexts, there are also some other intrinsic features noticed in Turkish academic discourse that clearly deviate from the established courses in other discourses. Some of those features could be dealt with opening the discussion through alternative explanations; however, it is still questionable whether the context-specific and culture-specific nature of research articles may be linked to conceptualizations of research or conflicts between cultural codes and scientific facts. It may therefore be useful to apply an ethnographic method or the field study to obtain rich data about relationally constructed behaviors in texts. In this respect, this study was restricted to the focus on some social genres (basically context and content schemata, and author stance employed to some extent) in the texts, as well. A further study focusing on the cognitive genres performed in research papers might provide significant insights into the ethnographic sides of rhetorical organization in texts. Again, any data linked to personal experiences of authors may become also a meaningful summary of rhetoric engaged in scientific written communication through discourse-based interviews to display writers’ own accounts of reasons to complement the acts observed in the current study.

References


Impacts of anxiety, risk-taking, self-confidence, and motivation on Learners’ oral achievement: Case of Bilinguals Learning a Third Language

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Abstract
Affective variables have been always subject of research in the foreign and second language acquisition. However, studies up to date have generally focused on monolinguals learning a second language, and neglected the role of these factors for multilingual learners. This study aims at examining potential relationships between oral achievement of bilinguals learning English as their third language (L3) and four affective variables (i.e., anxiety, risk-taking, linguistic self-confidence, and motivation). Results of data collected from 31 L3 learners indicated that learners’ oral achievement correlated positively with risk-taking, motivation, and linguistic self-confidence while it showed a negative correlation with anxiety. Results also indicated a positive correlation linguistic self-confidence and motivation. Also, a negative correlation was found among anxiety with risk-taking and linguistic self-confidence. Finally, risk-taking was found to be a significant determinant of learners' achievement in oral tasks. The results suggest that affective variables have key roles in oral achievement in a third language. Moreover, findings recommend language teachers to encourage learner’s risk-taking in order to increase their oral achievement in second and third languages.

Keywords: affective variables, risk-taking, self-confidence, anxiety, third language.

1. Introduction
A vital element in the process of linguistic achievement of both second and foreign language learners is learner differences (Imai, 2010). Language learning, as one of the most intricate cognitive processes of human beings, is deeply interwoven with the emotional dimensions as well (Ryan, 2009). Many of the individual learners' affective variables including foreign language anxiety, attitudes, self-confidence and motivation formed the core of research in language learning. Cheng (2002), Dornyei (2001, 2005), Gärnå (1985), MacIntyre, MacKinnon, and Clement (2009) are among the researchers who studied the topic. Some of the researchers focused on the relationship between learners’ affective variables and learning behaviors (Dornyei, 2005, Ghaffar Sámar & Shirazizadeh, 2011; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), others found a correlation among the above-mentioned variables and learners’ achievements (Bigdeli, 2010; Gardner 2010; Kondo- Brown, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Sparks, & Ganschow 1991). Yet, Imai (2010) researched on the social dimensions of affective variables.

Body of research on the relationship between the affective variables with various dimensions of language learning comes mostly from monolinguals learning English, and French in some cases, as their second/foreign language (Cheng, 2002; Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, Garrett & Young, 2009; Imai, 2010; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Zhao, Guo, & Dynia, 2013). However, no study to date reported role of affective variables for bilinguals learning a third language (L3). Needless to say, because of modern world conditions such as immigration, the number of learners who start to learn their third language has rapidly increased. On the other hand, many countries experience multilingual populations with two or more official languages (e.g., Switzerland, Belgium, South Africa, Singapore, and India ). Iran as a
multicultural and multilingual country is home to people with different first languages (Baluchi, Turkish, Kurdish, Arabic…) as well as different dialects and accents of Persian. Since Iranian official language is Persian (Farsi), all students whose L1 is not Persian need to master it as their L2. However, these bilingual students, as part of their academic career, are required to learn English as their third language.

This study seeks to investigate relation of affective variables and oral achievement in English as a third language. Therefore, four variables namely class risk-taking, motivation, perceived linguistic self-confidence, and L2 speaking anxiety which are mostly construed as affective variables were selected to explore this relationship.

2. Review of literature

2.1. Anxiety and speaking in L2

McCroskey (1978, p.192) introduced anxiety when speaking a second language as ‘communication apprehension’ and defined it as ‘an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated (oral) communication with another person or persons’. Present studies have identified somewhat conflicting and indecisive outcomes considering the relationship between anxiety and L2 performance, with some suggesting debilitating effects of anxiety on L2 learning (e.g., Elkhafaifi, 2005; Ganschow & Sparks 1996; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) and some introducing facilitating effects of anxiety on L2 learning (e.g., Frantzen & Magnan, 2005). Dornyei’s (2005), however, contended that anxiety has fairly inhibitory effects on L2 performance when it is operationalized as a specific construct of L2 contexts rather than as a general personality feature. Yet, Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1995, 2007) maintained that anxiety is not a source or a consequence of differences in learners’ L2 performance but language-related variables (e.g., L1 skills) as intrusive factors account for L2 performance or proficiency. In their seminal work, Sparks and Ganschow (2007) managed to show that students with low anxiety achieved significantly higher scores than students with high anxiety on all measures of L1 skills, foreign language course grades, and foreign language proficiency. Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers examining different forms of anxiety tests such as test anxiety, reading anxiety, and L2 listening anxiety have concluded that situations demanding oral production in L2 have provoked significant anxiety (Horwitz, Tallon, & Luo, 2010). A highly apprehensive learner communicating in the target language will likely behave passively and produce less output in the classroom. L2 learners with speaking anxiety hesitate to risk expressing themselves, fear committing errors and being incompetent than their peers; all consequently impede the progress of their oral proficiency (Kitano, 2001).

Recent researches on L2 anxiety indicated that complicated and dynamic character of L2 anxiety is affected by a number of sources such as L2 proficiency levels, classroom context, and the methodology employed. Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) who studied differences of L2 anxiety across language proficiency levels found that advanced learners showed higher anxiety than beginners and intermediate learners because they felt more pressure to perform well; meanwhile, their high anxiety did not result in poor linguistic outcome. Kim's (2009) investigation on the effects of different classroom contexts on student anxiety reported that learner anxiety levels in the speaking course is higher than the reading course. Nicolson and Adams (2010) reported that some speaking practices (e.g., the use of personal information in tasks, L2 as class language, physical movement) employed as the methodology can bring discomfort and nervousness for learners. While Dornyei (2005) found L2 anxiety to be a rather independent variable, it can be thought of as having correlations with self-confidence or motivation. For
instance, Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre (1992) found anxiety to have a negative correlation with L2 learning motivation. Still others (Clement, Dornyei & Noels, 1994; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997) showed that anxiety can bear a potentially huge impact on learners’ self-confidence.

2.2. Risk-taking in L2 classroom
Ely (1986) defined risk-taking in the L2 classroom contexts as a learner’s tendency to take risks in using the second language. To operationalize the concept, Ely proposed four composing dimensions: 1) lack of hesitancy about using a newly encountered linguistic element; 2) willingness to use linguistic elements perceived to be complex or difficult; 3) tolerance of possible incorrectness or inexactitude in using the language; and 4) inclination to rehearse a new element silently before attempting to use it aloud’ (1986, p.8). A significant trait of successful L2 learning is risk-taking because it helps the learner experiment in the L2, exert fruitful guesses, build on and learn from previous mistakes, outfight the fear of using a foreign language, create linguistic self-confidence, and move more rapidly to the next level of proficiency (Beebe, 1983; Gass & Selinker, 2001). Where individual differences concern, risk-taking has been largely engaged in SLA studies, but relatively little research has investigated its effect on L2/L3 performance. Ely’s (1986) empirical study in L2 Spanish revealed that risk-taking considerably predicted classroom participation as measured by the frequency of the learner self-initiated linguistic performance such as spontaneous responses to a question or sharing information. Samimy and Tabuse (1992), examining the influence of affective factors, found that risk-taking significantly correlated with the learners’ final grades for beginner learners. Luft’s (2007) investigation revealed a remarkable link between learners’ risk-taking behaviors and their ability to perform successfully in an L2 context.

2.3. Perceived L2 self-confidence
L2 self-confidence has been long introduced as a major affective variable that underlies second language acquisition and extremely influences learner’s attitude and effort toward L2 learning and thus strongly determines L2 achievement (Clement, 1986; Clement, Dornyei & Noels, 1994; Clement & Kruidenier, 1985). Clement’s model of second language acquisition has proposed two key elements to compose linguistic self-confidence: 1) self-perceptions of communicative competence and 2) lower levels of anxiety. There is a direct link between learner’s perception of self-confidence and their willingness to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998). In other words, learners who perceive themselves as being linguistically competent, regardless of their actual communicative performance, noticeably exert a higher amount of effort to communicate in the L2. On the other hand, learners who perceived themselves to be less-competent, even though their actual proficiency was high, would engage fewer attempts to communicate in the target language. Considering level of anxiety as one of the components of linguistic self-confidence, Clement et al. (1994) found that learners with high anxiety perceive themselves as less competent for communication in the L2. In line with these findings stands that of Kitano (2001) who reported that students who perceived themselves less competent in L2 communication suffered from higher levels of anxiety, and accordingly concluded that learner’s perception of L2 competence to be a source of anxiety.

2.4. Motivation in L2 learning
As a pushing power, motivation sets in motion L2 learning and maintains self-regulation effort of learners to achieve their goals (Dornyei, 2005). Gardner’s socio-educational model of second language acquisition postulates that motivation is closely related with amounts of achievement and strongly
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determines L2 successfulness Gardner (2001) proposed that motivation factor is based on three constructional parts: motivational intensity which means that a motivated L2 learner tends to use great effort to learn the language; strong desire to learn the language and be successful; attitudes toward learning the language and find it an enjoyable process. These three components are closely related to the learner's motivational orientation, i.e. goals the learner tries to achieve using the L2. According to Gardner & Lambert (1972), learners' motivational orientation can be generally classified into two types: integrative motivation (i.e., learning the L2 due to an honest affinity for the target language, culture, and people) and instrumental motivation (i.e., learning the L2 for a practical, beneficial reason) Several studies have found that language learners who are integratively motivated are higher achieved in L2 learning than those who are instrumentally motivated (Dornyei, 2001; Dornyei, 2009; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Since the 1990s, scholars have made greater effort to identify and incorporate other potential kinds of motivating factors into the parameters of motivation theory. In an attempt, Oxford and Shearin (1994) discussed the need for an extensive model of motivation that integrates theories and principles from various areas of psychology (e.g., educational, general, industrial, etc). In another similar attempt, Dornyei (1994) sketched out a more classroom-based but an exhaustive model of L2 motivation which consists of three different levels: (1) the Language Level (integrative and instrumental motivations); (2) the Learner Level (need for achievement, self-confidence); and (3) the Learning Situation Level (course specific, teacher-specific, and group-specific motivational components). Dornyei (2005, 2009) further suggested another model of motivation, namely the L2 motivational self-system, comprised of three main components: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. He argues that motivational behaviors of learner are mediated and justified by a personal understanding of possible selves, such as the ideal self that the learner desires to be similar to and the ought-to self that the learner is obligated to possess in order to stay away from negative consequences. He supports the idea that individual’s learning is strongly influenced by his/her environment and experience (e.g., teacher, peers, and curriculum). Some studies (e.g., Ryan 2009) affirmed the explanation of L2 motivation from a self point of view through employing Dornyei's concept of the ideal L2 self, showing the significant relationship between ideal self and learners’ motivated behavior. However, they generally noted that although such selves approach would potentially provide new insights into the notion of motivation theory, we should be cautious about the evaluation of the self and take some precautions such as maintaining veracity and impartiality.

The researchers in this study, attempted to approach motivation from the point of view of the amount and intensity of the learners’ desire to involve in the process of learning a new language, namely English. For this to obtain, researchers adopted Gardner’s (1985, 2001) model of motivation which is defined here as having three facets: 1) learners’ motivational intensity, 2) learners’ desire to learn English, and 3) their attitudes toward learning English.

3. Research questions
1. How do bilingual learners learning English as a third language (L3) consider their affective state on the four variables (i.e., risk-taking, motivation, linguistic self-confidence, and anxiety)?
2. How do the four affective variables correlate with learners’ oral achievement in English as an L3?
3. Does any of the variables significantly predict the learners’ oral achievement in English as an L3?

4. Method
4.1. Participants

Participants include 31 EFL students (13 males and 18 females) in B.A degree majoring Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and English Translation at an Iranian university. They were randomly selected from among 110 language learners. As Table 1 indicates, members of the bilingual group included students with different first languages (7 Arabic, 11 Baluchi, 9 Kurdish, and 4 Turkish) and all of them can speak Persian as their second language. The study was an anonymous one in which students took part voluntarily.

Table 1

Specifications of the Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Arabic as L1</th>
<th>Baluchi as L1</th>
<th>Kurdish as L1</th>
<th>Turkish as L1</th>
<th>Persian as L1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual group</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because number of bilingual students entering the university to learn a third language is not high, and to obtain a sufficient sample, the data for this study were gathered throughout four semesters (two years) and from four English classes. However, to make sure of the reliability of the data and consistency across the four classes, the course was presented by the researchers themselves with the same format, textbook, and evaluation throughout all these two years.

4.2. Data collection

Classes from which the data were collected were held two times a week for 90 minutes for nearly 14 weeks in every semester. The classes were generally divided into two main sections: listening (including English conversations, stories, newscasts, educational films, movies, and documentaries) and speaking (including free discussion, role play, presentations and lectures by students, and sometimes short dramas).

4.3. Instruments

In order to obtain data for oral proficiency level of students, they undertook an interview. Students took the test as their final exam in the course. The oral interview test included those tasks that were practiced in the classroom throughout the semester and were consequently familiar to them (e.g. introducing a new classmate, reporting a newscast...). Five criteria were utilized to evaluate the oral performance of students: fluency, appropriate vocabulary, task achievement, grammatical accuracy, and intelligible pronunciation. All interviews were recorded and scored by both researchers separately. The two scores given by the two raters were averaged to obtain the final score of oral proficiency for every student. To collect data on the four affective variables, a structured questionnaire including two sections was used. First section of the questionnaire consisted of items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale in which 1 indicated “strongly disagree” and 5 indicated “strongly agree.” Both positively and negatively phrased questions were included in questionnaire items. In this section, students were required to answer 32
items related to the four affective variables: speaking anxiety (8 items), class risk-taking (7 items), linguistic self-confidence (9 items), and motivation (8 items).

To measure L2 speaking anxiety, items concerning speaking anxiety were adapted from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). However, items to check out class risk taking were adapted from the inventory designed by Ely (1986). The third affective variable, linguistic self-confidence, were measured through items designed by Pyun et al. (2014) in line with the literature concerning linguistic self-confidence. Finally, motivation items were taken from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) by Gardner et al. (1997).

For ensuring the validity of the questionnaire and to work out any misunderstanding of the questionnaire items, a pilot test was run with 10 students taking the same course but not participating in the current study. Results of the pilot study assisted significantly to the improvement of the items. Following that, the Cronbach’s alpha index was employed to determine the internal consistency of subscales of the questionnaire items. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for each of the scales were as illustrated in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
<th>Chronbach alpha</th>
<th>Sample item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking anxiety</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>I am afraid that other students laugh at me when I speak English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk taking</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>I prefer to say a sentence to myself before I speak it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self confidence</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>I feel I can introduce a new classmate in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>I find learning English very interesting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Results
SPSS version 19 software program was used to analyze data. Descriptive statistics were used to respond to the first research question concerning learners’ affective answers to the questionnaire of anxiety, risk-taking, self-confidence, and motivation. Table 3 summarizes the means and standard deviations of the four affective variables as well as results of the achievement in L2 oral interview. The learners’ scores on the four affective variables range on a scale of 1 to 5. Results of analysis for anxiety revealed that its mean score was moderate (M=3.21, SD=.79). It goes without saying that there is a direct link between level of anxiety and its numerical value in a way that the greater the number, the higher the anxiety of the learners. Statistically speaking, nearly 21% of the learners perceived themselves as showing high degrees of anxiety (3.5-5 on the Likert scale), 32% of them reported having moderate anxiety (2.5-3.4) while 47% reported low levels of anxiety (1-2.4). Since oral communication is by nature a stressful and anxiety-provoking task for language learners, whether L2 or L3, moderate level of anxiety among L3 learners and
the high percentage of students reporting as having low or moderate anxiety (cumulatively 79%) is good news.

The results of analysis for the affective variable risk-taking revealed that it had a high mean score (M=4.09, SD=.83). High score on the risk-taking variable is an indicator of higher levels of risk-taking prompts. Investigation of individual responses to items of risk-taking indicated that 53% of learners perceived themselves as risk-takers in L3 (mean score≥ 3.5), 21% considered themselves to have moderate willingness to take risks (mean scores of 2.5 to 3.4), and 26% of students judged themselves as not willing to take risks (mean score ≤2.4).

Concerning linguistic self-confidence, analysis of learners’ responses indicate high-moderate results (the mean score= 3.71, SD=.74). Analysis of individual responses to self-confidence items of the questionnaire indicated that 37% of learners reported as being linguistically self-confident in English as an L3 (mean score≥ 3.5), 32% perceived themselves as having average confidence in performing linguistic tasks in L3 (mean scores of 2.5 to 3.4), and 31% of learners reported not to have enough confidence when encountering L3 oral tasks (mean score ≤2.4).

Analysis of learners’ responses to questionnaire items concerning motivation revealed that they had a relatively high motivation for learning English as an L3 (M=4.51, SD=.71). Examination of individual responses to questionnaire items concerning motivation disclosed that 57% of participants reported to have high levels of motivation for learning English as an L3 (mean score≥ 3.5), 26% of them showed moderate motivation (mean scores of 2.5 to 3.4), and only 17% of students reported not to be sufficiently motivated (mean score ≤2.4). The high mean scores on motivation among learners suggest that most participants in this research perceived learning English as an L3 as valuable and showed rather great willingness to learn it.

**Table 3**

**Means and Standard Deviations of Affective Variables and Achievement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>73.06</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk-taking</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Motivational intensity)</td>
<td>(3.98)</td>
<td>(.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Willingness to learn English)</td>
<td>(4.63)</td>
<td>(.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Attitude toward learning)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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To answer to the second and third research questions, it was necessary to determine the magnitude of correlation among affective variable. Moreover, the relationship between students' oral achievement in English interview test and the four variables was sought. Accordingly, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated. Table 4 shows the statistically significant correlations found among the variables. First, when alpha was set at \( p < .05 \), learners' oral achievement as evaluated through oral interviews showed a significantly positive correlation with risk-taking, self-confidence, and motivation, and a negative association with anxiety. The results disclose the fact that learners who achieved higher scores on the oral interview had greater self-competence in using English as an L3, tended to experience less anxiety for speaking English, and attempted more risk-takings. However, whit an alpha set at \( p < .01 \), risk-taking and anxiety proved to be significantly correlated to oral achievement. This finding is an indicator of the fact that students who underwent lower levels of anxiety and showed higher degrees of risk-taking tended to achieve higher levels of proficiency in oral tasks in English as an L3.

In addition, among three of the four affective variables (self-confidence, anxiety, and motivation) significant correlations were found. The scale of self-confidence manifested a positive correlation with motivation. This positive correlation, which seems relatively strong, suggests that self-confidence is directly correlated with learners' attitude toward English and their willingness to invest on it. Moreover, self-confidence tended to be negatively associated with anxiety in a significant way. This implies that those learners who judge themselves as being more competent in oral tasks in English tend to undergo less anxiety. Risk-taking measure, however, exhibited correlation only with the anxiety variable and indicated no significant correlations with self-confidence and motivation. This indicates that learners with high amount of anxiety don’t tend to perceive oral task as a calculated risk to take. Moreover, it implies that learners don’t take risks even though they are highly motivated or linguistically competent.

Table 4

Correlations Among Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>anxiety</th>
<th>Self-confidence</th>
<th>Risk-taking</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.46*</td>
<td>-.72**</td>
<td>-.51**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.49*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk-taking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
The third research question aimed at finding any of the affective variables that can significantly predict the learners’ oral achievement in English as an L3. To get to this, a stepwise regression analysis was run where achievement was set as the dependent variable. As Table 5 shows, results of the analysis indicated that among the affective variables tested, risk-taking was the only affective variable that could significantly predict learners’ oral achievement. However, other affective scales, anxiety, self-confidence and motivation, proved not to be significant indicators of learners’ oral achievement, and were consequently excluded. In addition, results revealed the fact that risk-taking accounted for nearly 28% of the variability of learners’ oral scores suggesting risk-taking as the most significant determinant factor among affective variables.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variables entered</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>βvalue</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Class risk-taking</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excluded variables: self-confidence, anxiety, motivation.*

6. Discussion

Analysis of data gathered through questionnaire and oral interviews from bilinguals learning English as an L3 disclosed that learner’s oral achievement was significantly predicted only by risk-taking. This finding supports the results of other researchers (Ely, 1986; Samimy & Rardin, 1994) suggesting that risk-taking as being a significant predictor of learner’s participation in classroom activities. Some other studies found risk-taking to be the key characteristic of successful language learners (Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). Significance of risk-taking lies in the facts that it assists language learners to utilize their already-learned linguistic knowledge and gives them courage to gamble on what they have not actually mastered. Since risk-taking can increase learners’ attempts to open negotiations with other language users (classmates, teachers, native speakers), it is directly associated with their willingness to communicate (WTC). Cao (2011) reported that a positive correlation between willingness to communicate with risk-taking behaviors and linguistic self-confidence. However, caution must be taken that risk-taking is not always positively associated with linguistic achievement. For example, Beebe (1983) found that learners who frequently take linguistic risks are more likely to make errors, and concluded that linguistic accuracy was negatively correlated with risk-taking. Pyun et al., (2014), however, contended that the linguistic inaccuracy resulted from risk-taking is a short-term effect, while in long-term risk-taking can be “hugely beneficial for building communicative skills and resources” (p.60). For these long-term effects to appear, of course, other factors should be taken into consideration. As results of a study by Ely (1986) indicated that since there is a negative association between risk-taking and classroom discomfort, it is necessary to develop an environment in the classroom where students can cope with mistakes made by their classmates or themselves. Luft (2007) suggested that one way to increase risk-taking as well as to decrease rate of linguistic inaccuracies is students’ preparation for the class. Emphasizing the significance of teachers’ style and their positive acceptance for learners’ risk-takings, Bang (1999) suggested that teachers can assign homework to students so that they are cognitively prepared for risk-taking in classroom. It is
also found that group activities and pair-work in the classroom can facilitate learners’ risk-taking since it can decrease the amount of oral production expected from each individual, and therefore reduce the frustration of oral performance (Bang, 1999).

Results of the current study also indicate that anxiety serves as the negative factor for learners’ risk-taking. The link between these two affective variables is possibly because of the fear of being evaluated by others (teacher and classmates) or the fact that learners like to be perfect language learners (Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002). To overcome thigh levels of anxiety, studies suggest some solutions. In their study, Campbell & Ortiz (1991) recommended teachers to take advantage of the potentials of the virtual space and establish informal forums where learners can discuss their affective problems with their peers as well as their strategic solutions to overcome them. Foss and Reitzel (1991) found that a big share of anxiety comes from low self-confidence. Language learners tend to perceive their competence much lower than their real linguistic abilities, and therefore, they cannot display their actual linguistic competence. If learners become aware of the point, chances are high that they take the risks more confidently. Informing learners about the nature of language learning and establishing an encouraging atmosphere for risk-taking in the classroom by teachers are also recommended (Pyun,, Kim, Cho, & Lee, 2014). Another significant finding of the present study regarding risk-taking is that nearly 74% of bilinguals who were learning English as their L3 reported moderate to high tendency for risk-taking. This runs counter to what was reported for L2 learners (e.g., Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinas, & Garau, 2009; Pyun,, Kim, Cho, & Lee, 2014). This may stem in the fact that L3 learners are more experienced language learners and thus they have mastered strategies to cope with psychological anxieties of learning a language and performing oral tasks.

The study also found a positive correlation between motivation and self-confidence suggesting that the students’ perceived linguistic competence can have an impact on and be affected by their degree of motivation. This goes in line with findings reported by some researchers (Clement, Dornyei, & Noel, 1994; Dornyei and Csizer 1998) that a key component of the L2 motivation is linguistic self-confidence. Such studies even suggested that in order to promote learners’ motivation for learning a language, it is conducive to enhance their linguistic self-confidence.

To sum up, it can be inferred based on the findings of the current study that affective variables do an impact on L3 learning in general and achievement in oral task in specific. Based on the analyzed data, those learners who achieved higher scores in oral interviews were those who were manifested higher levels of linguistic self-confidence, experienced less anxiety, and perceived themselves as linguistic risk-takers.

7. Conclusion
Multilingualism, developed by the modern lifestyle, has the potential to impact issues related to language learning. However, most language studies are performed on first language acquisition and second language learning. The present study attempted to bring to fore multilingualism as a research issue. Oral communication in multilingual communities and educational settings can pose psychological frustration and necessitate ability in meaningful negotiation and unrehearsed linguistic interaction. Such abilities may be influenced by affective variables. The current study surveyed role of four affective states in oral achievement of L3 learners. Results revealed significant impacts of these variables on oral achievement with risk-taking being the main predictor of L3 learners’ oral achievement. The study, however, has its
own share of limitations. Since participants in the study were learning English as a foreign language at a university, the results may not be applicable to different situations.

References


The Perception of the English Teachers and Students on Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (ETA) and the Implementation of the ETA Program in Malaysian Secondary Schools

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Abstract
This study aims to evaluate the ETA Program implemented in Malaysian secondary schools. The evaluation of the program is crucial to investigate the perception of both head of English language panel’ and English language teachers’ and students’ on ETA and the implementation of the ETA Program. This study employed both qualitative method (interview) and quantitative method (questionnaire). Findings revealed that the ETA Program greatly helps in motivating the students, as well as heighten their interest to use EL among their peers. In addition, the activities conducted by the ETA also helps to instill the students’ interest in participating EL activities during teaching and learning session. However, the ETA Program does not help in terms of improving the students’ overall EL proficiency. Interview session with the students revealed that all of them are receptive towards the ETA due to the ETA’s positive and encouraging attitude. As a conclusion, the findings showed that both head of EL panel and English teachers, as well as the students generally have a positive perception on the overall implementation of the ETA Program in Malaysian secondary schools despite some of the flaws in the program.

Keywords: Perception; English Teaching Assistant; Malaysian Secondary School; Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program

Introduction
‘Memartabatkan Bahasa Malaysia, Memperkukuh Bahasa Inggeris’ (henceforth, MBMMBI) or Upholding Bahasa Malaysia and Strengthening English Language (Circulation 2/2010) is a new Government policy initiated to replace the “Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Sains dan Matematik dalam Bahasa Inggeris” (henceforth, PPSMI) or in English, the Teaching of Science and Mathematics in English language, which was found ineffective in its implementation (PEMBINA, 2008). The chief aims of the MBMMBI Policy are first, to uphold the Malay language in line with the Education Act 1996 which emphasises Malay language as the medium of instruction in all primary and secondary schools. Second, the policy also aspires to strengthen the English language mastery among Malaysian students, enabling them to explore knowledge which is more accessible in this international language (MoE, 2014).

To materialise the MBMMBI policy, the Ministry of Education (MoE) has laid out eight strategies in support of the policy. One of the strategies is the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (henceforth, ETA Program). The ETA Program is a collaboration between the Malaysian and the American governments and it is jointly supervised by the Ministry of Education (henceforth, MoE) and the Malaysian-American Commission on Educational Exchange (henceforth, MACEE). The ETA Program commenced in the year 2012 and schools with low performance in English from Band 5 or 6 are selected for the program (MoE, 2015). It endeavours to; first, increase the students’ interest towards English and thus, improve their communicative skills; second, enhance students’ ability and confidence in using
English; third, encourage students to actively participate in curricular and co-curricular activities; and finally, engage students in cultural exchange activities (MoE, 2015).

On the 27th April 2014, during a meeting held between the Malaysian government with the United States of America, the Prime Minister of Malaysia and the President of the United States of America came to an agreement that the ETA Program which then had been implemented for two years, will be further extended for another 3 years (2015 – 2017). In addition, a total amount of RM18 million will be invested for the ETA Program through the MBMMBI policy for those 3 years’ time, where 100 ETAs will be placed in the chosen schools in Malaysia each year.

Since its inception in 2012, the ETA Program has yet to be subjected under rigorous research. For a large-scale international education program, an evaluation on the program is crucial to ascertain the efficiency and efficacy of its implementation. Such evaluation will provide invaluable insights on the detailed implementation of the program highlighting its strengths and weaknesses. Hence, the current study aims to determine the English language teachers’ (henceforth, EL teachers) and students’ perception of the ETA and the implementation of the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program in Malaysia. This helps to ascertain the effectiveness of the ETA Program.

**Problem Statement**

In the year 2003, the MoE implemented the PPSMI policy in Malaysian schools under the resolution of the Malaysian Cabinet on the 19th of July 2002. The policy stresses on the use of English language as the medium of instruction in the teaching of Mathematics and Science, for the purpose of improving students’ command of English in Malaysian schools (MoE, 2015).

However, it was found that the PPSMI policy had failed to achieve its objectives and more importantly the students’ achievement in the Science and Mathematics subjects had dwindled, as shown by several studies (PEMBINA, 2008; Rasdi, 2003; Gonzales et al, 2007). This, consequently, widened the gap between the students in rural and urban schools in terms of achievement of these subjects (PEMBINA, 2008; Rasdi, 2003; Gonzales et al, 2007). The PPSMI was, thus, abolished in 2009 and in its place, the MBMMBI Policy was introduced in 2010.

The MBMMBI Policy strives to enhance students’ mastery in Bahasa Malaysia and reinforce their proficiency in English language. English language is reinforced through several strategies and one of the most notable strategies is the implementation of Fulbright English Teaching Assistant (ETA) Program. Since its implementation, studies have yet to be conducted to ascertain the effectiveness of the program in Malaysia and there are no records on the perception of EL teachers and students on the implementation of ETA Program. Hence, the current study aims to replicate the study by Mazura et al (2016), which primarily concentrated on the implementation of MBMMBI Policy. This study, however, will focus on the evaluation of the ETA Program in Malaysian secondary schools.

**Research Objective**

The research was carried out to:

• ascertain the perception of English language teachers and students towards ETA and the ETA Program in Malaysia.

| Table 1. An example of a table. |
An example of a column heading | Column A (t) | Column B (t)
--- | --- | ---
And an entry | 1 | 2
And another entry | 3 | 4
And another entry | 5 | 6

**Research Question**

This thesis endeavours to answer the following research question:

- What is the perception of the English language teachers and students on ETAs and ETA Program in Malaysia?

**Literature Review**

**MBMMBI Policy**

MBMMBI policy was implemented in the year 2010, replacing Teaching and Learning of Science and Mathematics in English language (henceforth, PPSMI) policy that was concluded in the year 2009. PPSMI was first implemented in 2003 under Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad’s administration, the then Prime Minister of Malaysia. The PPSMI Policy has resulted in socioeconomics polarization between rural and urban students, as the English proficiency of rural students is nominal compared to the urban students. The discontinuation of the PPSMI policy indicates that the macro-level of the policy had not paid sufficient attention to the micro-level realities that might obstruct the successful translation of policy goals and their implementation in the country (Chua, 2006; Chua & Baldauf, 2011). Hence, the PPSMI policy was then discontinued in the year 2009, as it has failed to achieve its objectives.

In replace, the MBMMBI Policy was initiated. Bahasa Malaysia is upheld, as it is Malaysia’s national language (Article152, Malaysia Constitution). In addition, Bahasa Malaysia also serves as the main medium in Malaysian education (Education Act 1996). English language is strengthened through the MBMMBI policy, which enables both teachers and students to seek knowledge, as well as enabling them to compete with others nationally and internationally. The English language mastery should be enhanced and improved so that both teachers and students alike are able to use the language fluently, as English language is an international language used by almost every country in the world, to break the language barrier that impedes communication between countries (MBMMBI Policy, 2014).

The goal of MBMMBI policy is to create societies that could master both Bahasa Malaysia and English language fluently in Malaysian education system. Both languages are important in uniting and producing societies that are able to compete, as well as perform at international level. Besides, MBMMBI policy aims to improve the students’ fluency, performances, and building their confidence in using BM and English language (MBMMBI Policy, 2014).

The main objectives of the MBMMBI policy are to:

- enhance students’ BM and English language mastery;
- produce teachers according to their language options and improve their Malay Language (henceforth, BM) and English language mastery;
improve the infrastructure and teaching materials in teaching and learning of BM and English language; and,

• increase the use of both BM and English language in curricular activities.

(Strategic Plan Interim MOE 2011-2020, 2012)

Under the 4th Strategy, three initiatives were implemented namely, the Native Speaker Program (henceforth, PJ Program), the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (ETA Program); and the EL Contract Teachers. The chief aim of the 4th Strategy is to improve the EL proficiency of teachers and students in Malaysian schools.

The first and second initiatives (the PJ and ETA Programs) employ language experts from abroad (the United States of America); while the third initiative engages local retired EL teachers as Contract English Teachers. The current study focuses on the second initiative – the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (ETA Program). In the MBMMBI Policy it is stated that the ETAs are placed in secondary schools in the rural areas, where the students are in the lower band of English language achievements of Band 5, 6, and 7 (MoE). This program began in 2012 and will continue until 2017. To date, few researches have been carried out evaluating the ETA Program since its implementation. Thus, the aim of this research is to examine the perception of the EL teachers and students on ETAs and ETA Program.

Teaching Assistant

The use of TAs were common in certain countries, especially in the United Kingdom and the US. For the past two decades, the rise of the number of TAs in UK and US schools are due to a number of factors such as shortages of teachers that leads to larger class sizes, the policy of inclusion of pupils with special educational needs in mainstream schools that leads to a need for in-class support for these pupils, and the shift of normal traditional classroom settings and individual learning into a whole-class interactive teaching methods (Muijs and Reynolds, 2003).

Schools in other countries such as Australia, Italy, Sweden, Canada, Finland, Germany, Hong Kong, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, South Africa, Singapore, and Vietnam have experienced similar increases in the use of paraprofessionals (Giangreco, 2007). The increase in the use of TAs over the years seems to be based on the perceived benefits such as improving students’ achievements, encouraging pro-social behaviour, helping classroom management, helping specific categories of students such as low achieving students with special needs, fostering parental involvement and improving students’ self-esteem (Gerber et al, 2001). Malaysia on the other hand, has only begun implementing the use TAs through the MBMMBI Policy that was enacted in 2010, replacing the PPSMI Policy. The Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program was implemented with the aims to assist the students with low proficiency of Band 5 or 6 in English language in the Malaysian secondary schools (MoE, 2014).

Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (ETA Program)

The Fulbright English Teaching Assistant or ETA Program is a collaboration between the Malaysian and the USA governments and it is jointly supervised by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Malaysian-American Commission on Educational Exchange (MACEE) (MoE, n.d.: 1). The ETA Program was first implemented in 2012, under the Strategy 4 of the MBMMBI Policy. The implementation of the ETA Program was considered as a political movement between the Malaysian government and the government of the United States of America (USA), besides sharing a common interest in the
enhancement of EL education and social development in both countries (Department of States (USA), 2012).

According to the memorandum of understanding between the government of the United States of America and the government of Malaysia on the Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program, the implementation of the ETA Program showed that both of the Malaysian and the USA government are:

- Recognizing the existing friendly relations between the two countries;
- Desiring to strengthen and further develop co-operation between the two countries in the field of English language education;
- Convinced of the necessity of a lasting and effective co-operation in the interest of both countries;
- Appreciating the existing co-operation as reflected in the Agreement between the Government of the United States of America and the Government of Malaysia Concerning the Establishment of the Malaysian-American Commission on Education Exchange done at Kuala Lumpur on September 20, 2010 (hereinafter referred to as “the 2010 Agreement”), and
- Believing such co-operation would serve their common interest and contribute to the enhancement of education of the English language and social development of both countries.

The Fulbright English Teaching Assistant Program (ETA Program) present an opportunity for the recent American college graduates to work as an English Teaching Assistant (ETA) to EL teachers in secondary schools in a total of 43 country throughout the world. Since the inception of the ETA Program in 2004, a total of 2,350 ETAs have been placed in over 48 countries (refer to Figure 2.2). For the duration of one year, selected graduating college seniors and young professionals from the United States of America are sent to Malaysia secondary schools with low average grade in EL subject as teaching assistants (Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs United States, 2014 & MoE, 2014). It is essential that ETAs share their knowledge and experiences of the USA, its society, and culture while supporting English language teachers through their presence as native speakers (Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs United States, 2014).

Methodology

The current study employed both quantitative and qualitative data collection in two phases; phase one involved the quantitative data collection through questionnaire; while in phase two, qualitative data were collected through interviewing the respondents (EL teachers and students). Cohen et al (2007) purport that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection is significantly better, as it allows a more critical evaluation on the data, in this case the evaluation of the ETA Program.

Phase 1

As mentioned above, the research algorithm of the current research involves two phases. Phase 1 of research implementation procedure involves the use of a questionnaire. A set of questionnaire was given to the EL teachers to ascertain their perception on the ETA Program in various aspects such as the activities carried out in the ETA Program and the achievement of the program.

Phase 2

Phase 2 of the Qualitative Data Collection Procedure involved interview sessions with head of EL Panel, EL teachers, and students as displayed in Figure 3.1. Phase 2 involves interview sessions. All heads of English language panel and EL teachers were interviewed in this study. Besides that, interview sessions
was also conducted with the students who are from co-teach classes to identify their responses regarding the ETA and the ETA Program.

![Figure 3.1. Qualitative Data Collection Procedure](image)

**Research Sampling**

As aforementioned, research samples were selected using the stratified random sample selection method. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) explain that researchers often face difficulty of getting access to a large sampling population, as it can be too expensive and time-consuming. Hence, they resort to a population based on a representative sample allowing them to make generalization from the selected samples. The stratified random sampling method refers to the division of sample population according to strata or subsets, and stratification variables that can be considered include age group, job status, gender and other variables. In the current study, the stratification variable chosen is the location of the schools divided based on the zones – northern, central, southern, eastern and SQL zones (Sabah, Sarawak and Labuan). The stratified random sampling method is considered practical as the sampling method generally provides increased accuracy in sample estimates without resulting in a substantial increase in cost and time. In addition, it enables the researcher to gain more precise information of the entire population (Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

In 2016, the ETA Program is implemented in 100 schools involving 100 ETAs. Due to cost and time constraints, a total of nine (9) schools were selected for the current study. This selection covers the four zones in Malaysia. For each zone, two schools were selected. Table 1 summarises the samples of the current research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zones</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Head of English Language Panel</th>
<th>English Language Teachers</th>
<th>ETA</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>Kedah</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perlis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle/Centre</td>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>Kelantan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As mentioned above, two schools in each zone were selected for the research except for the SQL zone, in which three schools were chosen. The states in the north that were involved in the study were Kedah and Perlis with two schools. Meanwhile, in the central zone two schools in the Perak state were chosen to participate in the study. East zone involved the states of Kelantan and Terengganu, where one school was chosen for each state, respectively. Last but not least, the SQL zone covered the states Sabah and Sarawak, where one school in Sabah and two schools from Sarawak were selected to participate in this study.

A total of nine heads of EL Panel, 59 EL teachers and 399 secondary students were involved in this study. Out of 399 students, 165 students were Form 2 students, while Form 4 students encompassed 234 students. Among the 165 Form 2 students, 82 of them are from co-teach classes and 83 students are from non-co-teach classes. For Form 4 students, 130 students are from co-teach classes, while the remaining 104 students are from non-co-teach classes. Forms 2 and 4 students were chosen as the research samples since ETAs were only assigned to conduct co-teach with EL teachers in non-examination classes. The implementation of ETA Program does not involve examination classes to avoid disruption of the syllabus allowing the students to concentrate for the incoming examinations. Table 2 summarises the research sample of the current study.

Table 2. Number of Schools and Samples According to Zones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zones</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Form 2</th>
<th>Form 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>Kedah</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perlis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle/Centre</td>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>78</td>
<td></td>
<td>√ √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kelantan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>Terengganu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sabah</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQL</td>
<td>Sarawak</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>126</td>
<td></td>
<td>√ √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In ensuring the research ethics, pseudo names were given to each research sample involved in this study. The names of the schools, classes, forms, students, teachers, and ETAs who were involved in this study would not be disclosed. Hence, multiple pseudo names were used to indicate each respondent. Table 3 shows the pseudo names used to indicate the school, teachers, students, and the ETAs involved in this study.

**Interview Protocol**

Interviews were conducted in the second stage of the data collection process. The interviews were conducted to gain more insights into the ETA Program and further understand the implementation of the program in schools. In addition, the interviews conducted allow the researcher to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the program, as well as to determine the validity of the quantitative data gathered.

The interviews were conducted with the heads of EL panel, EL teachers and the students. The interview questions were developed based on the preliminary findings gathered from the first stage of data collection process. Table 3 below shows the sample of interview questions for the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONDENTS</th>
<th>TOPICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head of English Language Panel</td>
<td>- During the arrival of ETA in the school, does the panel sit together and determine the needs or the problem that the school requires assistance from the ETA?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- How do you monitor the ETA’s attendance and activities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- How often is the monitoring of ETA conducted?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- In your opinion, does the ETA Program help to improve the students’ interest and motivation in using English Language? Please provide some examples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Teachers</td>
<td>- How often do you conduct the co-teaching session with the ETA? How do you and the ETA coordinate with each other during the co-teaching session?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Are there any visible improvements that can be seen in your students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
after the implementation of the ETA Program?

- How often do you use English language? Do you notice any changes in your ability to use EL before and after the ETA Program was implemented?

Students

- What makes the ETA special and different from your English language teachers? Please provide some examples.

All questions are open-ended and all information gathered during the interview sessions was recorded and verbatim transcription was done. The interview sessions took about two hours. Table 4 shows the code system utilised to transcribe the interviews.

Table 4. Code System for Interview Session

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>School 1</td>
<td>T1</td>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>STU1</td>
<td>Student 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>School 2</td>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>STU2</td>
<td>Student 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>School 3</td>
<td>T3</td>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>STU3</td>
<td>Student 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>School 4</td>
<td>T4</td>
<td>Teacher 4</td>
<td>STU4</td>
<td>Student 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>School 5</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>Teacher 5</td>
<td>STU5</td>
<td>Student 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>School 6</td>
<td>T6</td>
<td>Teacher 6</td>
<td>STU6</td>
<td>Student 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>School 7</td>
<td>T7</td>
<td>Teacher 7</td>
<td>STU7</td>
<td>Student 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
<td>School 8</td>
<td>T8</td>
<td>Teacher 8</td>
<td>STU8</td>
<td>Student 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S9</td>
<td>School 9</td>
<td>T9</td>
<td>Teacher 9</td>
<td>STU9</td>
<td>Student 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were three types of respondents and each respondent was given a different code to ease the process of transcribing the interview data. Once the transcription was done the researcher transferred it to a transcription form so that thematic analysis can be conducted. Boyatzis (1998) explains that thematic analysis is a suitable method to extract, analyse and report recurring patterns (themes) within the data collected. These themes assist the researcher in addressing the research questions Boyatzis (1998).

Table 5 shows the transcription form that was used by the researcher to extract the themes and draw the conclusion of the interview data.

Table 5. Sample of Transcription Form
The transcription form facilitated the researcher to interpret the diverse, complex and nuance of the qualitative data obtained from the interview sessions. Overall, the transcription process abided the seven principles of transcription rules lined up by Mergenthaler and Stinson (1992): The principles are as follows:

- a) preserve the morphologic naturalness of transcription
- b) preserve the naturalness of the transcript structure.
- c) the transcript should be an exact reproduction.
- d) the transcription rules should be universal.
- e) the transcription rules should be complete.
- f) the transcription rules should be independent.
- g) the transcription rules should be intellectually elegant.

Findings

The chief aim of this section is to ascertain the insights of both the heads of the EL panel, EL teachers and students on the effectiveness of the ETA Program and ETAs in achieving the objectives that have been laid out by the MoE.

As mentioned in methodology, to address the research question, data from the questionnaires and interviews were gathered. Questionnaire data from nine heads of EL panel and 59 EL teachers were accumulated and analysed. In addition, interviews were conducted with the heads of EL panel, EL teachers, and the students. All information gathered during the interview sessions was recorded and transcribed verbatim before thematic analysis was done.

**Perception of English Language Teachers on the ETA Program**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>RESPONDENT</th>
<th>POSITIVE</th>
<th>NEGATIVE</th>
<th>SUGGESTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3T4 &amp; S3T3</td>
<td>• A lot of ideas</td>
<td>• One piece of writing is extended too long</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Give me more ideas on activities from ETA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STU 1</td>
<td>• Supportive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Tell about life in America</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Cultural exchange</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis will begin with the discussion on the quantitative findings from the questionnaires gathered from the heads of EL panel and EL teachers. Table 6 shows the perception of EL teachers on the activities conducted in the ETA Program.

Table 6. Perception of English Language Teachers on the Activities Conducted in the ETA Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Perception of English Language Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe that the activities conducted in the ETA Program are able to...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>increase students’ interest in English language activities (81.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>improve students’ English language pronunciation (35.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings show that 81.4% of the EL teachers believed that the activities conducted in the ETA Program were able to increase students’ interest in EL activities. However, 35.6% of the EL teachers felt that these activities were not able to improve the students’ EL pronunciation. Table 7 shows the perception of EL teachers on the ETA Program.

Table 7. Perception of English Language Teachers on the ETA Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Perception of English Language Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The ETA Program is able to...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Improve students’ confidence in using English language (79.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Enhance the use of standard English [e.g. spelling vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation] (44.1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in the above table, 79.7% of the respondents stated that the ETA Program was able to improve the students’ confidence in using the English language. However, 44.1% of them mentioned that the program was unable to enhance the use of Standard English in students. In other words, the ETA did not emphasise on students’ spelling, vocabulary enhancement, grammar and pronunciation during the co-teaching sessions. The findings was in line with the abovementioned findings in Table 8; in which the activities conducted in the ETA Program were not able to improve the students’ pronunciation.

Moving on, the next table presents the findings on the benefits of the ETA program to the EL teachers (Table 8).

Table 8. Benefits of ETA Program towards the English Language Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Perception of English Language Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>increases the English language teachers’ confidence to converse in English (76.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>help in diversifying English language learning approaches (64.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the involvement with the ETA Program, the program...</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>enables English language teachers to make careful preparation before teaching and learning (39.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>help to determine the English language mastery level of each students (55.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings reveal that 76.3% of the EL teachers felt that their involvement with the ETA Program had helped to increase their confidence in conversing in English, while 64.4% of the EL teachers claimed that...
the ETA Program had assisted them in diversifying their EL learning approaches during TaL. 55% of them, however, thought that the program did not help them to determine the English Language mastery level of their students and 39% felt that the ETA Program did not help them in making careful preparation before the co-teaching session. Even though the ETA Program was established to increase the language ability of the students, findings of the current study show that the program also had some positive impacts on the EL teachers particularly in increasing teachers’ level of confidence in using English and diversifying their teaching approaches in classroom. The teachers felt that the ETA had introduced them to fun learning teaching approaches that could attract the students to better language learning.

The next section deals with the analysis of interview data from the heads of EL panels, EL teachers and students.

Interview Analysis on the Perception of Heads of English Language Panel and English Language Teachers on the ETA Program

This subsection presents the qualitative findings gathered from the interview sessions with the heads of EL panel, EL teachers and students regarding their perception on the ETA Program and ETAs. Based on the semi-constructed interview sessions conducted with the EL teachers, the first theme identified from the EL teachers’ responses was the impact of the ETA Program on the students’ confidence and interest in English Language.

The findings reveal that the implementation of the ETA Program helped to increase the students’ confidence in using the language, particularly their speaking ability. ETA helped to boost the students’ confidence to use English by creating more opportunities for them to communicate with their classmates and friends. Thus, this affected their EL oral proficiency. The presence of ETAs in the classrooms motivated the students to learn and the variety of teaching approaches used during co-teaching sessions had propelled the students’ participation during EL lessons. The students felt that the activities conducted by the ETAs were entertaining and made them feel enthusiastic whenever the ETAs entered the class. Among the EL teachers’ responses:

S4T3: ETA helps the students in motivating them. The students are more enthusiastic in learning. They will see me as the serious ones and the other one is something fun and enjoyable”, “for the lower form, the students really eager to learn and speak English when she (ETA) is around…

S5T1: They are very enthusiastic and it somehow affected their EL proficiency. Like they like to speak, try to get the message across, try to ask their friends on how to say certain things in English…

S7T1: I can see that students are more interested in using English with their peers and they like to talk to the ETA…

(Interview transcription with S4T3, S5T1, S7T1)

This finding is consistent with the findings in Section 4.3.1. Despite increasing the students’ level of confidence in using the language and improving the students’ oral proficiency, the heads of EL panel and EL teachers felt that the ETA Program did not have significant impact on the overall EL proficiency of the students. In fact, these improvements could not be seen in the students’ examination results. In addition, some EL teachers reported that the ETAs did not focus on the teaching of grammatical aspects. For
example head of EL panel from S4 mentioned, “ETA helps in students’ confidence but... as for proficiency, not so much” (interview transcription with head of EL Panel, S4). The statement was supported by S4T4 who stated, “in terms of confidence yes, but like our EL Panel said, she (ETA) does not help much in terms of proficiency... I still cannot see it yet” (interview transcription with S4T4).

Additionally, most of the EL teachers involved in this study mentioned that the ETAs did help in terms of boosting the students’ confidence but they did not provide any sort of positive impact in terms of the students’ exam scores. For instance, S6T1 mentioned that, “She (ETA) does not really help la in terms of exam results but yes in terms of confidence level”. Similarly, the head of EL panel from S8 also revealed that, “There is no doubt that TA8 helps the students to improve their motivation and interest in classroom and also outside of the classroom (co-curricular)… but if you want to say that does it shows in exam, not so much... because she helps in speaking more”.

Some of the EL teachers mentioned that although the ETA Program helped in terms of building the students’ confidence and interest in speaking English language, however, only some ETAs had emphasized on the grammatical aspects of the language. For instance, S3T4 said, “Well, my expectations of the ETA is that they help us to at least... uhm... get the non-native speakers to say a few words, create simple sentences or phrases... However, right now, based on my observation, the students are not showing any progress.” In addition, one of the EL teachers (S5T1) also supported the fact that grammatical aspects were slightly neglected, as she mentioned that, “She (ETA) should give more input on teaching on how to use present tense and past tense. She should give input first before she ask people to produce... uhm... like fill in the blanks and in production stage...”.

The second theme established from the interview session discovered was interaction with the ETA outside of classroom develops students’ confidence in using English. The findings from the interviews show that most ETAs socialised with the students outside of the classrooms and this helped to encourage an EL environment in schools. They stated that ETAs did not limit their interactions within the boundaries of the classrooms. In fact, ETAs took the opportunity to interact with other students during recess time. For instance, S8T1 mentioned, “the ETA presence encourages the EL environment in school and she (ETA) mingles with everyone in the school, not only limited to the teachers and the students”.

Thus, the presence of ETA encouraged students to speak English with them and this intrigued the students to approach them. S4T4 related, “Students are interested in approaching her because outside of the classroom, she reaches out to them. She just randomly goes and sits with them during recess and she speaks to them... You know, in a very relaxed manner... (EL teacher, S4T4)”.

Majority of Malaysian students struggle with spoken English and in the most extreme cases, students might even avoid communicating in the language to evade embarrassment and humiliation (Abdullah, Bakar, and Mahbob, 2012). However, the easy manner of the ETAs had successfully diminished mental barriers and fear experienced by students. In the presence of ETAs, the students were not afraid to speak, make mistakes or being criticized by their peers for not communicating in standard English. From the EL teachers’ standpoint, most of the ETAs often encouraged their students to use the language and provide constructive feedback to the students whenever mistakes were made. To them, ETAs encouraged the students to speak in EL with their peers and with the ETAs themselves. For example the head of EL panel of S7 mentioned:

...before the ETA come into the school, I can see and observe that the students don’t want to speak English outside of the classroom, other than during the English lesson... They don’t want to speak... Even when they are speaking with the English teacher, they speak in Malay... But after TA7 start up the
culture of keep on speaking English, even in broken English, so I can see that in 3 years’ time, our students, even though outside of the classroom, they will come and ask us question in English and we try to explain to them even though they have difficulty to understand…

(Interview transcription with Head of EL Panel, S7)

The presence of ETAs in schools not only helped to improve students’ oral proficiency but they also helped the proficiency of the EL teachers. The EL teachers felt that due to the multiracial settings of the schools, some of them had limited opportunity to use English with fellow EL teachers nor with other colleagues. Hence, they resorted to their mother tongue or Malay language. S2T2 claimed, “…It helps us in terms of speaking and improving our confidence level. All the EL teachers do not speak English all the time… So, when there’s an ETA, we have the chance to improve our English as well…” Besides that, some teachers reported that the ETAs mingled with everyone in the schools, not only with the EL teachers and students. S8T1 explained that “…the ETA in our school mingles with everyone in the school. She is very friendly and goes around greet the office staff, the canteen staff… Sometimes the canteen staff have problems understanding her because her English is too good (laughs)…” The EL teachers felt that the presence of ETAs had created a significant change in the school environment and affected the students and teachers greatly. S2T3 purported that “…erm… In terms of speaking… (mumbling and inaudible) When it comes to speaking, the ETA promote speaking environment in school… Also… I can also improve my speaking skill her as well.”

Next, the third theme found from the interview is co-teach sessions bring positive impacts on both EL teachers and students. Based on the responses gathered from the heads of EL panel and EL teachers, during co-teaching sessions, the ETAs had managed to motivate the students to participate in most of the EL activities and use EL. Even the students from the weakest classes tried their level best to participate in the EL activities despite their poor proficiency. What captured the students’ attentions were the interesting and captivating EL activities conducted by the ETAs during the co-teaching sessions and these have indirectly motivated the students’ participation in class. S6T3 said that “…it’s quite good because I can see the students are interested, they get excited whenever she does anything… like for example, when they do scavenger hunt especially, even students from the last class, the weak ones, they will try to find a group and join the activity…” Activities such as language games that were conducted by the ETAs promoted active learning during TaL and students were quite competitive, which encouraged active involvement in most of the activities conducted. Hence, the TaL process was less stressful and more fun, which motivated and encouraged the students to learn English more effectively.

S9T3: They (the ETA) are here to make learning fun.
S9T5: and it is something different from our normal teaching…
S9T3: and they (the students) are enjoying it. They (ETA) are comfortable and the students are comfortable with the ETA

(Interview Transcription with S9T3 and S9T5)

Next, based on the interviews conducted, the EL teachers felt that their involvement in the ETA Program improved their TaL. One of the EL teachers claimed that she has learned to slow down her teaching in classroom after noticing the ETAs who was co-teaching with her spent an extensive amount of time and effort on teaching and guiding the students instead of rushing through the syllabus. T1 from S3 reported that, “one thing I learn yeah… uhm… is to slow down. Like I’ve shared with some my teachers and also TA3… I said… The way I look at her; one piece of writing can be like over a few periods but for us aa, we
need to do like in a double period; like you introduce to the students, let the students brainstorm, and here comes the writing… But for TA3, she would be just spending one whole lesson talking about one simple thing, and the next lesson she’ll continue the same thing but probably is like producing a sub-elaboration and until the 3rd period or 4th period, comes the writing and the writing probably be like 1 paragraph. But for us yeah, like form 3 and form 5 level, we expect them to write 1 whole piece of essay, in just within a double lesson… After looking at her, I probably learn to slow down because like me, I give them (the students) so much, they also cannot do, cannot produce… Why don’t I slow down to give them more time to absorb the knowledge?”

In addition, most of the EL teachers described that the activities conducted in the classrooms during their co-teach sessions were fun and interesting. They mentioned that the skills introduced by the ETAs were normally assimilated via language games. This further stimulated the students and in turn, motivated them to participate in the classroom activities. S3T4 mentioned that, “Uh… They (the students) like to participate in the activities. They are waiting for the activities actually. So after we finish class, after we do the co-teaching, usually she (ETA) will take 10 to 15 mins to have language games. The students really like it actually… and they try very hard to participate in the activities.” Similarly, T7S4 also reported that the students were interested in the activities conducted by the ETA, as T7 mentioned that, “I am still new as well but I can really see that the students enjoyed the activities conducted by the ETA and they are interested in the games.”

Some of the EL teachers had tried to adapt the teaching method introduced by ETAs into their own TaL. They have gone to an extend of asking for the ETAs’ help to guide them in conducting activities such as language games in their classes as they know that these were able to capture students’ attention and increase their classroom participation. For instance, T7S4 said that, “…Ok. I have 3 years of experience with the ETA. For me, they really helped me in terms of my TaL in the class, especially to get the students’ attention. Also, for lower form, the students really eager to learn and speak English when she’s around…” T5S4 added that she had asked for ETA’s help to guide her in some activities during her TaL. She explained that, “…During the past 7 months while I was with the ETA, I could actually count how many times I have asked her for her help in my TaL. Maybe not for every month but sometimes when I need her help to guide me for some activities.” Other than that, the interview findings reveal that the co-teach sessions had helped the EL teachers to reduce their stress levels during TaL. The cooperation between both ETAs and EL teachers in the classrooms had created a fun learning experience for the students and somehow had redefined the concept of TaL in teaching EL in Malaysia. During the co-teaching sessions, each of them had a role to play - the ETAs were responsible for conducting fun and attention-grabbing activities with the students; while the EL teachers supported them by handling any problems encountered by the students such as when students were unable to comprehend the instructions given by ETAs. With these shared roles, students will receive better guidance and attention from ETAs and EL teachers. For example S4T2 clarified that:

“…I really like that (co-teach) as well. The collaboration makes us feels like the TaL is less stressful… We can give idea to each other… They attract the students and when the students having difficulties in understanding certain lesson or instructions, we slow things down and we also help the ETA to do some translation. So the students have the interest and they can understand. Sometimes they have the interest but don’t understand, it makes the students stressful as well and they don’t see the point of the ETA… like what are they here for?”
Despite the overly positive reviews from the EL teachers, the findings of the current study reveal some flaws in the implementation of ETA Program in Malaysian schools. Based on findings gathered from the interview sessions, some of the EL teachers reported that ETAs in their school were problematic. For instance, one of the EL teachers in a particular school mentioned that the ETA in their school conducted the speaking workshop during TaL session. Speaking workshops were supposedly to be conducted after the schooling hours. T4S6 mentioned that, “…well, we can’t force TA6 to stay back after school because TA6 doesn’t want to… we tried to negotiate with him but… he wouldn’t want to…”

Besides that, some ETAs in certain schools were picky and demanding as they were reluctant to conduct the co-teach sessions in weaker classes and preferring to teach students with good proficiency in English. In addition, some EL teachers claimed that their ETAs did not plan with them before carrying the co-teach sessions, which had upset the EL teachers. There were also claims from some EL teachers that the ETAs in their schools were not active and rarely mingled with the students during recess hours or outside of the classrooms. The chosen ETAs shouldered the responsibilities to improve the language proficiency of the students in schools they were assigned to. The findings of the current study, however, show that the personality of the ETAs play a significant role in ensuring the success of the ETA Program. Although the problems had involved only a minority number of schools and ETA, the persistence of such problems could affect and jeopardise the overall implementation of the ETA Program.

In the next section, the perception of students on the ETA Program was analysed based on the interview data.

Intervies Analysis on the Perception of Students on the ETA Program

Interviews were also carried out with the students in co-teach classes to accumulate their insights on the ETA Program. Based on the interview responses, the first theme that was identified was the positive and encouraging attitude of the ETAs which captured the students’ attention and hearts. Most of the students reported that the ETAs that were assigned in their respective schools were cheerful, happy-go-lucky, and patient when teaching them during co-teach sessions. The positive characteristic of the ETAs encouraged them to learn English during TaL and most of the students like their ETAs because they were patient with them and not as strict compared to their EL teachers. Hence, the students felt more relaxed and most of them were not intimidated while learning EL in the classrooms. Some of the salient characteristics of the ETA described by the students were ‘sporting’, ‘cheerful’, ‘patient’, ‘happy-go-lucky’, ‘friendly’, ‘funny’ and ‘motivational’.

Besides that, the students also mentioned that the teaching approaches utilized by the ETAs were different as compared to their EL teachers. They engaged the students in a more informal manner such as making jokes and doing silly and funny gestures. By doing so, the students said the ETAs eased the tension in the classrooms and made learning EL fun. For instance, STU2 said that, “I like TA6. She is funny and… um… She always make jokes in class, which we really like.” Also, STU3 said, “…she (ETA) likes to make jokes. She doesn’t like to teach in a boring environment. That’s why we understand what she teaches to us.” Through the ETAs’ subtle approaches in teaching the students, they were able to capture the students’ attention and the students in return were able to learn during co-teach sessions. Most of the students preferred ETAs to their EL teachers, mainly because the ETAs were not locals. The fact that the ETAs are from the US and are native speakers of English has sparked the interest of the students and they looked forward to having sessions with the ETAs.
Other than that, some of the students mentioned that the ETAs were sporting and often mingled around with other students during recess. The students were able to learn to speak and communicate with ETAs outside of the classrooms and they said it helped them to be more confident in using EL, as well as improved their communication in English. Findings from the interviews also reveal that most of the ETAs were open minded and willing to share different views and knowledge with the students. This propelled cultural exchange as ETAs often shared knowledge and experience on living in the US with the students.

Next, the second theme derived from the interview sessions was that the EL activities conducted by ETA during TaL were attention grabbing and encouraging. Based on the interview session, it was found that most of the ETAs involved in this study conducted interactive activities such as language games and role-play, rather than the traditional chalk and talk or through worksheets. STU5 explained, “…She (ETA) also loves to make some awesome activities with us and that’s the reason why I love her. She always make something that no other teachers did.” Also, the activities conducted such as language games were purely in English and the students were not allowed to use other languages, which trained and encouraged the students to use EL in classrooms. STU10 clarified that “…TA5 will play a game where no one can use BM, only English. From the games, I also can improve my knowledge about my vocab and my English very well…” In addition, STU4 said, “She knows how not to keep us sleepy in class by doing many educational & fun activities…” It was the interactive activities conducted by ETAs that captured the students’ attention and their interest during the EL lessons. The students considered these interactive activities as fun and enjoyable. STU17 mentioned, “…She (ETA) also loves to make some awesome activities with us and that’s the reason why I adore her.”

Furthermore, the students also mentioned that ETAs provided clearer explanation and used different approaches to deliver the messages or instructions to ensure that the students comprehend them. For example, one of the ETAs used acting to explain the verb ‘drown’ to the students, without translation. For instance, STU9 mentioned that, “…Whatever she (ETA) explained is easily understandable by me and her teaching is effective for me.” Similarly, STU15 said that, “…if there are words that we don’t understand or heard before, TA7 will explain it to us and we understand her explanation easily.” Also, STU6 said that, “When we don’t understand something regarding to the lesson, the ETA will explain step by step until we understand it”. The findings show that the ETAs were patient when dealing with the students and guided them thoroughly during co-teach sessions.

However, some students complained that ETAs sometimes spoke too fast and that they were not able to understand the ETAs’ instructions or explanation. STU8 said that “…sometimes, she talk very fast like ‘syok sendiri’ (self-indulging). I did not understand very well…” Although the ETAs were considered as competent and had executed interesting activities during TaL, some of the students mentioned that some of the activities that the ETAs conducted were boring. STU13 said that, “…she still have a bit of flaws. Sometimes, she talked too fast till I can’t catch up what is actually she wants to tell…” It was natural as a native speaker that an ETA speaks fast and sometimes incomprehensible for the students to comprehend, especially the lower proficiency students. Hence, this indicates that some ETAs were insensitive or unaware of their students’ needs when carrying out the co-teaching sessions with the EL teachers.

Moving on, the third theme that was identified based on the interview sessions was the positive impact of the overall ETA Program towards the students’ confidence and interest in using EL. Many of the students said that the ETA Program helped them to enhance their communication skills, as ETAs were there to speak to them in English and the students could practice their speaking skills with ETAs. As mentioned by STU7 “…in my opinion, if we have the ETA Program, we can learn English easily and quickly…” It also
helps me and teach me to communicate easily.” Also, there were students who claimed that they have learnt a lot of new vocabularies since the ETA Program was introduced in their schools. Some of the students even mentioned that the ETA Program makes them interested in learning EL. Based on the interview sessions conducted with the students, it can be concluded that most of the students were receptive towards the ETA Program and they hope that their schools will be selected for the implementation of ETA Program in the year 2017.

Discussion
The ETA Program generally had a positive impact on the students’ motivation and interest in learning and using English language. Findings from the questionnaire and interview with both heads of EL panel and EL teachers, including the students themselves proved that the ETA program and the presence of ETAs motivated and increased the students’ interest in EL. The success of the program in achieving two of its objective – first objective; to increase students’ interest towards English and thus, improve their communicative skills; and second objectives of the program is to build students’ ability and confidence in using English; are mainly because of the receptiveness and positive attitude of the students towards the ETAs and the ETA Program. Most of the students mentioned that they prefer ETAs over their EL teachers because of the optimistic, encouraging, and enthusiastic attitude and nature of the ETAs. ETAs are generally more understanding and encouraging while teaching the students in the co-teach classes and conducting co-curricular activities. This caused the students to be comfortable with the ETAs and they felt less intimidated while being taught by the ETAs.

In addition, the ETAs often praised the students during co-teaching session for their participation in the activities conducted by the ETAs. The empathy that the ETAs possessed towards the students reduced the students’ anxiety, making them feel accepted, and it formed positive identifications with the speaker of the target language (Schumann, 1975). The ETAs were less strict and constantly provided positive feedbacks that encouraged the students to use EL all the time, despite the grammatical mistakes made by the students. In addition, the encouraging and constructive value and attitude of the ETAs changed the mind-set of the students in the schools. The ETAs highly encouraged the students to speak in English even if they did not speak proper English. The repeated motivation from the ETAs had brought noticeable changes to the students, especially in low proficiency students, where even the most introverted student was able to constantly speak in English although it was not perfect and proper English.

Other than that, the heightened motivation from the students were most likely due to their strong desire to properly communicate in English with the ETAs. This type of motivation is called integrative motivation, where the learners have a desire to be familiar with the speaker of the language or interested in the culture associated with the native speaker. According to several researches conducted such as Liu as cited by Thang et al (2011), it is proclaimed that Malaysian students are generally more instrumentally motivated rather than integratively motivated due to the lack of contact with native speakers. However, with the implementation of ETA Program in Malaysia and with the presence of ETAs as native speakers, it could enhance the integrative motivation for the students to learn English. This is especially for the students who were involved in the ETA Program since Malaysian students are generally receptive and interested in having an English native speaker to teach in the school. In the recorded interview with the EL teachers, most of the students would approach the ETAs as frequent as they can, either during TaL session or recess time. According to the EL teachers, the students were highly interested to get to know
the ETAs and their western culture. Thus, in order to sufficiently communicate with the ETAs, most of the students would try their best to learn English and some of them even forced themselves to speak in English despite that lack of fluency. Hence, the implementation of the ETA Program could be a reason for the students to be motivated to learn English and it provides them an opportunity to practice and use English with a native speaker.

Conclusion
This study has provided some insights on the actual implementation of the ETA Program. It is a commendable effort from the government to improve the EL proficiency of the Malaysian students, especially in the rural areas. Despite the flaws in the overall implementation of the ETA Program, it has successfully motivated most of the students in rural schools to learn and use EL. The program also brought noticeable and positive changes to certain school.

As a conclusion, the findings showed that both head of EL panel and English teachers, as well as the students generally have a positive perception on the overall implementation of the ETA Program in Malaysian secondary schools despite some of the flaws in the program.

References


Book Review: Language And Power: An Introduction To Institutional Discourse

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Abstract
Language and power: an introduction to institutional discourse is a book written by Mayr, Machin, Abousnouga, and Bastow. It is written for readers, teachers, discourse analysts, and researchers interested in the field of discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, and linguistic ideology. The book was published by Continuum International Publishing Group in 2008. Authors of the book try to introduce discourse to undergraduates and entry-level graduates to critical discourse studies. The book examines language and power across a variety of institutional settings, showing how institutions are shaped by discourse and how they in turn have the capacity to create and impose discourses. It comprises 8 chapters which cover a range of issues in discourse including power, discourse and institutions, discourses of higher education, prison discourse, news discourse, and defense discourse.

Keywords: defense discourse, discourse analysis, institutional discourse, linguistic ideology

Introduction
The book Language and Power: An Introduction to Institutional Discourse mainly discusses institutional discourse and investigates this issue from different points of view. It provides broad methodologies and multimodal discourses which can be of significant help for undergraduates and entry-level graduates to critical discourse studies. Four authors contributed to the writing of this book namely, Mayr, Machin, Abousnouga, and Bastow. It is comprised of 8 chapters which include sociohistorical, sociological, critical theoretical, and critical discourse analyses of educational, prison, news, and defense discourses. The first three chapters are by Mayr. The book provides some research especially in British defense discourse and multimodal news discourse.

The first chapter presents a brief introduction to institutional discourse and explains some basic terms such as institution, discourse, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and ideology. The chapter sets the main theme of the book and focuses on New Capitalism as defined by Fairclough, which is “the most recent of a historical series of radical re-structuring through which capitalism has maintained a fundamental continuity,” by introducing economic systems of exchange into social and political institutions and discourses (Fairclough 2003:4). She emphasizes that institutions are a “site for ‘reality construction’”, never letting student readers forget the politically charged critical methods and institutional language to which they are being introduced. This chapter commences from Halliday’s (1994) metafunctions of language and provides an explanation of the stylistic principles of transitivity, modality and theme and talks about the historical convergence of social, linguistic, cultural, and critical theories, but the aim of the chapter is to present the field of CDA for application, not to give a history.
The second chapter addresses the structure of university discourse through applying a Critical Discourse Analysis Approach to the close linguistic analysis of four passages from British universities. Having followed Norman Fairclough’s (1993) notion of universities as enterprises and knowledge as a commodity, the writer comes to the conclusion that British universities are marketized to a large extent. This chapter focuses on the “enterprise culture and discourse [that] involve[s] the reconstruction of a wide range of institutions along business lines”, which has been in existence in British universities since Thatcherism. It explores a wide range of university genres like job advertisements, faculty seminars, website information, and mission statements which address communication skills. This wide range of genres allows for a conceptual discussion of enterprise culture to emerge.

Chapter 3 talks about prison discourse and analyses a cognitive rehabilitation program for prisoners in a Scottish prison. The corpus for this analysis has been gained through attending the prison classes held by trained prison officers. Mayr talks about little changes that occur in the prison system’s identification and coping with cognitive and behavioral shortcomings while showing the inadequacy of a system which focuses only on some behavioral and cognitive practices. This chapter involves Mayr’s own observation research and training manual analysis. This chapter scrutinizes texts mostly through word choice and transitivity to find out “what Cohen (1985:150) has called the ‘new Behaviorism’” (59), where behaviors, not cognitive processes, are treated, and “traditional behaviorist techniques go together with the rhetoric of cognition” (59). Mayr comes to the conclusion that New Behaviorism is compatible with capitalist managerial discourse because the cause of crime is not of significance. Consequently, the social order is not assessed, and management through scrutiny and control becomes rehabilitative programs and paths. Mayr acknowledges that those programs may be a first step to social agency, but maintains that these programs do not offer the required range of cognitive, social, and communication skills for rehabilitation.

Using a CDA approach along with Systemic Functional Linguistics, the writer indicates how grammatical and syntactical forms create meanings about prisoners as ‘common sense’ (p. 60). She doubts whether prisoners are entirely overwhelmed by institutional power implemented through discourse and whether anticipated changes in prisoners’ behaviour can be reached without concerns about their environment. The subsequent chapter is written by David Machin and offers an insight into the broadcasting studio of the media and discusses the myths about journalists as the ‘seeker(s) of truth’ (p. 62) or ‘watchdog(s) for a democratic society’ (p. 84). The writer explains how news items are carefully chosen according to their news value and why journalists seem to depend on official sources, such as Independent Radio News (IRN), instead of investigating a story themselves. He reveals that pictures accompanying newspaper stories are often taken from a commercial image archive and carries out an interesting excursion into a discourse analysis of these pictures. He claims that newspapers record an ‘increasing concentration of private ownership’ (p. 84) which ‘places power in the hands of those who already have institutional power’ (p. 82) and permits them to influence the news in their interests.

Chapter 4 presents a historic and current venue for journalistic activities and contends that as ownership of media has become corporatized, the series of events considered to be important has declined and evaluation is now based upon “institutionally and historically established themes” (67) that eliminates “new” news as well as contextualized event conditions. Due to the prevalence of such established themes, fewer reporters are in the field and more reporters are rewriting stories from the news wire, emphasizing the reportorial distance from contextual conditions. The majority of discourse analysis in the chapter emphasizes rewritings of news stories for different addressees, regions, and event types, with
comprehensive analysis of event increments as small as an hour. This chapter starts the multimodal
discussion of the book. The author introduces the multimodal theory of Kress and van Leeuwen.
Chapter 5 is written by Machin and Mayr and continues the subject of power relation in the media with a
CDA approach to three newspaper articles extracted from the Leicester Mercury in 2005. Following
Wodak’s (2001) discourse-historical approach the writers explicate Leicester’s development into a
multicultural city and how this is reflected by the newspaper. Through analyzing the illustration of social
actors in the texts, the writers maintain that it is of less significance what social actors say compared to
how they are described that affects how readers view them. They mention that the socio-economic
problems of multiculturalism are often considered as being caused by a lack of communication, a view
which veils and simplifies their actual origin. The authors argue that the representation of minorities in
the newspaper is strongly influenced by the neo-liberal discourse of New Labour and promotes a positive
image of the city to attract investment and business. This chapter depicts antiracism and neoliberalism in
the media.

Machin and Mayr focus on news stories and photojournalism from the Leicester Mercury because Leicester
was referred to by the British government as a model of assimilation and also since the paper has
conservative political leanings. The chapter assesses Leicester’s unique immigration patterns that
discriminate it from cities with greater racial tension, allowing the chapter to serve as a fine pedagogical
example of the sociological research consistent with CDA. This chapter examines the complicated
relationship among private ownership, media, and political promotion through the Mercury’s depictions
of immigrants, their relationships with natives, and natives’ opinions on immigration. The authors come
to the conclusion that racism is disregarded and positive representation is at a premium, and these
subjects are an example of how the market can increase acceptance and multiculturalism. However,
media representations background divisive issues and causes of racial conflict; furthermore,
representations typically demonstrate personal agency and individualism while backgrounding social
circumstances, hostility, and marginalization. The authors maintain that “in this model, cohesion and
harmony is about individual choice and talking” (114), not about recognizing and changing social
structures.

Chapter 6, written by Machin and Gill Abousnouga, offers a rather uncommon way of looking at war
memorials in Britain through multimodal CDA and understanding ‘visual signs through association’ (p.
123). The linguistic analysis includes some archival news and civic texts related to war monuments and
memorial inscriptions Regarding the historical context of the First World War, the authors indicate how
the authorities at that time were worried about society’s possible opposing reaction towards the deaths of
millions of young men and constructed discourses in which soldiers were visualized as heroes who
surrendered their lives to God and country. The authors suggest that the style of monuments, suggestive
of ancient Greece, adds to the heroic depiction. The authors connect these memorials, and their
glorification of the ruthless and foul practice of war, with the present hegemonic discourse of war.
The following chapter turns towards Corpus Linguistics (CL). Here, Tony Bastow offers an analysis of
defense speeches by the American armed force. The author maintains that Corpus Linguistics delivers an
impartial empirical approach covering a wide range of texts from CDA with restrictions to a limited
range of texts often selected by the analyst to support his hypothesis, and highlights CL’s usefulness as an
advantage for the process of CDA. Using the Bank of English corpus as a reference corpus, the writer
analyses the exclusive and inclusive function of the pronoun we and then focuses his attention on
binominal phrases where his main focus is on the use of men and women as well as allies and friends.
Finally, he turns his attention on natural environment metaphors as landscape, flood, wind, and sea. This chapter finishes with the conclusion that ‘institutions never present an objective “truth” but construct ‘reality through discourse which seems natural and commonsensical’ (p. 162).

The final chapter is written by Mayr and Bastow, and is particularly beneficial for undergraduate and postgraduate students, as it shows how to design and carry out a small-scale research project in the area of institutional discourse. This manual elucidates how to collect the data, design a questionnaire and do a corpus analysis. As a whole, this book is most remarkable in its wide variety of approaches to institutional discourse and, as Bastow mentions ‘One of the main aims of this book is to show how institutions construct a representation of the world, rather than reflect an objective reality’ (p. 138). This book is an asset to research into institutional discourse. Because it is easy to read and offers a clear and accessible introduction to the topic, it is suggested for those readers who have a desire to gain an overview of the type of research done into institutional discourse until now and some possible approaches to this special type of discourse.

This book explains both the benefits and obligations of CDA’s politics, and the chapters are numerous enough to understand the full power of CDA. The book does not move beyond academic style and focus on the moral and ethical prominence of the critical theory it supports. In contrast, Johnson and Ensslin’s (2007:4) Language in the Media, another title in the Advances in Sociolinguistics series, directly supports linguists’ and critical theorists’ role in public intellectualism. Mayr repeatedly confesses that other discourse systems are restored when New Capitalism flourishes, but such philosophical admissions are hidden in chapter and section summaries. To their credit, Abousnnouga and Machin do offer this urgency and recognition of substitute systems in their chapter on war monuments.

References
Value Formation Process Of Language Learners Through Lingvo-Cultural Dictionaries

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to examine the process of value formation in its orientation to the linguistic consciousness of members of a certain socio-cultural community as a basis for linguistic-cultural dictionaries. This intends study of the dependence of values of lexical units from the corresponding normative value system of nation representatives. The installation on the interpretation of strange, unknown culture is fundamentally different from the understanding of the phenomena during the communication. So the fragments of foreign culture are learned by transferring from one normative value system to another. Here we can observe the process of defamiliarization - the identification of unexpected, strange in comparison with the usual ways of the world discovery together with the identification of an unknown, unfamiliar with a known, traditional.

Key words: student, learning, linguistics, vocabulary, value, socio-cultural community

Introduction
The interest to foreign languages is continuously rising at present. New conditions of life open possibilities to business connections, private contacts at all levels, travelling, distant and on-line learning and many others. Languages present in all spheres of social and private life as real means of international communication but not just a possibility to get in touch with literature and/or science of different nations.

To solve new tasks in communication it is obvious that study a live language as a means of communication is impossible without study of culture of that nation which uses this language in the communication. It explains the constant increase in the use of different linguistic-cultural dictionaries. The principal feature of such dictionaries is a correlation of its interpretations with a particular cultural tradition. Each interpretation captures an interpretation of the referent, which reflects the socio-stereotyped experience of the nation. So the mystery of the nationality of each nation is not in their clothes and food, but in their understanding of the world. To correctly understand any society, firstly we should understand its essence, its peculiarity. It is possible to do after study and evaluation of the amount of rule that holds this society together.

Topicality and significance of research

This phenomenon is explained by the peculiarities of the formation of values in the minds of participants in intercultural communication. It should be noted the fact that the author of a dictionary plays the role of a “mediator” between the two socio-cultural communities. The author should identify the importance of
lexical units formed in the minds of the representatives of one language and one culture, and brought it to the interpretation of the representatives of other language and other culture.

The aim of the research
The examination of the process of value formation in its orientation to the linguistic consciousness of members of a certain socio-cultural community as a basis for linguistic-cultural dictionaries is the aim of the research.

Objectives of the research
As objectives were proposed the followings:
- study the terms “culture”, “cultural tradition”, “meaning” and “significance” and their difference, “culturally-marked vocabulary”;
- study a normative value system as a phenomenon and its influence on semantization of culturally-marked vocabulary;
- study cultural traditions as the experience expressed in the social stereotypes of any society;
- study cultural-markedness as a characteristic of vocabulary of linguistic-cultural dictionaries;
- study the processes of decoding of culturally-marked vocabulary.

Methods
During the research there were used several theoretical methods:
- critical analysis of linguistic literature,
- analysis of various materials on culturally-marked vocabulary, meaning and significance of words,
- selection and analysis of linguistic-cultural dictionaries,
- search and analysis studies on the subject under the research.

Theoretical Framework
National culture as complex system
We consider the sphere of any national culture as the complex system of values where social-cultural activities and social relationship are presented. Any phenomenon, any element of reality converted and adopted to activity becomes an element of national culture and acquires definite meaning to define nation. The process of acquisition of cultural elements presents here as a purposeful activity to identify integral structures in the concrete system of normative values. We understand this system as a specific way of activity, as a mechanism of social normalization. The results of interpretation of reality, meditatively corresponding to a normative value system, are fixed on the level of language in the values of lexical units, which are derived from the corresponding meanings.

Meaning and significance
Without going into detail here on the different concepts of the meaning and significance [Slusareva, 1963; Melnikov, 1971; Bondarenko, 1978], it is necessary to emphasize only the other side of this issue, which has a direct relevance to our understanding of the importance of culturally-marked vocabulary. The meaning is understood by us as a bridge between reality and sense of the word. It is the part of the individual activity, which is determined by own vital relationship of an individual. It is not contained within the meaning and may not arise from the meaning. The meaning does not come from significance,
but from life and activity [Leontiev, 1965]. Thus, we consider meaning as a derivative from sense, as a form of sense actualization, and actualization of socio-deterministic experience at the level of language. Formation of values in the consciousness of native speakers is not limited to the accumulation of the amount of knowledge about the referent, to the empirical facts and to the explanation the facts of the theory, but it has the active basis inseparable from the practical activity of native speakers, directed to the appropriate object, and carried out in the context of the normative value system of national culture. Culture is a complex system of values, a set of, or rather, a hierarchical sequence of many normative value systems. Among them the main is the normative value system associated with immediate practical activity, with scientific and technical knowledge and skills, with an ideology, with an aesthetic attitude to reality, etc.

Semantics of corresponding word
It follows that the semantics of the corresponding word is determined by the type of the normative value system in which the process of cognition exists. The question about the specifics of the value of culturally-marked vocabulary in relation to other groups of the vocabulary of the language should be resolved, therefore, not through conjugation with a certain extra-linguistic area, but it should be based on the determination of the regulatory system of values, in the context of which the interpretation of the corresponding cultural fact happens and thus the formation of values of the lexical unit we are interested in, не закончено

It is obvious that as a normative value system cannot act nor the whole national culture as a whole, which is a combination of different ways of understanding reality, nor any one of the regulatory systems of values that represent ways of thinking about reality in the context of the immediate practical activity or other activities: scientific, technical, ideological, etc. However, it is not difficult to see that the culturally-marked vocabulary covers almost all human activities. And the content side of vocabulary fixes such understanding of a referent, which is different from their understanding in the framework of any other normative value system. From the perspective of a culture-oriented linguistics the interpretation of the words reflects particular interpretation of referent inherent to members of a particular cultural society, i.e. the conjugation of its judgment with a cultural tradition.

Cultural tradition
The cultural tradition is the core of culture, the mechanism of cultural activities, through which the formation of the corresponding meanings and values of the culturally-marked vocabulary takes place. According to this, cultural tradition represents such informative characteristic of culture that expresses equally (without exception) all spheres of social life. These spheres contain stereotyped or group adopted social experience.

Thus, the cultural tradition is the experience expressed in the social stereotypes of organized group. By the space-time transmission this experience is accumulated and produced in a variety of human groups [Markaryan, 1983]. Various normative value systems of culture represent its extensive parameter, its quantitative, its volumetric aspect, so the cultural tradition provides their “vertical” interaction, the understanding of culture in its various subsystems, which forms a “picture” of culture [Paliy, 1980; Petrov, 1981].

Dependence of the values from the corresponding normative value system
The dependence of the values of lexical units from the corresponding normative value system characterizes each group of vocabulary. This fact by itself provides academic interest as long as the communication is carried out in the framework of its “own” normative value system. Going beyond this system inevitably leads to partial or complete loss of information content of lexical units. This obvious problem makes scientists to look for ways to solve it using method of reformulation. For example, to create non-fiction texts, making specific terminology accessible for perception of the ordinary person, not a professional.

**Cultural-markedness as a phenomenon**

Cultural-markedness is also a permanent feature of the vocabulary values we are interested in. This feature exists due to the objective characteristics of the cognitive process, mediated by the corresponding cultural tradition. However, within this property intercultural communication does not create any hindrance, showing up only in the process of intercultural communication in the decoding of the values of the national foreign language vocabulary marked communicants.

It is appropriate to recall that the origin of the problem of culturally-marked vocabulary (first in the practice and theory of translation) is connected with the peculiarity of its “behavior” in the framework of cross-cultural communication. Here we can observe the partial or complete loss of information content of lexical units in the perception of the members of different sociocultural communities. Schematically, intercultural communication can be represented as the intersection (overlay) of two laps - two cultural and linguistic spaces of communicants. In this case we are dealing with two opposing trends - the large space of the intersection of the cultural traditions of the communicants is, the closer the value of the destination in the minds of foreign language and native speakers (?). At the same time corresponded information has less value for the recipient. Informative value of the lexical unit for the recipient is not connected to the intersecting part, which is presented by the necessary basis for initial communication, but to the information transfer between the disjoint parts. So culturally-marked vocabulary presents in the situations of all human communication but at more complex level. It is possible due to the hypothesis of initial non-identity of the speaker and the recipient during the ordinary communication. And the more difficult and inadequate is translation of one of the disjoint spaces on the language of the other person, the more valuable in the information and social terms becomes a fact of this paradoxical communication [Lotman, 1992].

**Decoding the values of culturally-marked vocabulary**

Considering the process of decoding the values of culturally-marked vocabulary in the mind of people of other cultural tradition, we pass from the normative value system where the value was created, to other normative value system where it is reconstructed. The process of values reconstruction correlates with the process of its formation. The last is carried out in the mind labeled by one cultural tradition, by means of interpretation of different cultural tradition, socio-cultural realities of other community.

The installation on the interpretation of strange, unknown culture is fundamentally different from the understanding of the phenomena during the communication in the frame of own culture. The attempt to include information in its known normative value systems that will inevitably lead to inadequate results is considered to be unacceptable. It is also useless to break the connection with own normative value system and accept a way of thinking characterizing a different socio-cultural community that completely cannot be achieved. Formation of the meanings of culturally-marked vocabulary in the minds of foreign
language communicants is a result of the collision of “usual” and “unusual”. It is the side of meaning, which in philosophy is defined as defamiliarization - on the one hand, the identification of unexpected, strange in comparison with the usual ways of the world discovery, on the other, the identification of an unknown, unfamiliar with a known, traditional [Tulchinskiy, 1980].

So the idea that the reformulation of foreign culture in terms of own lingvo cultural experience is similar to the cognition of the unknown facts of the culture, may be accepted with the important proviso that in the latter case, the transfer of mental operations carried out within their own normative value system, while the fragments of foreign culture are learned by transferring from one normative value system to another. On the one hand, this transfer facilitates other cultures facts, and on the other, may lead to inadequate results.

Conclusion
Thus, the main feature of the formation of value of culturally-marked vocabulary in the minds of native speakers we see in the determinism of this process by certain cultural tradition. So culturally-marked vocabulary has the following property of its value - to fix the social stereotype of the experience of the nation.

The formation of culturally-marked meanings of lexical units in the minds of other socio-cultural community members occurs through a mechanism of defamiliarization (estrangement). This phenomenon reveals new, unexpected sides in the process of understanding the fact of another culture as well as those properties which allow finding analogues in the framework of their own socio-determined experience. It is important to emphasize that the process of defamiliarization takes place in parallel with the alignment of the new series of semantic defamiliarized meanings, i.e. fixing process [Gusev, 1985]. Consequently, the understanding of the facts of other cultural tradition is a reinterpretation, the simultaneous implementation of defamiliarization and fixation.

Such a mechanism of semantic development of foreign language culturally-marked vocabulary defines the main feature of the procedure "secondary" established values, which are like copies of the originals, with even the most successful of these copies of "burdened" inevitably different (with respect to the study) cultural tradition.

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Analysis Of Postmodern Text When Teaching Russian As A Second Native Language

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Abstract
The term “Russian as a second native language” is generally understood as Russian under the conditions of bilingualism outside the borders of Russia. We developed a special technique for teaching students, whose native language is Russian, but they have almost totally forgotten, “forced out”, it by the German language. It is inappropriate to view these students as learning Russian as a foreign language, but the technique for teaching Russian as a native language is not suitable for them. The article is based on our personal experience of teaching Russian in Germany.
The following research methods were used: descriptive and analytical methods, social and pedagogical methods, modeling of didactic materials.
Addressing fictional texts is essential for acquisition of language skills. Students must develop an understanding of different literary schools and styles. As our teaching experience shows, students read postmodern texts with great interest, but they face considerable difficulties when understanding them. The specific characteristics of postmodernism are discussed in the article. The aim of the research is to develop methodical recommendations for teaching students to analyze the postmodern text. The principles of textual analysis are shown based on V. Pelevin’s story “Nika”.
We suggest using non-adapted texts for the analysis. At the same time, it is necessary to work carefully on removal of language difficulties and culturological commentaries. The ultimate goal of the teacher is to teach students to read and analyze postmodern texts by themselves.

Keywords: fictional text, postmodernism, philological analysis, V. Pelevin, Russian as second native language, Russian background, RSL technique.

Introduction
Fictional texts are especially important for teaching Russian as a foreign language. “Texts, being the highest unit of teaching speaking skills, play an important role during lessons: they not only act as an object for observation of the linguistic facts, a sample of a certain message type, material for training, means of developing skills in all types of speech activity, but also form a source of cultural information” [1, page 141].
To date, the technique for teaching foreign students to read has been rather well developed [2, 3, etc.]. In this article, we consider the specifics of using fictional texts when teaching Russian as a second native language. We rely on our personal experience at Justus Liebig University Giessen (Germany).
In today’s Germany, a special group of students, which is called “students with a Russian / Russian-speaking background” [4] by N. A. Ermakova, has occurred. These students are, as a rule, descendants of people from Russia, Kazakhstan, and other republics. Their language practice is limited to their families. Most of them know Russian at the level sufficient for communication at home and speak without any
accent. However, since these students never studied Russian, they have a limited stock of lexicon, make grammatical mistakes in speech, and are not familiar with the rules of Russian spelling. Their knowledge of the Russian culture is often disorganized. The above reasons indicate that it is impossible to view these students as those who learn Russian as a foreign language, but the technique of teaching Russian as a native language is also not suitable for them. Thus, it is urgent to develop a technique of working with students “having the Russian background”.

In our opinion, it is necessary to pay special attention to broadening the lexicon of such students, developing skills of making texts of different functional styles, abilities to express their thoughts in a competent and logical way. A special role in the development of these abilities is played by fictional texts. Previously, researchers have repeatedly emphasized the importance of using fictional texts in teaching a non-native language [5, 6, 7, 8].

When choosing texts for reading, the teacher relies on their cultural importance, informative value, cogitability for students, etc. The preferences of students should be also taken into account; high motivation is an important factor in language acquisition. As our personal experience shows, students read texts of modern literature, including postmodern ones, with great interest. However, the literature of a postmodernism is very difficult for understanding. The purpose of our research is to develop a technique of teaching students “with the Russian background”, as well as to make recommendations for other teachers concerning working with students on analysis of the postmodern text.

Materials and methods
Possible forms of working with the postmodern text are demonstrated based on the analysis of V. Pelevin’s story “Nika”. This story represents most brightly the features of the literature of postmodernism: contains many allusions, reminiscences and actually represents the author’s game with the reader. Without careful work under the guidance of the teacher, a lot of things in the story will remain unclear for students. Having understood the analysis technique, students should develop skills to analyze similar texts in the future.

The following research methods we used: descriptive and analytical methods, social and pedagogical methods, as well as modeling of didactic materials. The use of these methods allowed to fulfill the purpose of the research.

Results
The researchers emphasize such features of postmodern texts as uncertainty, “labyrinth of meanings” (at the level of contents), fragmentariness and unmotivated cutting principle (at the level of composition), polytextualism, saturation of the text with non-textual allusions, reminiscences, wide culturological context, irony showing the plurality of the world and person, game as a way of existence in the reality and art [9]. All this creates a certain complexity for understanding the text, at the linguistic and culturological levels. Therefore, it is necessary to start the analysis of such texts only after the acquaintance to the traditional Russian literature.

In V. Pelevin’s story “Nika”, the intertextal relations with various works are traced, but “the central text, by means of which the writer creates mystification and plays with the reader, is I.A. Bunin’s story “Light Breathing” [10]. Therefore, it is desirable to base the program of the course so that students read I.A. Bunin’s story before it starts. Otherwise, they might fail to understand most allusions.
At the stage of pretext work, the teacher informs students about the author. “Victor Pelevin is one of the most popular Russian writers nowadays; in 2011 he was nominated for the Nobel Prize in Literature. “Generation P” and “The Buddha’s Little Finger” are included in the courses on contemporary postmodern literature in many universities” [11, page 130]. Its style is very original, which has been numerously pointed out by the researchers [12]. According to the literary critics, V. Pelevin returned the reader to the Russian literature. When students become familiar with V. Pelevin’s works, it is possible to ask them to express their opinion on his works. Then it is necessary to give students an idea about the features of postmodern text, explain the value of the terms “reminiscence”, “allusion”, “intertextuality”. Students should read the story in advance at home. It is possible to suggest them to try to find intertextual relations with I.A. Bunin’s story “Light Breathing”.

The next lesson can be started with the question of whether students liked the story. As a rule, some people like it, while others dislike the plot, but nobody remains indifferent. It is necessary to find out what was unclear in the text and to comment on certain areas, which are difficult for understanding.

After language difficulties are eased, it is possible to start philological analysis. It is necessary to draw a parallel with I.A. Bunin’s story “Light Breathing”, as well as to define the artistic function of the first paragraph in V. Pelevin’s story. It is necessary to draw the attention of students that the relation with I.A. Bunin’s text is necessary for the author to direct the reader on a false way, adjust on the fact that the story concerns the relationship between the man and woman. At the same time, starting from the first lines, it seems that V. Pelevin laughs at the reader, changing the tone from ennobled to pragmatic (“Теперь, когда её лёгкое дыхание снова рассеялось в мире, в этом облачном небе, в этом холодном венением ветре, и на моих колениях лежит тяжёлый, как силикатный кирпич, том Бунина…”) [13].

Then it is possible to transfer to analysis of the images of the storyteller and main character. It is necessary to ask students to describe the storyteller, how they imagine him, and to comment upon the opinion of researchers: “Он — погребённый под грузом культурных напластований и собственного всепроникающего аналитизма, страдающий от одиночества гуманитарий. Она — tabula rasa, не испорченная цивилизацией и образованием, естественная и не склонная к рефлексии. Он старше её не только по физическому, но и по «культурному» возрасту: кажется, он стар, как стоящая за ним европейская культура. Он прячется в башне из слоновой кости от пошлости окружающей жизни (<...> автор настоячиво обозначает пределы замкнутого пространства, в котором герой чувствует себя комфортно и в безопасности). Она во внешнем мире — как рыба в воде, и прозорливому читателю становится за Неё страшно: этот мир опасен, особенно для простодушных и невинных” [14].

When describing the image of the main character, students should write out all phrases about her and divide them into two groups: description of the woman and a cat. Analyzing the tools used to create the image of Nika, it is possible to single out the author’s original techniques: occasionally “mocking” the main character, he as if hints that she is not a person, but simultaneously skillfully masks it with tongue slips (“в её животном — если вдуматься — бытий” [13]) or ambiguous phrases that are not widely accepted to describe a person (“ни разу я не помню ей с книгой”) [13].

Furthermore, it is necessary to draw the attention of students to language game, such as the use of the verb “дрессировать” in direct and figurative meanings. It is possible to ask students a question: why is not easy for the reader to guess that the story is about an animal based on the phrase “Ты совершенно не умеешь их дрессировать”? 
Revealing the conflict of the story, students should think over the following questions. How does the author prepare the reader for the tragic end? Is the storyteller guilty in Nika’s death? What does he think about it? To answer these questions, it is necessary to return to comparison with I.A. Bunin’s story and to track the intertextual relations, having restored the chain of events of both stories.

It is also necessary to remind students that the keywords in I.A. Bunin’s story are “дыхание”, “ветер”, “дуть”. It is interesting to track as V. Pelevin plays with them, creating the parody of the I.A. Bunin’s text. It is necessary to discuss the title of the story with students and to recall what other works of the Russian literature are entitled as the main characters. Moreover, students should develop an idea of the traditions of the image of a cat in mythology and the Russian literature. It will help them to answer the question of why the cat was made the main character of the story by the author.

It is necessary to track what other reminiscences and allusions are present in V. Pelevin’s story and to reveal their role in the text. Students can perform this activity with the help of the teacher. Finally, it is necessary to discuss the essence of this story, to find out how students understand its plot. Certainly, the teacher will hear different opinions, because V. Pelevin’s texts “can be interpreted in different ways, there is only one restriction: the author’s position, the author’s relation to the described object does not have an unambiguous definition. This author cannot attribute one point of view to the detriment of all we designate; V. Pelevin’s texts allow different interpretations, they, if you wish, represent a school of pluralism at which both the literary critic and the academic philologist will learn to recognize the right for existence of different point of view” [14].

In conclusion, it is possible to ask students to comment on the statement of researchers: “Pelevin remained faithful to himself: he achieved it that any reader who reads (and understands) his story will be shocked. And reader’s is as stronger as better they know the world of literature, history, and culture. Possibly, the main (and may be the only one?) intention of the author consisted in it intention of the author” [14].

As homework, it is possible to suggest students to read V. Pelevin’s story “Sigmund in a Café”, which is based on the same principle, as “Nika”, and to track all means for creating mystification in this story. These are only some highlights, on which it is necessary to base the analysis of V. Pelevin’s story “Nika”. Certainly, the work on the text can be expanded with search of means of expressiveness, examples of unusual word compatibility, author’s irony, etc. Besides, it is possible to offer students a task aimed at development of the language competence, for example: pick up synonyms to the selected words, check yourself in the text: 1. Я стал за ней следить (в тексте – шпионить). 2. Я ощушил беспокойство (чувствовал). 3. Я увидел огромную овчарку, молча бегущую по газону (несущуюся), etc.

Discussion

The literature of postmodernism is rather difficult for perception by the foreign-language audience. Such features of postmodern works as intertextuality, existence of a large number of extratextual allusions and reminiscences, inclusiveness in a wide culturological context, artistic touches (a language game, irony, etc.) complicate perception of the text. The intertextuality presents the greatest difficulty as with many works they are unfamiliar for foreign students. According to I. I. Yatsenko, “in the conditions of a lesson it is expedient to allocate the main intertext and to subordinate the analysis of the text of one intertextual communication” [10]. We agree with the researcher, however we consider that students “with the Russian background” should still read the original texts supplied with detailed comments. When language difficulties appear, students can address dictionaries: both explanatory and translation.
obviously important to develop in students the ability and habit to use dictionaries as pointed out by G. M. Nurullin, Z.F.Yusupov [15].

The understanding of the text by foreign students is also complicated due to a large number of colloquial words which are widely used in postmodern texts. However, students “with the Russian background” usually know colloquial lexicon. Besides, they are familiar with some cultural realities of Russia. Thus, we recommend using unadapted texts for teaching Russian as a second native language to students.

Conclusions
Based on V. Pelevin’s story “Nika”, the technique of working with the postmodern text during lessons in Russian as a second native language is shown. The text which students read at home has to be supplied with detailed comments. During the lesson, the teacher should explain fragments difficult for understanding. During the analysis of the story conflict, the system of images is revealed, intertextual relations are traced. Students should learn how to deal with such concepts as inter-textuality, reminiscences, allusions, etc. The story is, as a rule, perceived by readers ambiguously and, therefore, causes rough discussions during which the ability to conduct the reasoned dispute is perfected, as well as to competently formulate the idea.

Thus, the postmodern fictional text can serve as the didactic tutorial: first, on the basis of the text, speech skills are developed and improved; secondly, students build up lexicon; thirdly, they broaden the horizons, learn about the culture of Russia and, at last, become spiritually richer, and erudition is one of qualities of the cultural person.

Acknowledgements
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Teaching Productive Philological Reading On The Basis Of Problem Search Tasks

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Abstract
The article deals with philological culturally oriented reading and the technology of problem-search tasks. The author describes the main features of philological reading in comparison with a traditional reading taught at secondary schools. The culturally oriented character of philological reading is shown. The article explores the methodological aspect of the influence of the introduction of philological reading into the teaching process. The practical part of the research is based upon the results obtained during the experiment in one of the secondary schools. The influence of the use of problem-search tasks and philological reading on the outcome of teaching is under study. The comparison of the results in experimental and control groups show that teaching productive philological reading contributes to the process of language acquisition and helps to make progress in language learning. Quantitative data are compared and analyzed to reveal effectiveness of the use of the method of problem-search tasks.

Key words: productive philological reading, experiment, the technology of problem-search tasks, language, culture, new tendencies in language teaching

Introduction

It is difficult to overestimate the importance of reading in the process of independent work in language teaching. Reading is one of the main communicative activities in a situation when one is trying to learn a foreign language independently. So it may perform different functions: that of the goal of teaching a foreign language, that of the means of learning a foreign language and culture and in the conditions of in-depth learning that of the means of informational, educational and professionally oriented activity of a learner. It is also a means of self-education and a re-creative activity (Knyazev, p. 156).

As reading is a deeply personal type of communication with the text the culture of reading and the culture of a reading person are determined by the level of perfection of reading as a speech activity on the one hand, and the degree of maturity of a reader as an individual on the other hand. From the point of view of communicative culture in general it is important how widely this or that individual uses reading in a foreign language in different spheres of his or her activity. The culture of a reader may be defined as the need in reading as a specific form of communication with the world, a diversity of needs in reading as well as a wide range of interests, complicated structure of the motives of reading. The culture of reading as such finds its realization in the effective use of various strategies of reading in accordance with the goals and conditions of a particular activity. One may say that in the conditions of self-education culture and language are seen primarily and, in some cases, only through the text.

Methods
While learning a foreign language students use texts from fiction and mass-media, which are treated as sources not only of informative, but also linguistic and philological information. Meanwhile a text is a material for such an important learning activity as philological reading. Philological reading is a specific type of reading aimed at processing philological information which this or that text contains. Therefore the notion of philological reading comprises various aspects of learning
the culture of the people and their national language through texts. Philological reading in teaching foreign languages as a phenomenon has not been investigated enough. In philological reading the object of research is represented by literary, cultural and linguistic cultural information (special facts, notions, realities, communicative situations, speech clichés, describing social and cultural behavior). The aim of this type of reading is understood as learning the culture of the people through language represented in the text as a product of linguistic culture.

Philological reading combines in itself practical and educational aspects of learning a foreign language, i.e. both language skills as such and knowledge about culture. In other words, the processing of linguistic and philological information by the reader presupposes language skills and speech habits connected with understanding textual information. It also involves getting background knowledge related to the target language and its culture as well as correlating this knowledge with the native language and culture. From this point of view philological reading may be seen as a means of forming intercultural competence.

Philological reading provides for the conditions for more adequate and deeper understanding of the text and knowledge about the concrete facts of culture of native-speakers of the language (Khoziev, p. 14). It must be noted that philological reading is primarily connected with fiction and press as according to linguistic data the texts of these genres render information about the country and culture. The information about the country and culture finds its expression on the lexical level because most of this information is preserved in the vocabulary. Consequently philological reading involves the analysis of a specific language means and text interpretation. The text here is understood as a whole from the point of view of expressing information about the country and linguistic aspects of culture.

The peculiarities of the national culture are reflected in the lexical units of the foreign language which have no equivalents in the native language. As far as English as a foreign language for speakers of Russian is concerned examples here may be represented by “background words” (pub, tutor, kilt, pun) and phraseological units (Dutch bargain, Dutch treat, to go Dutch). Speaking about philological reading special importance should be attached to revealing the cultural component in key words which firstly render culturally specific notions and secondly coincide with the same words in a native language in lexical meanings, but greatly differ in cultural meanings.

The English word *privacy* may serve as an example here. In English-Russian dictionaries the word “privacy” is translated in the meaning of “loneliness, solitariness, withdrawing into oneself”. In the dictionary of American language and culture “privacy” is explained as “the desirable state of being away from other people, so that they cannot see or hear what one is doing, interest themselves in one’s affairs etc. In many western countries this is usually given particular value value and people expect to have their privacy respected by others”.

A. Vezhbizhkaya explains the meaning of the word combination “*to have privacy*” in the following way: “to be able to do certain things unobserved by other people, as everyone would want and need to...it is assumed that every individual would want to have a little wall around him/her...at least part of the time.. it is perfectly natural and very important”. As one can easily notice these two explanations are absolutely different. The reason for this is the absence of a notion even more or less similar to “privacy” in Russian culture. *Privacy* is not loneliness, but it is personal freedom, independence and self-reliance. It is a priority of personal interests in the system of values of an individual and establishing a personal control over these values without any interference from outside. This is one of the words expressing such value as “personal freedom and independence of a personality” in Anglo-American culture (Mirolyubov).
One more aspect which deserves the attention of Russian learners of English is the culture-oriented research of some English verbs. The comparison of verbs expressing emotions in English and Russian shows that in English speaking cultures emotional behavior meets disapproval. This fact may be illustrated by negative connotations of some intransitive verbs of emotions, such as to sulk, to fret, to fume, to rave. For people belonging to English speaking cultures outward expression of emotions is not typical. The majority of English verbs of emotions are verbs of state, not verbs of action. The English people prefer to say to be glad, to be sad, to be angry rather than to rejoice, to pine or to fume. The reason for this is that in British and especially in American cultural tradition emotions are associated with non-rationalism, chaos, subjectivity. At the same time the Russian language is rich with active verbs of emotions indicating willful and purposeful sinking into the state of emotions. English-speaking cultures do not approve of verbal expression of emotions whereas in Russian cultures this is one of the functions of speech. The active character of the verbs of emotions is particularly important on the background of prevailing passive constructions (Kay).

Results
Using the technology of problem-search tasks as a means of forming the habits of productive philological reading in a foreign language
The analysis of theoretical and practical experience of independent work on philological reading in a foreign language give the ground for detailed description of the technology of problem-search tasks as a means of forming educational skills of productive philological reading. Here the technology of productive educational activity in teaching foreign languages is understood as system organization of educational process which realized on the basis of a self-management of a student and self-esteem. This type of organization creates the conditions for free choice and decision making, creative environment in learning a foreign language and is aimed at the creation of a personal speech product.
The pedagogical and psychological theory of learning tasks suggests the principles of the implementation of the technology of problem-search tasks. These principles can be formulated in the following way.
The content of a problem task and its main features are formed by real objective and communicative situation and a cognitive problem. A learning task is aimed at finding new knowledge, skills and ways of learning activity. Another expected outcome is an expected speech problem which is important for particular educational needs of a learner. All this stimulates creative self-expression of learners and adds to creativity of the educational process in general.
The product of a productive philological reading is represented by knowledge in a foreign language, skills of productive philological reading and ways of making problem-search tasks (Yelizarova). Definite types of problem-search tasks are singled out: 1) linguistic types of information retrieval character connected with independent work at a foreign language skills (collecting and storing of language means, linguistic and philological reading) 2) information-cognitive (communicative) tasks, related to independent work with philological reading and creative tasks 3) practice-oriented tasks dealing with adapting exercises for oneself (Kolechenko).
The formation of a technological base of the educational and cognitive competence in teaching a foreign language is connected with the development of general education methods and strategies of independent work. The work at philological reading should be based upon problem solving tasks. As our experiment has shown the types of assignments suggested in this paper can serve as a basis for the formation of a communicative competence.
We offer the following system of problem solving tasks for teaching philological reading: problem tasks or tasks-paradoxes (finding the message of the text, interpreting the text, disclosing the problem meaning of a language unit), participation in intellectual and language games, transformation of information in the text, tasks with the information missing from the text, tasks for restoring the information in the text (Rudenko).

Verifying experiment

A verifying stage of the experiment was based upon a system of methods of analysis. To evaluate the level of formation of personal qualities the method of expert evaluation was used. The role of experts was played by secondary school teachers of foreign languages. The level of the development of general educational skills was estimated with the help of the list of evaluation in accordance with the four levels:

- a high level (4-5 points) means an excellent level of the development of a skill belonging to the number of general educational skills of educational cognitive competence;
- a good level (3-4 points):
- a middle level (2-3 points) means a satisfactory level of the skill formation, the necessity of being helped by the teacher or classmates in the process of independent reading;
- a low level (1-2) points presupposes unsatisfactory possession of a skill belonging to the category of general educational skills.

The evaluation of the level of the formation of special skills of educational cognitive competence is made in the same way. To estimate the degree of formation of the educational cognitive competence during the verifying stage of the experiment we used a test which consisted of assignments aimed at determining the level of formation of general educational and special skills of learners (Appendix 1).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comparing and classifying facts</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding a fact, argument, example, a conclusion of the author etc.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing the information from the text</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalizing facts</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the importance of the information</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizing the details in the text</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Correlating facts and classifying them in accordance with the logical task | 3.2 | 3
Defining the main idea of the text and the author’s message | 3.6 | 3.5
Expressing one’s attitude towards the information | 3.4 | 3.6
Separating pieces of the basic information from pieces of information of minor importance | 2.9 | 2.8
Making a plan of the text | 3.7 | 3.8
Building up a thematic notional, logical or imaginary row of the key facts, phrases and words of the text | 2.7 | 2.6
Making conclusions | 3.2 | 3.1

Table 2

The evaluation of the level of the formation of special skills of educational cognitive competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills of using the vocabulary</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrazing</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singling out meaningful, logical and inter-phrasal means of connection</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singling out thematic, notional chains of words</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding new meanings in the text</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looking for and singling out the necessary meanings (language means) in accordance with certain relevant features</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlating pieces of the written text with the communicative task of the writer</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining the meaning in connection with the main idea of the text</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining expressive means, the author’s individual features, the specific peculiarities of the text</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining the stylistic peculiarities of the text from the point of view of the author’s message</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlating a new meaning with other meanings of the same kind</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building up a system of synonymous language means</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building up a system of opposite meanings</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining linguistic and cultural information expressed by lexical gaps</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlating realia with historic and socio-cultural context</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining the meaning of phraseological units</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining the meaning of language means reflecting the mentality of other nations</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and understanding of cultural images, symbols, names, basic categories</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it may be seen in Tables 1 and 2 in experimental group some indices are a little bit higher than in control group (3.1-3.0), the other indices are lower (2.8-2.9) and some indices are the same (2.5-2.5). However, there are no authentic data about the differences between the groups. Almost identical results of evaluation of the initial level of the development of the skills forming educational cognitive competence in experimental and control groups prove the representativity of the samples.

Table 3

The evaluation of the personal qualities at the initial stage of the experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The types of personal qualities</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive qualities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical cognition</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual thinking</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forecasting</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological (organizational) qualities</td>
<td></td>
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To define the dynamics of the formation of educational cognitive competence and relevant qualities of the personality we used tests and questionnaires both at the pre-experimental and post-experimental stage. To compare the obtained data the above-mentioned methods have been used.

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Table 4

The dynamics of the development of general educational skills of educational cognitive competence

Discussion
Our research showed an increase in productivity of self-controlled (independent) reading according to the above-mentioned parameters. Comparing the results obtained in both experimental and control groups gave us a chance to prove the effectiveness of teaching reading on the basis of the technology of problem-search tasks.

Conclusion
In this paper we gave the definition of productive philological reading by which we understand a specific type of independent reading aimed at processing philological information of the text with the help of certain techniques of organization of speech activity.

The technology of problem-search tasks is used for the formation of educational skills of productive philological reading. The improvement of the co-efficient of productivity may be observed at the stage of verifying experiment. Comparing the results of the controlled and experimental groups provided the data for illustrating the effectiveness of teaching individual reading on the basis of the technology of problem-search tasks.

The technology of problem-search tasks helps to master not only the language but the culture of the people as well. A conclusion about the effectiveness of the method of teaching productive philological reading on the basis of the technology of problem-search tasks for the formation of educational cognitive competence is proved.

Bibliography
Emotional And Expressive Sentences In Tatar And French: Representation As A Semantic Component Of Expressivity

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Abstract

The present stage in the development of linguistics is characterized by an increased interest in comparative study of languages. The problem of comparative study of languages is the subject of linguistic research in many works of domestic and foreign scholars. The aim of this study is to compare the emotional and expressive sentences in the Tatar and the French languages and to reveal common features and differences. A set of linguistic methods and techniques for analyzing the actual material in accordance with the aim and tasks of the work was used, the main ones being comparative-typological, universal-differential, descriptive methods of linguistics. The article reveals the peculiarities of realization of the expressive Tatar and French syntax. Expressive possibilities of the utterances become more pronounced when they not only define the phenomenon, but also convey a particular attitude to the subject, enhancing the expressive figurative features of emotionally expressive sentences. Emotionally expressive sentences with the meaning of figurative expressiveness serve to realize the category of emotional expression at the syntactic level in the form of “exchange of impressions”, a story about events.

At the synchronous level emotional and expressive sentences were compared in the Tatar and the French languages for the first time. The study showed the existence of similar typological features, which, in turn, indicates a certain affineness of the Tatar and French languages belonging to different language families. The existing discrepancies manifest themselves mainly in the field of the structure of the sentences in the languages being compared, whereas in the field of semantics, these sentences show many similarities, which is determined by the commonness of human thinking.

Key words and phrases: expressive syntax; emotionally expressive sentences; figurativeness; figurative units, emotionally expressive factor, human factor, linguistic world-image, paralinguistic means of language.

Introduction

The present stage in the development of linguistics is characterized by an increased interest in comparative study of languages. This is explained by the contact that arises as a result of social, philosophical, cultural rapprochement of peoples, regardless of the countries in which they live; the desire to improve the teaching and learning of foreign languages. In linguistics there is, perhaps, no problem in which the emotional-expressive factor (EEF) would have manifested itself in one way or another [1; 3; 6; 7; 8; 11; 12; 13]. Unfortunately, the EEF, which is connected with man and constitutes a considerable area in the content part of the language, has been for
many decades beyond the scope of the interests of linguistics, and it has been so far insufficiently studied. The reason for the objective nature lies in the complexity of the very problem, as it is a border region where the issues of linguistics, psychology, philosophy, logic, pedagogy, medicine and other sciences intersect. At the same time it should be noted that each of the disciplines creates its own terminological system and its classification of emotions, which naturally causes certain difficulties in the study of this problem [7]. It should be necessary to refer to the reasons of a subjective nature the fact that a skeptical view of emotiveness as something subjective, elusive, leading to the destruction of the language structure has become predominant in linguistic literature. These structures, as our study showed, are emotionally saturated sentences and are of a systemic nature.

The material for the study was the original literary and fictional works of famous Tatar and French writers of the 20th century (Гыйләҗев А., 1994; Ибраһимов Г., 1996; Covanna, 1995; Chambaz B., 1995).

Materials and Methods
The work uses a set of linguistic methods and techniques for analyzing the actual material, the main of which is comparative-contrastive, which allows to determine the similarities and differences between the two languages being compared; detect the causes of similarities and differences, define systemic correspondences and discrepancies between the languages being compared. Comparative interpretation is based on the method of parallel study, which makes it possible to detect common and distinctive features and the features of the languages being studied, while their substantive difference is concretized through structural and stylistic interpretation. The considered methods of the comparative-contrastive method and the model of typological research are purposefully used to determine linguistic universals.

Results and Discussion
The category of emotional expression is, in our opinion, a multifaceted phenomenon. Its components are: emotionality, evalutativity, sincerity, interest, figurativeness, each of which is waiting for being discovered and studied in detail. The choice of this topic as an object of comparative research is determined by the following objective reasons: 1) Emotionally expressive sentences occupy an important place in the colloquial speech of native speakers of the Tatar and French languages, are characterized by high frequency, as well as inadequate investigation. 2) Emotionally expressive sentences are distinguished by great variety in structural and semantic relations expressed by them in the languages being compared. 3) The prospect of studying emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French is determined by theoretical and practical needs.

This paper analyzes the conditions for expressing the linguistic behavior of the speaker, depending on the tasks that the author of the utterance decides. An imaginative representation of the situation can trigger a reciprocal emotional response of the addressee. This is explained by the psychophysiology of feelings: the idea of emotions is inextricably linked in the minds of people with their non-verbal manifestations, therefore, the actualization of emotions spontaneously activates gestures, which generally enhances the expressiveness of speech expression: the stronger the emotional involvement of the subject of speech in the communication situation, the more active the gesture, consequently, the higher the expressiveness of the utterance. “Figurativeness” in semasiology serves as a semantic component of expressive syntactic units. The implementation of figurativeness at the syntactic level causes a constant expressive-figurative background of communication through the use of extra-linguistic means. The appearance of figurative means depends on the speaker’s intention to use them in the speech act.
It seems to us that the relationship between verbal and kinesthetic communication codes cannot be described in terms of “primary-secondary”. They closely interact with each other, overlap each other, intensifying the expressive-figurative possibilities of emotionally expressive sentences. The interactive function of kinesthetic means is inseparably connected with the task of self-expression. Both are ultimately aimed at achieving mutual understanding and ensure the perception of what has been said in a certain personal vein. Figurativeness is treated as “the ability of signs (signifiers) to evoke specific, individual ideas about the phenomena that they designate” [7, p. 24]. Figurativeness in our study is not identified with imagery, but includes it in its semantic field. Concreteness helps visually perceive a sounding or written word. The more graphic, concrete speech is, the easier communicants understand each other, the easier the interlocutor imagines the described state of affairs.

The degree of pragmatic efficiency is precisely what predetermines the choice of one or another verbal form of expression of intention. The speaker prefers those language means that are distinguished by greater communicative expressiveness, representativeness. Consequently, emotional expression is the primary function of emotionally expressive sentences that are used by a person in this state. “Pure” emotional self-expression is found both in oral and written speech quite rarely. The reason for this is the fact that even a purely personal emotion, as a rule, seeks for a listener. The practice shows that a person having a strong emotional shock, most often looking for someone who could listen to him, sympathize, share his experiences with him.

Nevertheless, emotional self-expression can best be encountered. According to K.A. Dolinin, it is realized “in the form of the so-called autistic speech – the speech for itself, which can be performed even in the absence of an interlocutor or may be addressed to “a quasi-interlocutor” - a dog, a cat, a horse, etc.” [3, p. 218]. Just is, in our judgment, the opinion of V. I. Shakhovsky, who believes that there is no factor of address in the interjections sentences [7]. This is absolutely true if the latter are considered in isolation, beyond the context. However, G.V. Kolshansky argues that the sentence should always be studied in the context, since most of the language units are in communication with other units and therefore the meanings of these units can often be disclosed only via this connection [5].

So, expressiveness of the utterances depends on the object of affective reflection: it rises if the emotional state of the speaker or another person about which he talks is in focus. One of the expressive macro-intentions can be presented in the form “Хочу, чтобы ты представил/воспринял, как я воспринял” (translated by the authors) “I want you to clearly visualize the situation, in the way I perceived it”: Admiration: - Алайым, жемчужный!.. Миллион километр очак летчик үл. Миллионер! [4, p. 205]. - Не говори так, дорогой!, Он летчик, который пролетел миллион километров. Миллионер! (Do not say that, dear!.. He is a pilot who flew a million kilometers. Millionaire!) Condemnation: Ибалалар, балалар! Бала нәркеме гәнис, кerpенәнә баласым, кәрәләсәнән... [4, p. 34].Эх, дети, дети! Ребенок дорог каждому, и у еж ребенка мягкий, а у воронье ребенок белый... (Eh, children, children! The child is dear to everyone, and the hedgehog has a soft child, and the crow has a white child) Indignation: - Folle! Vieille folle! Tu n’as qu’une misérable folle! Unefurieuse! [10, p. 43]. - Безумная! Старая дура! Ты только жалкая дура! Сердючка!(Mad! Silly old bag! You’re just a miserable poorwoman! Serdyuchka!) Disturbance: - Grossebête! C’estestpluslegrenierdetanteJudith. C’estmorgnierz à moi [10, p. 35]. – Большое животное! Это уже чердак не тети Джудит. Это мой чердак.(Abiganimal! This is not Aunt Judith’s atticalready. Thisismyattic).

In most cases, the image of a fragment of the denotative situation is important not only in itself - it allows the addressee to understand and feel the speaker’s attitude to the described state of affairs. The author pursues one task in two: to create a full understanding of the subject of speech and to convey his own
attitude towards it. This macro-intention involves the image of the events via showing them, which is usually done using non-verbal components of communication.

The ability of a figurative unit to lead to the appearance of associations, or emotions in the conscience of the interlocutor, or the third content plan, the disclosure of which leads to the understanding of the intentional idea of the utterance - determines its use for the purposes of expression to show the personal senses of the speaker. A direct expression of emotionally-attitudinal meanings and intentions induces reflection, but much more restrained, and possesses an insignificant working force, compare: Улкуруты! Үлөдөкуркүүнн! Il a peur! Il est mort de peur!! / Ониснугасы! Онурымотспрах!((Hediedoffear! Hediedoffear!!) The general background meaning is achieved through a hidden figurative comparison ("he lost ability to move, as if he were dead")

The mechanism of the impact of figurative means is especially brightly demonstrated by expressive utterances that realize intention “Imagine clearly that ...”, which are often expressed by the verbs: қарарға, күзәлөнөккөтөргө, regarder, imaginer / смотреть, представлять. The figurative means induce the intention, which then appears as a relation or understanding and is accompanied by a certain feeling [3]. The use of motivated units helps a person to reflect in his utterance his own comprehension and vision of what is happening, to correlate his perception with the interlocutor’s knowledge and, to this end, to direct his attention to certain aspects of what is happening.

Admiration: Төптөнөлөк күрөмүнү тоо көрөө мүнөздөгөн динеңизди. Ниндиламатурсимфония! [2, p. 546]. Сиздингиздин сүйкүүсүзүңүз, төпөөсүзүңүз. Какэкрасивысимвония!(Thickening the stillness of the night, one can hear the calm noise of the sea. What a beautiful symphony!)Admiration: Их, доньи, матурдөнья! [4, p. 462]. Эх, жизнь, красива жизнью! (Eh, life, what a beautiful life!)

Regret: - Vous ne savez pas comment s'est conclu ce mariage... s'écriaGrevel. Ah! mauditviedegarcon![10, p.225]. - Вы не знаете, как этот брак был заключен!.. воскликнул Гревель. Ах! Проклятая холостятская жизнь! (You don't know how this marriage was contracted! Exclaimed Grevel. Ah! Damn life of a bachelor!)

Artistry, observation are important qualities, owing to which the speech of a person becomes visually-figurative, expressive. In order to “depict” an object, it is necessary to be able to see it in some unusual foreshortening, to grasp the essence of the phenomenon and to convey it in a speech so that the described easily appeared before the inner eye of the addressee.

It is essential to emphasize that the choice of the object and the character of its image largely depend on the person's view of the world, on his mood, on his speech competence and acting abilities. The realization of the interactive goal is impossible without emotional self-expression, therefore the additional and very important moment of expressiveness, “exchange of impressions” is the intention “I say it because I want to present those things that happen in life”;

Admiration: Чынкеше! Өнөсүнөккүнүүкөбөрө Туйгабарымын! 4, p. 543]. Настоящий человек! Как на войну идем! Следуя на свадьбу идем.(Truecharacter! Asifhegostoweddingreception!)Indignation: Вакчылт! Юнелбүлүү, синехатыныпташлапкитмөсүдө![4, p. 227]. Мелочное создание! Был бы ты приличным, тебя бы жена не бросила. (Paltry creature! If you were decent, your wife would not abandon you!)

Resentment: Фолия!.. Elle ne va jamais nous laisser partir, плакалаIdomeney. (Madness!.. She will never let you go away, cried Idomeney)Delight: - Ве! quelle belle fille! dans tout Paris on n’en trouverait pas la pareille! [10, p. 227]. - Ах! какаякрасиваядевушка! Во всем Париже не найдешь такой! (Ah! What a beauty this girl is! In all Paris you will not find such like her!)
The analysis of the means of figurativeness in the context of the canonical speech situation allows us to conclude that the emotionally expressive sentences have a constant expressive-figurative background. They convey information that is important for reaching mutual understanding between communicants, the psychophysiological, emotional state of the subject of the denotative or communicative situation, the attitude of the speaker to the described state of affairs, help the subject of speech, as it were, to experience again the events that happened to him or someone else, and to the interlocutor—to adequately perceive them.

So, the use of figuratively motivated units helps a person to reflect in the utterance his own understanding and vision of what is happening, to correlate his perception with the interlocutor’s knowledge and, with this end in view, to direct his attention to certain aspects of what is happening through the explication of the motivating basis.

Summary
So, in the scope of this work, a comparative-typological study of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French was conducted. The practical value of the work is determined by the fact that the results of the research are of practical importance for teaching Tatar and French. Comparing the structural and semantic organization of emotionally expressive sentences in Tatar and French, we came to the conclusion that they are built with the help of a certain set of means of emotional expression, namely:

1. The study and comparative analysis of emotionally expressive sentences, as well as the frequency reproduction of these linguistic units in the works of contemporary French and Tatar authors, allow of affirming the existence of a system of linguistic means called emotionally expressive syntax that is adapted to express and expresses human emotions and feelings. In other words, modern linguistics has a clearly expressed semantic orientation and this article, in our view, is the confirmation of it.

2. The present work have considered the utterances the expressiveness of which is achieved through intensifying representativeness. It has been revealed that the representativeness in the semantic respect is not homogeneous: it can act in a specific speech act as enthusiasm, suggestion, conviction, trust, interest, visual-figurative, pictorial description of the events. The intensification of figurativeness depends on the emotional state of the speaker, his need to influence the opinion and behavior of the partner, on the purposes and tasks of communication.

Conclusion
The study showed the presence of similar typological features, which, in turn, indicates a certain similarity of the Tatar and the French languages belonging to different linguistic systems. The existing discrepancies manifest themselves mainly in the field of the structure of the sentences in comparing languages, whereas in the field of semantics, these sentences show many similarities, which is due to the commonness of human thinking.

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References
Ways Of Transfer Of American-English Paremiological Units Into The Russian Language

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Abstract
The article is devoted to the study of the ways of translation of American English paremiological units (presented in B. Franklin’s “Poor Richard’s Almanac”) into the Russian language. The first hypothesis put forward at the beginning of the work is that using translational transformations is the most popular way of transfer of paremiological units. The second hypothesis concerns the idea that the percentage of using direct translation is quiet low in comparison with the results received in our previous research when the modes of transmission of American English paremiological units into the Spanish language were analyzed (14%). The received data proved both hypotheses, 95% of the paremiological units were translated into the Russian language using transformations, at the same time, only 5% of paremiological units were found to be translated to the Russian language directly. As the outcome of the research the dominant types of transformations were also distinguished. Transposition, addition, omission and meaning development were found to be the most popular transformations used in the translation of the American English paremiological units into the Russian language. The received results allow to identify possible directions in the development of ways of translation of the American English paremiological units not only into the Russian and Spanish languages, but also facilitate their translation into other languages of the world.

Keywords: paremiological unit, omission, addition, transposition meaning development, concretization, generalization.

Introduction
“Paremiological units (PUs) are special elements of the language, in which the invaluable experience and wisdom of the people, transmitted from generation to generation, is accumulated. Each nation has its own way of life, goes its own way of development, forms its traditions - all this is reflected in the PUs, therefore PUs, created by one nation, differ from those that are created by other nations” [1: 63]. Therefore, it seems obvious that translation of PUs is a hard process, which involves the transfer not only of the meaning of PU, but also of its expressive and stylistic side. At the same time, the national colouring of the original PU should also be preserved in the paremiological substitution in translation.

Theoretic overview
“Translation of paremiological units is one of the substantial linguistic issues of translation, because proverbs are used in many spheres – in belles – lettres, in journalism, and sometimes even in the scientific literature.” [2: 146]. In order to translate PUs properly, the translator should know the linguistic, pragmatic and cultural properties of the proverbs both in the source and the target language corresponding to each other. Furthermore, each PU should carry the same cultural conventions as the original proverb. At the same time, the context in which the PU was used also has to be transferred.
B. Hatim and I. Mason proposed communicative translation to render socio-cultural and metaphorical elements of language. They believe that "translation is the negotiation of meaning between the producer of the SL (source language) text and the readers of the TT (target language text), both of whom exist within their own different social framework"[3: 1]. L.G. Kelly suggests a functional approach which focuses on the typology of functions of the PUs [4: 220]. P. Newmark prefers the term semantic and communicative translation [5: 39]. According to D. Robinson, the study of translation is should be wholly connected with the study of intercultural relations. [6: 128].

C. Nord believed in cultural-bound linguistic signs and noted that "both the source and the target texts are determined by the communicative situation in which they serve to convey a message" [7: 7]. J. Vinary and J. Darbelnet believed that the TL equivalents should "replicate the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording" [8: 342]. This approach can be used to maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text.

Russian linguist A.V. Fedorov distinguishes 3 ways of translating PUs:

1) In some cases literal translation of proverbs is possible, if it conveys the substantial meaning of the words composing it and at the same time keeps it general meaning and character of the PU.

2) The other way of translating proverbs is to modify the meaning of certain component of the "word formula of the original", which doesn’t lead to the full coincidence with existing PU of the target language, but which creates the impression of similarity with the existing proverbs of this category.

3) The third way is to use in translation the PUs existing in the target language, if they do not include any local or historical realities and do not contradict the meaning of the original. [9: 232].

The aim of our work was to develop a workable model, which enables translators to render English proverbs into Russian language. In doing so, a two-dimensional model of proverb translation was proposed as the outcome of this survey.

**Materials and methods**

The primary material selected for the conduction of the investigation was Benjamin Franklin’s “Poor Richard’s Almanac” [10]. This particular piece of work was chosen due to the fact that “although the almanac used to be published in 1730s – 1750s, out of about 500 PUs presented in it, more than one fourth continue being part of the paremiological minimum of the modern American English language, that means they are familiar and used in speech by almost every native speaker in the USA” [11: 291]. Due to the lack of the availability of the full translation of “Poor Richard’s Almanac” into Russian, which was only made in 19th century, and never reprinted again, the material for our research was accumulated from various resources varying from the different encyclopedias, dictionaries, aphorisms and proverbs collections, as well as some academic online resources.

At the beginning of the research the hypothetical-deductive method is used as we put forward the hypotheses that using translation transformations is the most popular way of transfer of American English PUs into Russian language as well as that the percentage of using direct translation is expected to be quiet low in comparison with that of our previous research, when the translation of American English PUs into the Spanish language was analysed [2]. In the course of our investigation such methods as contrastive-comparative and comparative analysis of PUs of American English and their correspondences
in the Russian language, as well as linguistic observations, descriptions, generalization and the statistical method were used.

Results and discussion
As a result of the analysis of the ways of translation of the proverbs encountered in the Benjamin Franklin’s “Poor Richard’s Almanac” into Russian language two ways of translating PUs were distinguished:
1. literal translation
2. use of translation transformations.
I) Literal translation of PUs, is the rendering of text from one language to another "word-for-word".

English: Mine is better than ours.
Russian: Мое лучше, чем наше [13: 415].
The use of direct translation in this example makes it possible to reproduce the aphoristic character, syntactic structure and even stylistic coloring of the PUs of the source text.
There were detected 14 examples of the translation of proverbs, using such method, which constitutes 5% of the total number of the PUs presented in the almanac (14 examples – 5%). The rest 95% of the analyzed PUs were translated using different kinds of transformations.

II) Use of different types of transformations in translation of PU:
1) Transposition (55 examples – 22%).
In the following example it can be seen that the word order of the phrase ‘the lightest things swim at top’ is changed in translation. The fact that in Russian language the word order is not fixed as it is in English, allows the translator to use this type of transformation freely and underline and emphasize the most important and meaningful parts of the phrase by their position in the sentence. By putting the subject at the end of the sentence translator puts the logical accent on the expression ‘самое легковесное’.

English: In rivers and bad governments, the lightest things swim at top.
Russian: В реках и плохих правительствах наверху плавает самое легковесное [12: 315].
2) Addition (50 examples – 20%).

English: He that lives upon Hope will die fasting.
Russian: Кто живет надеждой, рискует умереть с голоду [14: 215].
In this example it is obvious that in the proverb of the original there is no any word or phrase which would be equivalent to the word ‘рискует’ which is present in the translation of the PU into Russian. It doesn’t seem that the use of this kind of transformation was essential for the preservation of the meaning of the proverb. It is possible that this is just the preference of the translator, the meaning of the source language proverb is modified but it does not affect the perception of the proverb negatively. It sounds quite natural in Russian language.
Addition is very frequently used by the translators because of the necessity to make the translation full and understandable for the target language readers, make the proverbs sound more natural and more close to the target language culture.
3) Omission (45 examples – 18%).

English: If you would keep your Secret from an enemy, tell it not to a friend.
Russian: Если хотите сохранить тайну от врага, не рассказывайте её другу [14: 76].
In this case the omission of the possessive pronoun is observed. The proverb in the target language sounds as naturally as it does in the source language.
4) **Meaning development (40 examples – 16%)**

This method in translation consists in the substitution of the vocabulary correspondence by the contextually and logically related one.

**English:** Sloth makes all Things difficult, but Industry all easy; He that riseth late, must trot all Day, and shall scarce overtake his Business at Night.

**Russian:** Лень все делает трудным, труд – все легким; кто встает поздно – без толку весь день и принимается за дело, когда уже на носу [12: 465].

In this example it is obvious that the use of the meaning development transformation leads to the adaptation of the proverb to the target language culture, such phrases as ‘без толку’, ‘ночь на носу’ do not have equivalents in the source language, the author uses them to make the PU sound more Russian. Although there are some divergences from meaning of the original proverb, the translated version of PU sounds quite natural, aphoristic and understandable to the target language readers.

5) **The substitution of the singular by the plural or vice versa (26 examples – 10%)**

**English:** There is no little enemy.

**Russian:** Маленьких врагов не бывает [14: 155].

In this example substitution of the singular noun of the source text by its plural analogue in the target language is observed. This kind of transformation seems to be extremely important in this situation because use of the singular Russian translation of the word ‘enemy’ would have been inadequate and quite inappropriate.

6) **The substitution of the passive construction by active (10 examples – 4%)**

Passive constructions are used in Russian less frequently than in English language, and therefore the translator prefers to use active constructions to make the PU sound more natural in the target language and in order not to destroy its aphoristic character.

**English:** No nation was ever ruined by trade.

**Russian:** Торговля не разорила еще ни одного народа [15:615].

7) **Antonymic translation (8 examples – 3%)**

This transformation involves translating a phrase or clause containing a negation using a phrase or clause that does not contain a negation or vice versa:

**English:** Anger is never without a reason, but seldom with a good one.

**Russian:** Гнев всегда имеет основания, но редко достаточно веские [12: 219].

The negative phrase ‘anger is never without a reason’ is translated to the Russian language by the clause which does not contain any negation ‘всегда имеет основания’. The meaning is preserved, the PU in the target language still sounds quite natural and does not lose its aphoristic character. The translation seems to be quite successful.

8) **Sentence fragmentation (7 examples – 2%)**

**English:** Teach your child to hold his tongue, he’ll learn fast enough to speak.

**Russian:** Учи своих детей молчать. Говорить они научатся сами [13: 456].

In this example it can be observed that the American proverbs expressed by the complex sentences in the original are conveyed by the structures consisting of two simple sentences in the target language.

9) **The substitution of the part of speech (6 examples – 2%)**

**English:** Keep your eyes wide open before marriage, half shut afterwards.

**Russian:** Держи глаза широко открытыми до свадьбы и зажмуривай их после [15:604].
As it is seen from the example, the translator substitutes the adjective half shut by the verb «зажмуривай» in translation. which makes the proverb sound more naturally in Russian language, in comparison with its direct translation.

10) **Concretization (5 examples – 2 %)**

In the following example the use of the concretization transformation can be observed. The word ‘to mend’ is literally translated as ‘чинить, штопать, ремонтировать’, while in the target language text the translator uses the word ‘склеить’ which has a narrower meaning and is just a type of the ways that can be undertaken to mend or repair something. The use of this transformation is dictated by the difference of the lexical systems of two languages, it is not appropriate to use the word ‘mend’ concerning glass, china, and even reputation in Russian language, while the word ‘склеить’ sounds quite natural in this context.

It can be concluded that the use of concretization transformation is extremely important in this situation for the correct perception of the PU by the target language readers.

English: Glass, China, and Reputation, are easily crack’d, and never well mended.
Russian: Стекло, фарфор и репутацию сломать легко, а склеить трудно [14: 218].

11) **The substitution of the verb tense category (6 examples – 2%)**

In this example the verb in the future tense is translated by the verb in the present tense. This can be explained by the translators’ preference to eliminate the use of the auxiliary verb ‘будет’ in order to make the PU shorter and to underline this way its aphoristic character.

English: Where there is Hunger, Law is not regarded; and where Law is not regarded, there will be Hunger.
Russian: Там, где голод, законы не уважаются; где законы не уважаются, там голод [12:822].

12) **Generalization (3 examples – 1 %)**

The direct translation of the word chimney is ‘дымовая труба’, but in the target language text it is substituted by the word ‘печь’ (oven). Chimney constitutes just the part of the oven and therefore it is obvious that the meaning of the word ‘chimney’ is generalized in translation. This use of this kind of transformation in this example is obviously necessary, because the direct translation would have sounded quite unnatural, awkward, and would not have been correctly perceived by the target language reader.

Out of 250 examples of PUs analyzed in this research only 3 examples of the use of generalization transformation were detected, which constitutes a little bit more than 1 % of the total number of proverbs. The reason of such a rare use of this kind of transformation is explained by its complicated character, many translators prefer to use meaning development in many cases instead of generalization because it gives them more freedom in changing the meaning and does not bound them to the use of only conceptually related equivalents.

**Conclusion and summary**

It seems necessary to present the results achieved from the analysis in the form of charts:
Ways of translation

- Direct translation: 5%
- Translation transformations: 95%

Translation transformations

- Generalization: 1
- The substitution of the verb tense category: 2
- Concretization: 2
- The substitution of the part of speech: 2
- Sentence fragmentation: 2
- Antonymic translation: 3
- The substitution of the passive construction by active: 4
- The substitution of the singular by the plural or vice versa: 10
- Meaning development: 16
- Omission: 18
- Addition: 20
- Transposition: 22
As it can be seen from the first chart the vast majority (95%) of the PU were translated with the help of transformations. Furthermore, the percentage of the PU translated into Russian language directly is also very low (only 5%) in comparison with the data received in our previous research concerned with analyzing the translation of American English PU into the Spanish language (14%) [2]. Both these facts prove our hypotheses which we put forward at the beginning of the investigation. On the second chart the results of the analysis of transformations used in translation of proverbs from English into Russian language are presented. Transposition (22%), addition (20%), omission (18%) and meaning development (16%) turned out to be used more frequently.

The received results allow to identify possible directions in the development of ways of translation of American English PUs not only into Russian and Spanish languages, but also facilitate their translation into other languages of the world.

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Cultural and historical features of kazakh anthroponyms

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Abstract
Reflecting the traits of time and traces of appearance period, names of people, geographic areas and water bodies are created and exist in direct connection with language structure. The naming tradition was influenced by culture, and national traditions. The paper considers the features and ways of forming of Turkic, and particularly Kazakh anthroponyms.

Keywords: anthroponym, naming, motivation, culture, traditions

1. Introduction
Personal names reflect the history, traditions and worldview of a nation. Magic properties of a word, name (naming) are always considered in close and direct connection with it. Thus, anthroponyms can be related to the system of main cultural and historic characteristics of a human being. Reflecting the traits of time and traces of appearance period, names of people, geographic areas and water bodies are created and exist in direct connection with language structure. And, as known, the language and anthroponyms as its units are the products of a definite nation culture. Thus, the linguists have great opportunities to determine the reasons led to appearance of this or that anthroponym. The paper is aimed at describing of the motivation features of proper names and the ways of its forming.

2. Methods and main notions
The paper describes the diachronic investigation of anthroponyms. Thus, before analyzing the language material it is necessary to determine the main notions and investigation methods.
All methods are focused on solving of one issue - revealing of initial motive implicated by the naming, and the ways of anthroponym forming. Investigating the memory in language and culture, Bragina N.G. supposes that analysis of cultural specifics of words often assumes etymological analysis first of all [7].
Etymology, confessedly, is one of the ancient units of linguistics founded by Classical Greek philosophers. In the opinion of Italian linguist V. Pisani, the etymology was based by Plato in his dialogue “Cratylus” that discusses the nature of names: “whether a thing has its own name, invariable, inherent by changing which we make a mistake, or every word is a result of consensus of people and does not belong naturally to the thing” [13].
The etymological analysis, in its turn, is closely connected with two important motions - naming and motivation.
Naming – denomination and fixing by a definite language form the knowledge about items, signs and processes of the objective world (denotatum, referent) basing on its motivation signs. According to Teliya V.N. “naming is formation of language units characterized by naming function, i.e. serving for naming or marking of fragments of extralinguistic reality and forming of corresponding notions on them in the form of language units meaning – words, collocation, phraseological units and sentences” [17].
Motivation is the main and most significant for the naming process. Many scientists, starting from W. Humboldt, paid attention to language ability for naming using restricted means [8].
The occurrences belonging simultaneously to language and culture show deep motivation of naming – non-randomness of names. The language forces, or more accurately, not forces, but softly and favorably directs people in naming joining the named things to the deepest layers of culture [15]. Naming is an exceptionally complex and manifold phenomenon that includes everything related to the beginning of this process and its end, from naming premises to its realization in the language [4].

3. Main Part
Properties of anthroponym
Even for ancient nations the name (naming) was considered as a specific magical process. Thinking about a name or naming process we are asking a question: Who could name the items? What does a human name mean? How sounds form a name? Why “these” sounds form namely these names, and not those? How does a name influence on a human fate?

Naming process was under a specific regard. A person giving a name was perceived as a creator, and maker. A range of “Rigveda” texts, “Odyssey”, fragments of Aeschylus, some Pythagorean sources contain a complex word or phrase with meaning “name-giver” (Greek “onomatothetes” – giving a name, onomatoteth) [14]. This turn of speech is a trace of the ancient myth of the Indo-European age about a “creator of speech”. Probably, this was a typical myth about “cultural hero” – a person (often a demigod or primal forefather) who obtained or created various cultural items for people, taught a trade, art, established the rituals and feasts. In Vedic mythology “name-giving” is equal to the act of creation. Thus, in “Rigveda” the Lord of Speech (this is one of attributes of Vishvakarma, divine Creator of Universe) is simultaneously the General craftsman, sculptor, carpenter created the heavens and earth; he is also the inspirer of holy poetry and protector of eloquence competitions. The philosophical works of Pythagoreans on the creator of names say that “after a number the second place on wisdom belongs to one who named the items” [9].

Considering the proper name we encounter with its two opposite properties: on the one hand – taboo (prohibition), on another hand – name repeat – is strengthening of magic features and conferring of specific significance to it. Taboo (prohibition), first of all, deals with magic conceptions, desire of a man to preserve himself from something. In ancient times, a man protected the name very carefully, considering it as his integral part. He tried to keep it confidential to keep off the demons and to learn the names of enemies to wipe them out using the magic [11]. In addition, there is a folk belief related to a name, according to it if “one pronounces a man's name”, i.e. “call him” this man will appear for sure. This belief reflected in oral folk arts, in Russian sayings, for example: “Помяни по имени, а он тут!” ‘Tell the name and he is sure to appear’; “Лёгок на помин” ‘Speak of the devil and he will appear’, “Сиди тихо, не поминай лиха” ‘Sit tight, don’t call the devil’; “Ты пиши тебе на льсы!” ‘A plague on you for saying such things’”. Kazakh language has the proverbs similar to the last one (“A plague on you for saying such things”): “Зіхъыңа жылың жумыртлагалсың!”, “Тиліне тікен ұйсы!” [6].

Anthroponyms represent the life and every-day living, social structure, material and spiritual culture of ancient people [3]. The same as other nations, Kazakh people has its own anthroponymic system based on historically formed notions, customs and traditions of the nation. Kazakh culture has very special tradition to give name to a newborn child. In this regard, Kazakh anthroponymy is a valuable investigation source and rare combination of specific national features, traditional views, and ideals with a background of social and political climate of historical events, traditions based on native ecosystem and reflecting the set of features of surrounding reality and animal world. Manifestation of Kazakh
anthroponymy originality is very important, and not only in view of ethnic being, but significance of spiritual and historical origin that became the initiating element in forming of special way of Kazakh nation [1].


History and mode of life of every nation, its traditions, customs and notions are also reflected in the anthroponyms. The following proper names can be considered as the examples. If a family has mainly girls (daughters), the last newborn girl is named “*Ulbolsyn*” (Kazakh: ‘Let the next be a boy’). Giving this name to a girl the parents wanted the next child be a boy. Thus, the name implied the hope on birth of a heir, faith in magic. T. Zhanyuzakov notes that: “Similar names exist in all Turkic languages in the following versions: *Toqtasyn, Tursyn, Toktar, Toktamis* with meaning “stop, cease”, *Ultuar* – ‘deliver a boy’ – in Kazakh, *Tursin, Turdi* ‘stop, stopped’, *Jeter* – ‘enough’ – in Turkmen; *Tursyn, Tokta* – ‘stop’ in Uzbek; *Olmes* – ‘will not die’, *Kalsin* – ‘let stay’ in Kumyk languages. If a family had several girls at a run, then the last one was named like “*Kyztumas*” (meaning “prohibition to give birth to a girl”), *Kystaman* – in Kumyk language ‘do not be born a girl’ or *Ullangerék* – ‘need a boy’; in Kyrgyz – *Burulgu* – ‘turn’, *Toktubu* – ‘stop girl’ [10].

One of the reasons of variety of Kazakh anthroponyms is customs and traditions according to which a daughter-in-law, as a sign of respect to elder relatives and patience to younger ones, should not call her husband relatives with their names, father-in-law, mother-in-law and other relatives [9]. As a result of this tradition, in large Kazakh families, to avoid the repetitions the daughter-in-law was a kind of new names creator for her husband relatives. Thus, the Kazakh anthroponyms formed as a result of first naming reflect the notions, cultural features and traditions of Kazakh people [16]. Below we will consider the ways of anthroponyms forming.

**The ways of Kazakh anthroponyms forming**

The proper names discussed below were formed in V-VIII centuries within the syntactical rules of the age. Especially interesting are Kazakh personal names which structure includes attributive, specific elements.

The monuments of oral poetry of V-VIII centuries will be considered as texts. For instance, in the ancient lyric and epic poem “*Kyz-Zhybek*” the poetic lines alternate with prose. The prose lines have typical structure of a tale: “...and they had a young daughter Zhibek sulu, and a vizier named Karshyga habarshy”, where *sulu* – beautiful girl, *habarshy* – messenger. We note that the combination of words like *Zhibek sulu*,
Karshyga habarshy not typical for Kazakh language word order (should be sulu Zhibek – “beautiful Zhibek”) is observed for the combinations characterizing a man by his natural (sulu – beautiful, taz – bald) or occupational features (habarshy – messenger, synshy – critic). This structure is observed in its relic form only in oral poetic language and local dialects. With time the adjectives have lost its attributive function and nominalized, became the noun.

The scientists note that nominalization of adjectives is typical for all Turkic languages. In Kazakh language the adjectives most often nominalize as a component of anthroponyms, first of all, at alteration of the word order of the modifier and defined word [5]. Using definite examples, K. Zhubanov confirms this thesis indicating that “in certain period there were multi-functional words that could be adjectives and nouns at the same time” [18]. These were words meaning professions, trades, social status of a man.

For example, the word “bai” – is “a rich man” and ‘rich (adj.)’, batyr – ‘brave’ and ‘powerful man’, sulu – ‘beautiful’ and ‘beautiful woman’. Thus, the words in combination with a person’s name could serve as a modifier and defined word depending on its position in the word combination: bai Maman – Maman bai. In this case the first phrase is a modifier, and the second – the defined word. The scientist indicate that a word-modifier before a person’s name implements attributive function, précises the person one is talking about not to confuse him with another one. For example, aqyn Iliyas – poet Ilyas, synshy Gabbas – critic Gabbas, inzhener Kartkozha – engineer Kartkozha.

However, the widely used word combinations of this type use another word order: the defined word is before the modifier, for example, Iliyas aqyn, Gabbas synshy, Kartkozha engineer.

It should be noted that the indicated structures are typical for word combinations with personal names only, and are used neither in Kazakh toponyms nor in ethnonyms. The words defining a person’s name (adjectives, polyfunctional words, or even nouns) indicating its social status, class or professional position, origin and other should always be in postposition, i.e. after the defined word. As for some words describing person’s appearance, earlier these words implied the social status of a person, for example, Aiman sulu (Ajman belle) or Gali taz (Gali bald).

Another feature of the mentioned words is that adjectives describing the genealogic affiliation of a person are in preposition only: argyn Zhanibek (Zhanibek of argyn clan), baiuly Syrym (Syrym of baiulu clan) etc. As for the history of a person naming genesis the science confirms its late appearance. K. Zhyubanov notes that “before people were given personal names there was a period when those were named by clan affiliation”. When the interrelations among the members of society became more complex, and personal factor became stronger, the necessity to name a person by his clan or family affiliation eliminated and the tradition of personal naming started to form.

Fixation of bai, sulu, batyr and similar elements to postposition is explained by initial clan names instead of personal names. However, the words of this category describing class, clan, social affiliation had lost its significance in ancient time and were used for determination of individual qualities of a person [2].

“If still today these modifiers can easily be used at both sides of the defined words, this shows the struggle of two syntactic structures – old, by which those should be in preposition that in view of contemporary grammatical comprehension of Kazakh people is apprehended as its transformation into adjectives when those are before personal names, and transition into defined words when those are after personal names”, – notes K. Zhubanov [18].

Analyzing the complex names like Koilybai, Maldybai (‘rich in sheep’, ‘rich in cattle’) we do not note anything contradicting the grammar rules of contemporary Kazakh language. The names like Zhylqybai (zhylqy – mare), Siyrbai (siyr – cow), Tuiyebai (tuje – camel), despite minor difference in its structure are also
In Turkic languages the word *baj* and its derivatives *bajan, majan, bajat, bajiq* are applied with different meaning: 1) *baj*, *bajiyat* = ‘God’; 2) *baj* // *bej* // *bj* = ‘Master, Judge’; 3) *baj*, *bajyat* = ‘Saint, sacred, All-powerful, divine, miracle-working’; 4) *baj* = ‘prohibited’; 5) *baj* – ‘old’; 6) *baj* = ‘richness, abundance, prosperity’; 7) *baiyq* – ‘truth, justice’ and other’. Thus, we can note that in Kazakh names also (*Itbai, Kushukbai*) the word “*baj*” cannot be explained in view of contemporary Kazakh language (*bai* – ‘rich, rich man’), i.e. in the ancient, religious-mythological meaning “*bai*” = ‘ancestor, protector, Saint’.

Thus, in view of the contemporary Kazakh language the word *Itbai* cannot be represented as the word combination *baj it* (rich dog). and *Kushukbai* in the form *bai kushuk* (rich puppy) does not exist in the language, however this word order is admissible. Therefore, the elements content of complex personal name does not depend on logical relations of a modifier and a defined word, but is subjected to some other regularity.

K. Zhubanov supposes that “the word “*baj*” is not pure adjective, but is a mixed type that includes the signs of adjective and noun”. In this regard, we assume that, first, complex personal names noted by K. Zhubanov (*Itbai, Kushukbai* and other) are mythological and relict (remanent) language structures; second, appearance of these personal names is related to the age of syncretism of noun and adjective when these words were not individual content words, and third, these adjectives gradually substantivizing have formed together with a defined word an integral combination and maintained in personal names only as affixoids, and auxiliary words.

It is necessary to remember that personal names are, first of all, figurative units full of hidden, implicit content. These are not always subjected to common language rules of word usage as the rules of figurative, fiction-esthetic word usage are distinct by its grammatical, lexical and stylistic features. Nevertheless, the personal names are formed basing on definite language regularities and take part in forming of common language grammar system.

K. Zhubanov compares the word order with a principle of graphic representation of numbers. Numbers, in definite order and combination transfer different value (123 or 312, 213, 231, or 2+1= + etc.). The words possessing definite set of meanings entering into syntactic relations obtain additional shades, realize a
concrete meaning. The structure of personal names has nothing that does not exist in language. In the words of the scientist “Similar as items named by persons could not have other names except one known lexical meaning, and not especially invented, but available in word stock, these lexical meanings consisting of individual parts they could integrate and put in definite relation regarding one another by means known to them, i.e. syntactical means” [18].

In other words, syntactic rules are valid for the structure of complex personal names, thus we cannot disregard the syntax of complex names. And if syntax of complex names does not coincide with syntactic rules of contemporary Kazakh language, it means that we should not be confined by contemporary syntax, and the only right approach to the issue solving is acceptance of historical existence in the past of syntax that contradicted the contemporary or was not typical for contemporary word order.

4. Conclusion
Thus, the results of investigations in the field of forming, development of naming theory depends directly on differentiated approach to a definite stage of forming of this or that language unit-onym that have direct relation to ancient language, history of nation, culture, customs, and traditions and other. The anthroponyms of Kazakh people reflect culture, traditions, customs, and notions of the people.

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Using modern cartoons in Russian language classes as foreign one

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Abstract
This work is devoted to the topical problem of improvement of the Russian language and deepening of the knowledge of the Russian language with foreign students through the perception of animated feature films.

It examines the opportunities and benefits of working with video on the example of the modern full-length Russian cartoon "Three heroes and Shamahanskaya Queen"; describes the main stages; shows different types of tasks, aimed primarily at developing skills of listening and speaking.

Scientific novelty of the work is to develop a set of exercises, aimed at teaching speaking and listening at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language, based on animated film.

The used research methods are: descriptive and analytical: study and problem analysis of psychopedagogical, cinematic, cultural, linguistic, and methodological sources of theoretical and practical nature; social-pedagogical: studying the experience of addressing the didactic use of audiovisual means in the class of Russian as a foreign language; modeling the teaching material and the learning process on the basis of their use.

Offered option of working with a full-length animated film at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language allows you to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, as well as familiarize with Russian culture.

Keywords: cartoon, listening, audiovisual materials, communication, Russian as a foreign language.

Introduction
In the practice of teaching Russian as a foreign language a modern technology that contributes to a significant intensification of Russian language lessons, increasing efficiency and quality of the educational process is now actively used.

In recent years, an increasing number of studies devoted to various methods of working with foreign-language audience [Bochina et al., 2014; Gavannaya et al., 2014; Galeev, 2014; Palekha et al., 2015; Gavannaya, Miftakhova 2016; Subich et al., 2016; Gafiyatova et al., 2016; Kayumova, Meets et al., 2016, Evreyskaya et al., 2016].

Regarding the use of audiovisual materials in teaching foreign languages the stages of work with videos (Kryaktunov, 2011), techniques for presentation of essential materials (Razladova, 2005), methodology of work with video series on socially significant events in the country (Bogomolov, 2000) are studied.

In connection with the prevalence of the Internet, the technical capabilities of computers and mobile phones of the new generation, most of the information a person perceives through audiovisual channels. That is why the audiovisual aspect must necessarily be included at any stage of learning a foreign language.
The undoubted advantage of using authentic video in the classroom is that students see life itself, the real communication process in its entirety, linguocultural peculiarities of communication in a foreign language. However, the use of video materials in educational process has its specifics. Among modern authentic video animation holds a special place. Animated films can be used in teaching students with different levels of knowledge of the Russian language. The students who are only just beginning to learn a foreign language, can compensate complex unfamiliar language material with the help of visuals. And students at the advanced stage of training will be able to replenish the vocabulary of sustainable expressions that are often used in cartoons.

The teacher, choosing material for lessons should focus not only on his taste, but also consider the interests of the students, giving preference to modern art and animated films.

One of the sources of acquaintance with the authentic spoken language of the country of the target language are animated films.

Despite the fact that authentic animated films were not filmed with the purpose of learning a foreign language their linguo-didactic potential made their application in the practice of teaching a foreign language quite common.

We believe that the use of animated films as a video source has several advantages. Cartoons allow to get acquainted with cultural and cross-cultural information about the target language country in more light and entertaining way. Bright, eye-catching visuals that accompany the recorded speech, help us to understand the meaning of the utterance. The fun involved in exercises based on the viewed video promotes activation of cognitive activity of trainees.

The relevance of the work is due to the importance of improving the Russian language and deepening the knowledge of the Russian language with foreign students through an perception of the authentic video. Scientific novelty of the work is to develop a set of exercises, aimed at teaching speaking and listening at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language, based on animated film. The purpose of the study is to show the peculiarities of using the authentic feature-length cartoons at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language.

To achieve this goal the following objectives are set: to show the possibilities and advantages of using video for example, a particular cartoon; to determine the order of work with video; to offer affordable and effective ways to introduce, consolidate and control lexical material on the basis of the cartoon.

Materials And Methods

The research is based on a feature-length animated film "Three heroes and Shamahanskaya Queen" (2010), which is the fourth in a cycle of modern Russian cartoon about the three heroes. This cycle was based on Russian folklore: "Prince Vladimir", "Ilya Muromets and Nightingale the robber", "Alyosha Popovich and Tugarin Snake (Dragon)", etc. The selected cartoon is attractive because in it the three heroes act together for the first time.

Research methods used here are: descriptive and analytical: study and problem analysis of psychopedagogical, cinematic, cultural, linguistic, and methodological sources of theoretical and practical nature; social-pedagogical: studying the experience of addressing the didactic use of audiovisual means in the class of Russian as a foreign language; modeling teaching material and the learning process on the basis of their use.
Results And Discussion

In this article we want to demonstrate a set of tasks to the full-length animated film "Three heroes and Shamahanskaya Queen" (directed by Sergei Glezin). This set of tasks is designed for students who speak Russian at the first certificate level.

1. Tasks before watching the cartoon.

The teacher tells foreign students of the three heroes - heroes of Russian folk-stories - Ilya Muromets, Dobrynya Nikitich, Alyosha Popovich (he can use pictures), and also introduces the other main characters of the cartoon: Shamahanskaya Queen, Nastasia (Dobrynya Nikitich’s wife), Alenka (Ilya Muromets’s wife), Lubava (Alyosha Popovich’s wife), horse Julius, Prince of Kiev.

a) to remove lexical and phonetic difficulties, students are encouraged to translate key words and phrases (unfamiliar vocabulary), for example:

- подданый, шкура, обои, подвиг, чужеземец, кувшин, верста, подковы, произвол, нелепость, силовик, ухаживание, живодерня, коварный, лихой, проскочить, налететь, отведать, зашибить, тащиться, извести, отвалиться, застрять, скрыться, разыскать, притомиться, отвернуть, трепета, прикрыть, полечь, навалить (vassal, skin, wallpaper, feat, stranger, a pitcher, a mile, horseshoes, arbitrariness, absurdity, the enforcer, the courtship, the knacker's yard, cunning, daring, to rush, to descend, to enjoy, to kill, to trudge, to torture to death, fall off, get stuck, to hide, to seek, to get tired, to reject, to tremble, to cover, to fall dead, to pile.

b) In the speech of cartoon characters there are many expressions that require special review from the teacher. For this task students are encouraged to complete the following task: "match the expressions from the left column equivalent from the right column" (table 1).

Table 1

<p>| сила моих больше нет. my strength is not enough | противник, недруг the enemy |
| супостат adversary | мне неуютно, непривычно, нехорошо I feel uncomfortable, strange, bad |
| годы идут the years are going | сошел с ума go crazy |
| поколение X generation X - | предложить выйти замуж to offer to marry |
| мрачный тип Gloomy person | мое терпение закончилось my patience ran out |
| головой тронулся went crazy | время идет time goes by |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Русский</th>
<th>Английский</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>без надобности</td>
<td>unnecessarily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>невыносимо, выше сил человеческих</td>
<td>unbearable, beyond the power of men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>речь-то обо мне</td>
<td>видимо, не случайно</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it's something about me</td>
<td>probably not coincidentally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>не по себе сделалось</td>
<td>болтаться без дела, кривляться, шалить, делать глупости</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>felt uneasy</td>
<td>to hang around, to wriggle, play pranks, do stupid things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>делать предложение</td>
<td>вылези из кожи вон, сделай невозможное</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to propose</td>
<td>to get out of the way and do the impossible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ноги моей здесь больше не будет</td>
<td>нетрудная, удобная и выгодная работа</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will never come back here</td>
<td>comfortable and profitable work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>мочи больше нет</td>
<td>ненужный, лишний, ни к чему</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can't stand this any longer</td>
<td>unnecessary, superfluous, useless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>валять дурака</td>
<td>обо мне говорят</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fool around</td>
<td>they talk about me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>смертельно опасен</td>
<td>никогда и ни при каких обстоятельствах я сюда не приду</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deadly dangerous</td>
<td>never, under any circumstances, I will not come here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Побалагурить</td>
<td>не говори трудные и непонятные слова</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have a light conversation</td>
<td>do not say difficult and confusing words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>готовь сани летом</td>
<td>очень опасный</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prepare the sleigh in summer</td>
<td>very dangerous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>не ломай язык do not force the language</td>
<td>о будущем надо думать и заботиться уже сейчас you need to think and care about the future now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>из перьев вылези, но ... got out of feather, but ...</td>
<td>говорить с шутками, весело to speak with jokes, fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>работа не пильная the work is not hard</td>
<td>печальный, грустный, безрадостный человек sad, joyless people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>а тебе крышка you’re dead</td>
<td>видишь you see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>хочешь mansion, home</td>
<td>тебе настанет конец you’ll be finished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>вишь you see</td>
<td>дворец, дом the Palace</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) It is appropriate difficulties to ask students to read the main plot of the cartoon before viewing the cartoon with the purpose of removing possible language, speech, sociocultural. Brief content of the film is designed to interest students.

2. The tasks after watching a cartoon.

1) Tasks aimed at developing receptive skills (at the level of the allocation of substantial and semantic information):

a) "Mark (Yes/No) proposals that meet or do not meet the content of the footage". This type of task is designed to test general understanding of the plot (table 2).

| 1. Shamahanskaya Queen is very beautiful. Yes No |
| 2. The Prince has a library in the Palace. Yes No |
| 3. The Prince went to Shamahanskaya Kingdom with the heroes. Yes No |
| 4. The dragon is a friend of Ilya Muromets. Yes No |
| 5. Shamahanskaya Queen and the Prince were married. Yes No |
b) "Read the names of the characters and phrases from the cartoon. Identify who’s speaking?" (table 3).

**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raven</td>
<td>&quot;There is a sign&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya Muromets</td>
<td>&quot;Try the hero’s strength&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julius</td>
<td>&quot;I’ll beat you&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Prince of Kiev</td>
<td>&quot;Cry, cry, cry, don’t stop&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alyosha Popovich</td>
<td>&quot;It’s boring, boring, here I sit on the throne as the years go by&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nastasia</td>
<td>&quot;It is not suitable for a man other wives to admire, it’s not accepted&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shamahanskaya Queen</td>
<td>&quot;In the evening don't wait, go to sleep without me&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alyonushka</td>
<td>&quot;I won’t let you, you see what you decided to do - to roam along the Shamahanskiy kingdoms &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyubava</td>
<td>&quot;I'm head of the library&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nikitich</td>
<td>&quot;Russians do so&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C) As a quality control task students are encouraged to perform the test, the results of which will allow to judge the degree of detailed understanding of the content of the cartoon: "Answer the questions choosing the right answer":

1. What is the name of the competition for which Lubava draws the picture?
   A) "Three heroes in Russian culture" B) "Three heroes in folk art") "the Image of heroes in folk art".

2. The horse Julius works for the Kiev Prince as... .
   A) tour guide B) a librarian C) a cook

3. Shamahanskaya Queen wants to marry the Prince of Kiev, because ... .
   A) she loves him B) she wants to become rich C) it would help her become beautiful

4. Shamahanskaya Queen needs to fill the pitcher with tears of beauties to obtain ... .
   A) eternal life B) eternal youth and beauty) a lot of money
5. How many beauties does Shamahanskaya Queen need?
A) 1 000 B) 2 000) 3 000 
6. For what purpose the Prince went to the Shamahansko Kingdom?
A) to travel. B) to marry Shamahanskaya Queen. C) to find heroes. 
7. Who helps Shamahanskaya Queen?
8. Whom of the heroes, the horse Julius wrote a letter asking for help?
9. Typical heroes, according to Julius the horse, ... .
A) hit first, then ask B) first ask, then beat) beat and ask nothing 
10. Under the laws of the Shamahanskoe Kingdom, the bride can open the face ... .
A)before the wedding B) after the wedding C) at the wedding 
11. That did the Prince give Shamahanskaya Queen at the wedding?
A) Land B) A building C) A horse 
2) Assignments aimed at the development of speaking skills:
a) "Did you like the movie characters? What can you say about each of them? Pick up definition, write as many adjectives: Dobrynina Nikitich (bold, ...), Ilya Muromets (strong, ...), Alyosha Popovich (determined, ...), Alyonushka (beautiful ...), Lubava (young,...), Nastasia (strong, ...), Shamahanskaya Queen (evil ...), Julius the horse (tricky ...)".
b) "Shamahanskaya Queen is a character of not only modern animated film, but "the tale of the Golden Cockerel" by Alexander Pushkin, written in 1834, Read the passage from tales, compare the image of Shamahanskaya Queen in the poem and heroine of the cartoon: "Suddenly the tent // Opened... and a girl, // Shamahanskaya Queen, // All beaming like the dawn, // Silently greeted the king. // Like a bird of the night before the sun // the King paused, looking into her eyes, // And forgot in front of the girl // the death of the two sons. // And she before Dadon // Smiled and with a bow // Took his hand // And led him to her tent // There she offered him a meal, // Every dish was given to him; // She put him to rest // On the brocade bed. // And then, exactly for a week, // Following her course, // Bewitched, entranced, // was Dadon with her" [Pushkin].
b) "Answer the questions":
1. How is the family life of each of the heroes going? Tell us, what the heroes and their wives do in time of peace.
2. What famous painting is Lyubava’s picture similar to? Who is the author? What's it called?
3. Who, in the opinion of heroes is the first hero in Russia?
4. Who’s Shamahanskaya Queen? Why do all men fall in love with her?
5. For what reason does Shamahanskaya Queen cover half of her face?
6. Which rite does Shamahanskaya Queen need to make, to regain youth and beauty?
7. What purpose does Shamahanskaya Queen want to marry the Prince of Kiev for?
8. Why do you think the Prince believes that Shamahanskaya Queen will never love him?
9. Which of the heroes went to save the Prince and Julius on a horse, a camel, a donkey? Why? What does this say about heroes?
10. Where and how did the Dobrynina Nikitich and Zmey Gorynych meet? What's their relationship?
11. How does Shamahanskaya Queen call the wives of the heroes?
12. Tell me, if the wives of the heroes are different from the other girls? If so, in what way? Give examples.
13. What Russian traditions are shown in the cartoon?
14. How did the cartoon finish?

3) Task “The Voice”. You need to dub selected by the teacher or students a fragment of the cartoon, keeping the pace of speech and intonation of the characters. Students pre-read the dialogue of the characters to be dubbed, then say it to themselves along with the video.
4) The tasks which have the aim to involve students in creative activities.

The main thing at this stage is to use the original footage as the basis and support for the development of productive skills in speaking and writing.

Here you can suggest a task to write a possible scenario on the following topics:
a) What will happen next with the main characters?
b) How will be the fate of Shamahanskaya Queen?
c) What would happen if Shamahanskaya Queen didn't eat so much fruit of a magic tree?
g) Read the epic, where the main characters are heroes. Compare the images of epic heroes with cartoon.

Conclusion
Thus, working with animated films at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language allows you to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, as well as familiarize with Russian culture.

Gratitude
The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.

Bibliography
Regional studies text in the system of professional training of a future teacher

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Abstract
For modern University education the answer to the question becomes important: how not just to supply the learner with scientific knowledge, practical skills and skills, but also to help him to understand the values and traditions accumulated by the mankind? Therefore, the methodology has the challenge not only to respond it, but also to find possible ways of its practical implementation, including in the modern scientific context. Taking into account the leading directions of modern linguistics in the study of language personality, the language picture of the world, intercultural communication, methodology, following a student-oriented approach to learning, involves the multilevel organization of the student’s personality, focusing on the inclusion of a language personality in the native culture, which is one of the components of a basic lingual-cultural competence. Its formation in the classroom when learning a language becomes possible primarily through the acquaintance with the text, with its subsequent linguistic analysis.

The text at Russian lessons in the University is not only able to implement a functional approach to the study of all sections of the modern Russian language, fostering the professional training of the future teacher of the Russian language and literature, but also to become the vital link between the language and the culture. This understanding is relevant in the field of teachers’ training to their further professional development in the multicultural environment and their introduction to the national, moral, cultural-historical values of their people. The Local history text in this sense can be considered as the most necessary element of the implementation of the trinity "language – culture – man", in which, in the case of its reasonable use, language, culture and human activities are united through the relationship of words, text and artifact. The representatives of the communicative and ethnographic approach to the study of the language: M. Byram, V. Esarte-Sarries [1], G. Zarate [2], Cl. Kramsh[3] etc. say about the regularities of the interaction of language and culture, teaching language through familiarity with the culture of the people. The introduction of the Local history texts in the system of the higher education is also one of the most effective ways of practical implementation of not only of the main items of the Federal law "On education in the Russian Federation", focuses on"...the protection and development of ethnic and cultural peculiarities and traditions of the peoples of the Russian Federation in the conditions of multinational state”[4: http://zakon-ob-obrazovanii.ru/] and also the requirements of the Professional standard of the teacher [5].

Keywords: Local history, bachelor's degree student, linguistic and cultural competence, local history text, lingual-speech analysis of the text, Elabuga Local history, Elabuga Institute of K(P)FU, the subject of "Modern Russian language", a national-regional component, the Federal state educational standard of basic General education, Professional standard of the teacher, the Teacher of the 21st century.

1. Introduction
Contemporary Regional study as a field of Pedagogy has accumulated a plenty of material. Its division on the main directions is well-established in science: historical – D. V. Katsyuba, [6], G. P. Pirozhkov [7], etc.; literary - E. G. Bekker [8], M. D. Janko [9], etc.; library – V. N. Nikolaev [10], N. N. Shcherba [11], etc.; pedagogical - G. V. Averkieva [12], O. A. Bakhchiev [13] etc.

In modern foreign methods of teaching foreign language this problem is developed by L. A. Samovar, R. E. Porter and E. R. McDaniel[14], S. J. Savignon P. V. Sysoyev [15].

The concept of "Local history" means both the knowledge of the territory, and actually a subject that forms the moral values of the personality of a student, helping him to realize himself as a subject of a specific socio-cultural environment and a full citizen of his Motherland. In this regard, the study of Local history became the pedagogical concept of value for education, upbringing and development of students. Many scientists support this idea. For example, D. S. Likhachev writes that "Local history is not only the territory, but symbols, memory and history of the people, its heroes, a distinctive millennial culture of peoples of Russia" [CIT. according to N. N. Afanasiev 16, p. 11].

In this article the concept of "Local history" is seen as a pedagogical category. This understanding is also due to the fact that the pedagogical universities train specialists for a specific region, and knowledge of history, geography, culture and economy of the native land is important for future teachers of all profiles of training, especially Humanities. Thus, the regional approach, based on the dialogue of language and culture is currently becoming one of the leading in professional training of the teacher in a multicultural educational environment. In this sense Local history has the task of fostering a sense of love and respect to native land, to the history of the region, its culture and literature, mainly through acquaintance with the Local history text and its lingual-speech analysis.

Narrowing the scope of this concept, we consider the method of application of the Local history texts in training of a future teacher of literature.

The Local history text is considered in a broad sense, i.e. it is the text of artistic, scientific, publishing, officially-business styles that reflects the historical and cultural values of the multinational region, aesthetic in the content, structure and lexical fullness.

The study of the scientific literature on the subject has shown that in the Methods of teaching Russian as a native language the problem of studying language and culture is actively developed at the turn of XX-XXI centuries by V. A. Domanski [17], T.K. Donskoy [18], T. F. Novikova [19], L. G. Sadovoy [20] S. G. Ter-Minasova, [21],L. A. Khodakova [22].

It should be noted that in the above mentioned sources the implementation of a cultural approach in the school education system is describes and practically are not considered organizational and professional component of its application in training specialists in higher education system. The reform of higher education system in the pedagogical sphere, development and introduction of the Professional standard of the teacher is directed, certainly, to improve the quality of training a specialist. In particular, as it is noted by N. G. Moshkina, it is necessary to "fundamentally define the new requirements for professional activity of the modern teacher" [23: http://shelly.kpfu.ru/eksu/docs/F04382599/Mokshina_indijskij_zhurnal.pdf], who, in our opinion, should know the history and culture of the native region and use the Local history materials in the process teaching students.

3. Methods

In the framework of the conducted, the following methods of scientific knowledge were used in the article:
analysis of domestic and foreign psychological and pedagogical literature on the problem; of modern lingual-cultural concepts of language teaching from the point of organizing the material; socio-pedagogical (monitoring the process of the use of cultural texts in the study of disciplines of subject training of the 1-3 courses’ students of the Philology and history faculty of EI K(P)FU, conversations with teachers and students, written and oral surveys of students).

3. Mainpart
The Republic of Tatarstan is a region with a unique geographical location and with more than a thousand years of history. The modern Tatarstan is a multiethnic, multinational and multi-confessional society. Taking this into account, pedagogical staff of the Republic is trained on the basis of K(P)FU, including Elabuga Institute and its affiliates.

Realizing the importance of the implementation of the national-regional component in the educational system of the future generation, practical aim of our article was to search for possible ways of including the Local history material in the University program for the study of the subject "Modern Russian language" for undergraduate students of the Russian Philology and history faculty in the direction of training 44.03.05 - Pedagogical education (with two profiles), the profile "Russian language and literature". Such a study becomes relevant in a system of the implementation the project SAE (strategic academic unit) "The Teacher of the 21st century" [24], implemented by K(P)FU.

Solving this, we have chosen the Local history literary texts, worked out a set of tasks for them, which, in our opinion, will allow, for the different stages of the study of sections of the following subject, as well as to adopt the bachelors to the program information in the discipline, and to introduce them to the history and culture of Elabuga region.

In this article we make an attempt to present a version of the integrated lingual-speech analysis of the Local history text in the study of the underlying program subject "Modern Russian language" by the students-bachelors.

When including the text on Local history to the subject of study, first, it is necessary to pay attention not only on the proper construction of the tasks, contributing to the development of students' logical thinking and a holistic perception of the text, but also the education of patriotism and instilling respect for a native Motherland. With this purpose the authors have taken abstracts from the works of Yelabuga writers (the authors, offering such name, take into account Elabuga, not only as the birthplace of the writer, but his stay in this city) S. T. Romanovsky, N.A. Durova and D. I. Staheev.

In the first stage of the selection of the local material all the texts, somehow connected with the history of Elabuga region, were allocated primarily according to their functional-stylistic characteristic for: art (lyrical and prose works of D. I, Staheev, the stories of S. T. Romanowski, poems of Elabuga poets and poets writing about Yelabuga: N.A. Verderevsky, G. Volkova, Z. Platonov, etc.); journalistic (newspaper articles from "New Kama": "Ascetic of Elabuga land " (I. I. Shishkin), "Elabuga of the last century. Trinity cemetery", etc.); popular science (the legend of devil's ancient settlement, texts about the Ananyino culture).

The second stage involved the distribution of the texts in thematic clusters, based on their substantive content. In the result of this work four thematic sections have been identified:

1. A favorite city melts in a blue haze (history of Elabuga region).
2. For centuries, giving the light of knowledge (about the history of Elabuga Institute).
3. Devotees of the land of Elabuga (about the famous people that brought fame to Elabuga).

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4. The bridge from antiquity to the present (modern Elabuga)

When working with the Local history text, in our opinion, it is better to use complex analysis, assuming the same forms of the work, that are used with other texts of social and cultural character. Therefore, it becomes important not to perform individual tasks on the text, but to set a complex of them, which naturally becomes possible for students of the 4-5 years of study.

As an example of a comprehensive analysis we propose the extract from the story of Elabuga writer S. T. Romanovsky "The tower on the Kama" at different stages of the acquaintance of undergraduate students with the sections of the subject "Modern Russian language" and its linguistic units:

I was born in the antient town of Yelabuga, which fell to the foot of the mountain with the tower in the Devil site. Ever since I can remember, I've heard rumors about this tower. From them to this time I have felt a great mystery. For the first time in my life I went there when I was in the third grade with a desk's neighbor Alyosha. The mountain, where the tower stands when viewed from the city resembles a smooth back of the animal, which is not extinct, but falls asleep from time to time. While we were walking up this reddish back, I was exhausted and stopped frightened.

[25, p. 9]

**Practical exercises to the text:**
1. Tell us about the author’s personality; find biographical information about the life and work of T. S. Romanowsy.
2. Describe the individual author’s stylistic features of the text.
3. Analyze phonetic peculiarities of the text. Transcribe the first paragraph of the text, proposed for the analysis. Tell us what you know about the monument "devil's ancient settlement". What legends about it do you know?
4. Explain the choice of orthogram in place of parentheses. Prove your answer with the rule. Define spelling principle in spellings of these words.
5. In the highlighted words, note the phonetic features of some sounds and sound combinations. What rules need to be used in their pronunciation?
6. From the point of view of language history explain the appearance in the pronunciation of the sound [v] in the word “this”.
7. Find in the proposed extract the word with a fixed and non-fixed verbal emphasis. Write them out.
8. Briefly describe the text from the point of the terms used in the vocabulary. Find out, based on the etymological dictionaries, the origin of the word "Elabuga".

Of course, a comprehensive analysis of the text should not be sporadic. The given text and tasks can be applied to use when studying disciplines of the basic part ("Russian language and speech culture"), of the variable one ("Methods of teaching Russian language"), as well as elective disciplines ("Literary Region studies", "Folklore", "Russian dialectology").

**Inferences**

The authors of this article, considering the leading direction of modern methodical science, based on research of domestic and foreign scientists, tried to present their own vision of the question of the introduction of local material in the University system of teaching on "Modern Russian language" classes. A fragment of organizing of such a lesson, focused on acquaintance with the works of Elabuga writer S.
T. Romanowsky by the lingual-speech analysis of the extract from one of his stories, should help, in our opinion, a high school teacher of the disciplines of the linguistic cycle to organize his classes, taking into account the implementation of the national-regional component, which is of the relevant to our multicultural republic.

Conclusion
The prospect of this research should become the practice of introducing into the Assessment Fund of knowledge (FAK) in the block of "Modern Russian language" of the tasks of this kind for the bachelor students of the profile "Teacher of Russian language and literature", as well as the opportunity to continue this research and offer the tasks with the study of the Regional History text for students studying Russian language as a foreign one.

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References
Universal Simulation Of A Class In Biology With The Use Of The Critical Thinking Development Techniques

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Abstract
The paper is conditioned by the practical necessity of the society in a person who could have specific qualities of thinking. It is impossible to go through one training and lifetime as a highly qualified specialist, therefore the main criterion is continuous education, which is a vital need.
Critical thinking is an inseparable part of modifying the modern school in general and optimizing the process of learning biology, in particular. The paper considers fourteen techniques of Critical Thinking Technologies, which are ranked by application groups and can be used at different stages of biology classes, which led to the creation of a universal mental map that simplifies the teacher's work in preparing class programs and allows them to be creatively designed.
Mental development of the personality is due not only to the volume of knowledge and information retained in the memory, but also the ability of the person to select the required information. Proceeding from this, it is believed that critical thinking is an inseparable part of the modification of the modern school and the teaching of biology in particular.

Keywords: critical thinking technology, biology lesson, simulation, cluster, cinquain, fishbone, cross discussion, challenge, comprehension, reflection.

Introduction
The technology of development of critical thinking arose relatively recently, in 1997. Its authors are American scientists Ch. Temple, K. Meredith, D. Still. For 20 years, this technology had gradually been introduced into domestic pedagogy. The relevance of mastering this technology has increased with the maintenance of the State Standard of the second generation (GEF), since the use of technology for the development of critical thinking allows solving many problems of the formation of universal educational activities.
Every person and the society in general faces difficult tasks: to be able to analyze current events, to be tolerant of a different point of view, to consider assumptions as hypotheses that need verification, and to abandon those, which do not stand this test, and also to develop an attitude toward a critical attitude towards themselves and the world around them [1]. The change in social and economic landmarks in the development of society has significantly raised the role of the individual's ability to adequately assess the existing situation on the basis of its critical analysis and build on this basis a project for the successful solution of a given problem, which requires the development of critical thinking already at the stage of school education [2, 3, 4].
The main goal and innovation of the technology of development of critical thinking is the development of analytical abilities of students, aimed at self-education [5, 6]. Also, the students train their skills of finding the necessary information, motivation for learning, systematization of knowledge, setting of learning goals. A competently built class allows either increasing the motivation of students to learn, or forming their skills of self-education [7, 8, 9].

The peculiarity of this technology is that its use at different stages of the lesson allows formulating differently the universal educational activities.

Objective of this paper is to develop recommendations for creating a universal mental map that can be used to construct a class in any subject, in any lesson and on any topic.

Methods
During the research on this topic, domestic and foreign literature was analyzed. Creative comprehension of the available literary sources and personal experience of the authors in the systems of secondary and higher education led to the creation of a universal mental map that simplifies the teacher’s work in constructing the lesson.

Results and discussion
A lesson based on the Technology of Critical Thinking Development is divided into three stages: evocation, realization and reflection. The modern pedagogical literature describes many techniques, which are recommended to design and conduct a lesson or extracurricular work using the Technology of Critical Thinking Development. These techniques help in the development of such meta-subjective universal learning activities stipulated in the Standard as:

- independently set the learning objectives and ways to achieve them;
- set tasks in the course of studying new material;
- monitor own activity in the process of achieving the result;
- adjust own actions in accordance with a changing situation;
- knew the basics of self-control, self-esteem;
- independently choose the grounds and criteria for classification;
- find cause-effect relationship;
- identify and briefly represent common and special features when comparing two or more objects, phenomena, facts, etc.;
- develop motivation for mastering the use of dictionaries and other search engines, etc.

Technological techniques are developed for each stage of the lesson, some of which can be applied at once in several stages. In our opinion, the teachers successfully apply the following 14 techniques that we have specially selected to compile a mental map, and the main criteria that were taken into account in the selection are the possibility of activating the cognitive and emotional interest of the students, as well as the simplicity of mastering the reception by the teacher and the simplicity of its use in class:

- a table of “thick and thin” questions;
- a table of “plus-minus-question («+/-?»)”;
- Game “Do you believe?”
- “Insert”;
- “true or false” table;
- “Three-color diary”;
- “General-unique”;
- Cinquain;
- “Logbook”;
- cross discussion;
- “Bloom’s chamomile”;
- “Fishbone”; 
- “Article” strategy;
- Cluster.

The use of techniques should be characterized for students by spontaneity, which is in fact carefully prepared by the teacher; only then they will become part of the process of finding solutions [10]. Based on the structure of the technology of critical thinking development, the mental map should also have three key semantic units: Evocation, Realization and Reflection.

The stage “Challenge” proposes using the following techniques: “Bloom’s chamomile”, the “true or false” table, and the game “Do you believe?”. The description of techniques and examples of their use in biology classes are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“True or false” table</td>
<td>The table contains statements asked at the beginning of the lesson to be defined as true or false. At the end of the lesson, students return to this table and, if necessary, make corrections thereto.</td>
<td>Topic: Water is the source of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reserves of fresh water on Earth are unlimited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+/-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seawater can be desalinated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Icebergs are blocks of fresh water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>For water filtration it is better to use charcoal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Market filters are ineffective for tap water purification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game “Do you believe?”</td>
<td>The statements written on the board begin with “Do you believe that…” The students have to reason their answers.</td>
<td>Do you believe that 1 m³ of the air in the school class during the first lesson contains 2,600 microbes, and by the end of 6 lesson - already 13,500?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do you believe that the sun rays are destructive to bacteria?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do you believe that most tobacco</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
manufacturers do not use their products themselves?

Do you believe that tobacco smoke contains such inorganic substances as radioactive polonium, a combination of arsenic and cadmium?

Do you believe that smoking causes lung cancer?

"Bloom’s chamomile"

Includes six types of questions.

1. Simple questions, to identify the facts: when, where.

2. Clarifying questions: you say that...


4. Creative questions: what would change if...

5. Evaluation questions: how one event is related to another.

6. Practical questions: where these skills can be useful in the daily life.

Simple questions: who and when introduced the term “vitamin”.

Clarifying questions: Do you think that the use of vitamins only benefits?

Explaining question: Why is excessive consumption of vitamins harmful to the body?

Creative questions: what would change if scientists selected fruits that contain vitamins of all groups?

Evaluation question: how does the effect of vitamin A differ from that of vitamin PP?

Practical question: how will the knowledge received today in the lesson affect your diet?

The Realization stage implies such techniques as “Insert”, “Logbook”, “Three-color diary”, “Fishbone”, tables of “plus-minus-question” and “thick and thin questions”, which description and examples of use in biology classes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

“Realization” stage techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Insert”</td>
<td>While reading the text, students make notes on the margins of the page, such as &quot;■&quot; - already knew; &quot;+&quot; - new; &quot;—&quot; - thought differently; &quot;?” - did not understand, have</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
questions. After reading the text, students fill in the table in their notebooks, where the icons are the table column headings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HIV infection and AIDS: infection, symptoms, treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>■</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Logbook”

Students write down what they knew before studying this topic and what new they learned during the lesson in the table in their notebooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synthetic theory of evolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do I know on this topic? / Assumptions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Three-color diary”

The diary is composed of three columns. The first column should contain a quotation that interested the student, the second column contains a comment of what exactly interested, and the third column, if necessary, contains the question to the teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quotation</th>
<th>The living bodies existing on Earth are open, self-regulating and self-replicating systems built from biopolymers – proteins and nucleic acids</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question to the teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Plus-minus-question”

At the beginning of the lesson, the students write down positive and negative statements on a certain topic in the table during the reading of the paragraph, as well as any information or question that interested them during the reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject: The problem of draining swamps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ Destruction of malaria mosquito habitats, appearance of additional land suitable for agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Death of plants and animals living in wetlands, a change in the structure of the ecosystem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>? Is it possible to grow cranberries in artificial marshes?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Fishbone”

A scheme in the form of a fish skeleton. The head is filled in with the main problem, the upper bones – with reasons, the bottom bones –

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head: secondary succession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upper bones: reason</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
with facts, and the tail contains the conclusion. At the teacher’s discretion, tasks can be modified, for example: the reasons can be replaced by the names of the orders, and the facts on the representatives of the orders.

Bottom bones: prevention of the problem
Tail: conclusion

Head: vegetative reproduction
Upper bones: method
Bottom bones: example
Tail: conclusion

A table of “thick and thin” questions

The left column contains questions that require a simple, monosyllabic answer. The right column includes questions that require a detailed answer.

Immune system of the body

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thin</th>
<th>Thick</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is immune system?</td>
<td>What is the relationship between the structure of leukocytes and their functions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where do blood cells form?</td>
<td>What happens if transferring Rh-positive blood to a person with Rh-negative blood?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is the author of phagocytosis?</td>
<td>What is the significance of the circulatory system of a human?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many blood groups do you know?</td>
<td>What causes decrease in immunity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the name of the type of immunity acquired by introducing a weakened strain of bacteria into the human body?</td>
<td>What is common and what is the difference between leukocytes and red blood cells?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If when choosing methods for the Evocation stage we pursued the goal of the earliest possible inclusion of students into the work in the classroom, the activation of their cognitive activity, then those
technological techniques were selected for the Realization stage, which maximally contribute to the formation of such skills as independently choose classification criteria, establish cause-effect relations, and distinguish common and special features when comparing.

For the formation of critical thinking in laboratory and practical classes in biology, students need to develop a "habit" of evaluating the final results, i.e., to carry out a kind of reflection. For the Reflection stage, we offer the techniques listed in Table 3: Cinquain, "General-unique", Cross-discussion, and Article strategy.

Table 3

“Reflection” stage techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cinquain</td>
<td>Rules for writing a cinquain.</td>
<td>Flower Unisexual, wind-pollinated Attracts, reproduces, forms Main parts - stamens and pistils Fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st line - 1 noun (name of the poem, theme)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd line - 2 adjectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd line - 3 verbs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4th line - a four-word phrase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5th line - 1 noun (synonym to the first line)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“General-unique” technique</td>
<td>This technique uses comparison of two or more objects, phenomena or facts.</td>
<td>Comparison of the class Birds with the class Mammals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Record a common characteristic for phenomena, and then unique information on each phenomenon.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-discussion</td>
<td>A question or a controversial statement is proposed. Students in pairs write the argument &quot;for&quot; and &quot;against&quot;. Next, they express their point of view. At the end of the lesson, everyone writes their own conclusion.</td>
<td>Topic: Nuclear power as a source of cheap energy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Article” strategy;</td>
<td>The work consists of three stages.</td>
<td>Topic: Oparin's theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stage I – discuss the plan of the article</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stage II – analyze the text, paste on the sheet prepared by the teacher drawings,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
schemes, diagrams.

Stage III – present the work to the class

Some techniques can be used at different stages of the lesson. Such techniques as “Plus-minus-question" table and a table of "thick" and "thin" questions can be used both at the stage of evocation and at the stage of realization. The techniques of “Logbook" and “Three-color diary" are used at the stage of realization and at the stage of reflection. At the stage of evocation and reflection, you can use the “True/false statements" technique. A universal technique for all stages of the lesson on developing critical thinking is the Cluster (Table 4). It can be used at the beginning of the lesson at the evocation stage, when the topic of the lesson is set, at the stage of realization in the course of the lesson, when writing down large semantic units, which determine the basic directions of studying the topic, and at the stage of reflection, when the incorrect assumptions in the blocks are being corrected and replaced with new information, and causal relationships between the individual semantic blocks are established.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cluster</td>
<td>The topic of the lesson is shown graphically: the topic of the lesson is written in the center with large semantic units around connected with the central topic using lines. Each large semantic unit can contain small, also connected with lines.</td>
<td>Topic: Healthy diet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In preparation for the lesson, we offer the teacher to use the universal mental map (Figure 1), drawn up on the basis of the above provisions. The map is a kind of simplified, but deployed cheat sheet for the teacher.

**Conclusion.** Using the proposed universal mental map template to simulate the biology lesson with the help of the techniques of critical thinking development technology, the teacher will be able independently, depending on the purpose and tasks of both the lessons and extracurricular work, to
select the necessary techniques and create his/her own mental map within the technological map (notes) of the lesson. The use of such a mental map will allow the teacher to avoid routine and creatively approach to the design of his/her lessons and extra-curricular activities, which will help create an atmosphere of joy in learning. Mastering only fourteen techniques of critical thinking development technology allows, with their various combinations, creating more than 2,500 different forms of lessons.

Summary.

1. The necessity of mastering the technology of critical thinking development by the teachers of high schools is dictated by the introduction of State educational standards with the purpose of solving a number of problems of forming universal learning activities and developing analytic abilities aimed at self-education.

2. The proposed universal mental map simplifies the teacher's work in preparation for lessons, however, allows for their creative design and can be used in secondary and higher education systems.

3. Each stage of the lesson, based on the Technology of critical thinking development can have special techniques selected, 14 of which are successfully used by teachers as the easiest to learn and use in class, but they are also the most suitable for activating cognitive and emotional interest in students.

4. Some techniques can be used at different stages of the lesson; cluster is universal for all stages of the lesson on developing critical thinking.

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The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.
Fig. 1 - The universal mental map for simulation of a class in biology with the use of the critical thinking development techniques

References
The Work Organization In Elementary Schools Of Kazan In Days Of The Great Patriotic War

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Abstract
The present publication is devoted to problems of the work organization of elementary schools of the city of Kazan the 1941-1945th. In article the complex of the actions and problems which were carried out by the state in the field of education and education in days of the Great Patriotic War is considered, the main conclusions and provisions characterizing change and complication of government policy for the Soviet school during a specified period are presented. When writing article system and structural approach, dialectic, general historical and logical methods which allowed revealing intrinsic features at the Soviet school of the military period was used. The method of historical continuity allowed studying development of an education system in a historical retrospective. Consideration of a problem both at the all-union level, and on regional allowed revealing the general and special, difficulties and contradictions in reorganization of an education system in 1941-1945. In article it is told about historical and pedagogical inevitability and need of reforming of system of school education in the USSR in the years of war. Practical application of this publication consists in emphasis of attention of professional community of historians and teachers on achievements of a domestic pedagogical thought, complex application of the concrete practices and recommendations developed by the Soviet teachers.

Key terms: Great Patriotic war, National commissariat of education, elementary school, Tatar Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (TASSR), Tatar institute of improvement of teachers.

Introduction
The Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945 significantly influenced activity of the Soviet school. War intensified and complicated work of governing bodies of national education. The school, despite objective difficulties, had to capture all children of school age these or those forms of education. Besides, a task to provide their education in the spirit of patriotism, nobody removed from school. In the years of war also change in structure of teaching staff is observed. Demographic changes, namely significant increase in number of women in schools, were explained by wartime conditions. The financial aspect - transition of teachers to another, more well paid work, also introduces the amendments in quantitative and qualitative structure of pedagogical staff of the Soviet schools. War which introduced irreparable "amendments" in life of people demanded fast transformation and work of comprehensive schools including initial. Under such circumstances mobilization of forces, fight for realization of general education of children about three main directions develop: 1) defensive, 2) ideological and 3) economic. Elementary school had to provide to pupils such preparation which would allow them to continue successfully training at high school and to provide a sufficient basis for professional education. In implementation of these tasks paramount value had studying of the native language: enrichment of the dictionary of pupils, development of the speech, competent letter, mastering ability of conscious reading.

Methods
The methodology and methods of a research are defined by the following principles of historical knowledge: historicism, scientific objectivity, comparison, complexity and systemacy. General scientific methods: the analysis, synthesis, comparison, induction, deduction allowed to see succession of events in dynamics. The historical and genetic method carried to special historical helped to consider succession of
events in the region in comparison to all-union tendencies. Conceptual provisions of scientific research in the field of studying of problems of teaching history at school and higher education institution became the theory-and-methodology basis of work. General historical and logical methods allowed constructing the created technique in its continuity and the sequence with internal logical communications between certain elements. To systematize the most important indicators of an education system concerning the number of elementary schools in Kazan in the years of war, the list of teachers, pupil’s historical and typological approach allowed systematizing teaching and educational technologies.

Results

In development of the Soviet school in the 1941-1945th the following stages and the key moments are allocated. In the years of war the countries of the resolution SNK USSR and Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party (Bolsheviks) regulating school life of 15.05.1934 continued to work. "About structure of elementary and high school in the USSR" and from 3.09.1935g. "About the organization of study and the internal schedule at elementary, incomplete high and high school", defined establishment of accurate and steady school structure, in strengthening of discipline and an order among pupils and in the accurate organization of all course of study. In them exact terms of the beginning and the termination of studies were defined: for elementary school (from September 1 to June 1 for pupils of 1-3 classes, for the 4th class - till June 10); quantity of lessons: in the first four classes - in day there had to be only 4 lessons (on 5 lessons only two days were allowed, and that it was provided for pupils 4 classes), lesson duration - 45 minutes [1].

Since 1934 in all country the uniform system of the general education was entered. It included the following types of schools: initial (4 years of training), incomplete average (7 years of training) and average (10 years of training). These measures put an end to various deviations and excesses in national education in the Soviet republics including in TACC, complicating implementation of general education and implementation of the nation-wide plan of training. The special relation within change of educational process was demanded by control over activity of schools and teachers from bodies of national education in order to avoid discrepancy of occupations to the working plan. Narkompros's order of RSFSR "About improvement of control of work of schools and teachers and statements of the accounting of knowledge of pupils" of October 16, 1943 accurately structured organizational forms of school education. According to this order it was recommended to provide on places regular control of schools and lessons from inspectors of departments of national education. It was at the same time necessary to pay special attention to that, the teacher, his preparation for a lesson; an examination of pupils how qualitatively works, conducting selective survey, etc. However, nevertheless, inspectors did not check organizational and economic work at schools.

The resolution SNK USSR of December 1, 1943 established from 1944/1945 academic years compulsory education of children at elementary school since seven years. Important economic value had that according to this resolution; age level for a year was lowered. This introduction which helped to avoid the existing gap between kindergarten and school became expedient from the psychological and pedagogical aspect.

As a result of long and continuous fight of the country leaders and the republic in general for education and culture more than 90% of the population became competent. By 1945 education level among the population Tatar the ASSR made 90.4% [3]. The country leaders in the decisions on school repeatedly emphasized a role of the teacher in training of children. "The national teacher in the proletarian state has to be the mighty and right tool in hands of our party in education of the generation capable finally complete communism" [10]. Mobilization in army created deficiency in teaching personnel of schools. The government, in these circumstances, took a number of the measures promoting elimination of problems with shots of teachers. SNK USSR accurately put before regional, regional executive committees.
and Councils of People's Commissars of autonomous republics, narcomats and departments of the USSR and RSFSR to return by September 1, 1943 for pedagogical work to schools of all teachers which worked not in the specialty. The exception was done only for teachers who held elective offices in these or those Soviet and public organizations. Categorically it was impossible to employ teachers not in the specialty. For this purpose special permission of the people's commissar of education was required. Besides, teachers, the decision of the State Committee of Defense against 1944, ahead of schedule were subject to demobilization from rear parts of army. SNK USSR and Central Committee All-Union Communist Party (Bolsheviks) the resolution of August 11, 1943 raised the salary to teachers and other staff of elementary and high school. It is important to note that circumstance that teachers of schools and normal schools on supply with bread were equated to workers of transport, the industry and communication. The task to improve business and political skills of teachers was assigned to the institutes of improvement of teachers (IIT). The Council of People's Comissars of RSFSR approved by the resolution from the beginning of 1944 the standard provision on IUU. Legislative fixing of one of the most important forms of professional development and retraining of school workers had to affect quality and prestige of a profession of the teacher in society.

In this regard we will note regional features of the solution of this question - in Kazan for the solution of a personnel question short-term three-months courses on training of teachers of elementary schools were created, the teachers who are not occupied in the specialty came back to work to schools. Also the opportunity of training of pupils was given by the evacuated teachers. In the years of war of change concerned also curricula of such disciplines as Russian and literature. The number of hours, taken away on their studying, increased. According to practical recommendations of the National commissariat of education of RSFSR at elementary school special attention was paid to occupations of Russian and arithmetics. E. N. Petrova in work of "Russian technique basis [7]" at elementary school" noted that language is in indissoluble communication with thinking. From here the important pedagogical requirement - to train in language on the basis of development of thinking of the school student followed. Hours of a practical training at arithmetics lessons were entered. It provided students with a systematic course of knowledge, imparted them ability to put this knowledge into practice, promoted development of their thinking and creative abilities, development of activity and independence. Such objects as natural sciences, geography and history were studied in the senior classes of elementary school. As the main method explanatory reading with addition in it the initial data and knowledge of history, geography was applied. All-round development of pupils provided use of intersubject communications. So, lessons of human anatomy and physical cultures at pupils of elementary school passed under the slogan: "Studying life and a structure of our body, we will be healthy and useful builders of socialist society". In the years of war "civil history" had important educational and patriotic value. The number of hours was increased by studying of the military past of the country, Patriotic war of 1812 Besides, the special resolution of Council of People's Commissars of the USSR of October 24, 1942 about military physical training of pupils of initial and 1-4 classes of incomplete high and high schools was accepted. The number of hours increased by military physical training in the 3rd and 4th classes till 2 o'clock in a week. Considerable specific weight in the program was occupied by drill and gymnastics. Such occupations developed the flexible, strong, hardy, healthy, and adapted for difficulties of war organism. Military heads that were delegated from persons of an average and younger command structure of a stock have to teach this subject. They had to receive preparation for occupations with school students. Also the teachers who underwent military training and having the right for holding such occupations with school students could conduct these occupations. It should be noted that pupils of the senior classes also took part in labor education of younger school students. For example, under the leadership of seniors and teachers special groups from pupils of the 2nd and 3rd classes responsible for collecting mushrooms, berries and
cones were created. Generally, speaking about functioning of the Soviet school in 1941-1945 we will note ambiguity of this process. The fact that the Soviet school of wartime promoted strengthening of its communication with life is very positive. Return to school of labor preparation and an involvement of school students into socially useful activity, their inclusiveness to productive work of adults in various spheres of the national economy promoted their further socialization. But, in it is a high time too, at school during this period ideological pressure, both in the most educational process, and in out-of-school activity was strengthened.

Discussion
The earliest work "Development of national education in Tatar the ASSR" [10], presented to the analysis, belongs to Yu. A. Tuishev, in 1941-1945 the being director of the Kazan teacher training college. The author describes history of development of education in TACC P for 1920-1950, analyzes this process on the basis of statistical data.

In R. V. Shakirov's monograph "The Kazan pedagogical school in the second half of the 20th century" [11] is generalized big material of researches of scientists-teachers of the republic. The author introduces for scientific use the generalized concept - "the Kazan pedagogical school". R. V. Shakirov gave the short review of scientific research of the Kazan teachers which includes the analysis of the grants, books and monographs describing history of development of school, pedagogics, education in XVIII, 19th and 20th centuries, and also fruitful activity of many Tatar educators and teachers. In the head "The window in the past" is given the short retrospective review of a condition of pedagogical matter in the Kazan region at the end of XIX - the first half of the 20th centuries.

The abstract to the thesis "Development of primary education in Tatar the ASSR in 1945-1985" [2] G.N.Gusak is of interest. The author considers the main stages and conditions of development of primary education in Tatar the ASSR in 1945-1985, contents, forms, methods of educational and educational processes, including in the years of war.

The edition of one of fundamental works on the specified subject belongs to 2012 when the doctoral dissertation of A. Sh. Kabirova "Tatar by the ASSR in the period of the Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945 was defended: social and economic and cultural and ideological processes in the rear region" [5]. This work represents the first research characterizing the region during the specified period. In it substantial justification of the work organization of institutions of an education system, including elementary schools of the republic is given. O. G. Evgrafova in the article "Activity of the Tatar Institute of Improvement of Teachers in days of the Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945." [4] also considers problems in an education system in the years of war. The contents of article characterize work of institute and the system of functioning of institutions of national education of the republic during this period is analyzed. The author stops on features of activity of comprehensive schools and teachers, and also the actions prepared by the Tatar Institute of Improvement of Teachers (TIIT) within professional development of pedagogical shots in military years.

In work N. V. Malkhasyan "The state management of system of national education in days of the Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945" is in details lit activities of public authorities for the organization of spiritual and moral and military patriotic education of younger generation, experience of schools and pedagogical collectives on strengthening of an ideological and political orientation of teaching and educational process at school [6] is analyzed.

Yu. G. Rossinsky in the article "Education System of RSFSR in days of the Great Patriotic War" [8] considers and analyzes the events held by the country leaders on implementation of work of educational institutions during the specified period, child care, the accounting of the evacuated population. A number of foreign researchers, for example L. Holmes and others, also focus attention on system of school
education as one of important at the characteristic of the Soviet society [9]. Thus, the analysis of publications, including foreign authors, on the designated subject, allows to state stable interest in a problem of functioning of system of education in extreme military conditions. In turn, history of daily occurrence of the Soviet society of the military period has to be filled with regional researches.

Summary
Detection of features of work of elementary schools of the city of Kazan in 1941-1945 represents special relevance in connection with an opportunity to use the revealed material for detailed reconstruction of everyday life of the Soviet society in the period of the maximum tension of forces during war. The research of process of functioning of educational institutions in the conditions of war allows revealing the main vectors of development of the state and regional policy in the field of education, to estimate and characterize scales of the transformational processes developed in the region during a specified period.

Conclusion
The subject of this research is urgent the fact that the concrete regional aspect of functioning of elementary school in TACCP in the 1941-1945th is still insufficiently studied. Besides, so far the question of development of an education system in TACCP in military years did not receive full lighting in a historiography and did not become an object of a special research.

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University Pedagogical System And Its Focus On Destructive Student Behavior Overcoming

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Abstract

A certain part of the students often falls under the negative influence of certain social processes due to life experience and ideological convictions lack. These processes generate the individual’s destructive behavior, which requires finding adequate solutions in the university conditions. In this regard, the main attention in this paper is devoted to the substantiation of the theoretical and methodical approach to the development of the university pedagogical system innovative elements, aimed at overcoming the student destructive behavior. The content of research basic concept - "the university pedagogical system" is revealed and rethought, taking into account the specifics of student destructive behavior overcoming; mechanisms for student destructive behavior overcoming in the university pedagogical system are described; based on the results of the study, the structure and content of the pedagogical system innovative elements that are oriented toward correcting the student destructive behavior are justified.

Keywords: pedagogical system, student personality, destructive behavior, value orientations, values.

Introduction

The change in the requirements for student training as the future specialist in modern spheres of labor, accordingly modifies the pedagogical system of higher professional education, determines its transition from canonicity and "knowledge" orientation to the characteristics of openness, nonlinearity and self-organization (Baeva, 2002; Dmitrievsky, 2002; Zaslavskaya, 2000; Kolesnikova, 2012; Kholueva & Mukharlyamova, 2016). In the course of the study, the priority of the established characteristics for the future specialist personality formation who is oriented to the long-term life perspective was proved (Novikov, 2006; Erickson, 2006); who carries out social and professional self-realization and corrects his or her career growth (Vyugina, 2015; Zeer, 2003; Haken, 2005; Khutorskoy, 2001; Shchelkunov, 2010); who possesses a stable immunity to manifestations of various destructive influences and processes (Kuklin & Belyakov, 2003; Karpukhin, 1998; Kislyakov, 2014; Nordkvelle, 2003).

As an imperative task of the pedagogical system established transformations, the tasks of correctional mechanisms designing and implementing for student destructive behavior overcoming are defined in the course of the research. It is proved that the corrective mechanisms for student destructive behavior overcoming are most fully realized in the innovative conditions of the pedagogical system openness, nonlinearity, self-organization oriented towards the achievement of the following goals:

- formation of the individual's readiness for self-organization, self-realization, professional self-determination;
- independence in the development trajectories choice;
- development of collegial, partner relations with teachers and fellow students;
- free self-expression of individuality in interaction: "teacher-student", "student-student", "student-teacher";
- integration of all entities of the pedagogical process in conditions of self-organization and the risks of the educational environment (Novikov, 2006; Parsons, 1998; Fromm, 2009; Shchenina, 2005; Yasvin, 2000).

To substantiate the importance of the theoretical and methodical approach to the development of university pedagogical system innovative elements, the paper reveals the content of the concept the *university pedagogical system*, rethought taking into account the specifics of the student destructive behavior's overcoming; mechanisms are given for student destructive behavior overcoming; based on the study results, the structure and content of the pedagogical system innovative elements (openness, nonlinearity, self-organization), which correct the manifestations of student destructive behavior, are justified. The effectiveness of the structure and content of innovative elements has been proved with the help of "high", "average" and "low" levels of students' readiness to overcome destructive behavior in the university pedagogical system: a constant virtual conflict with oneself, with teachers, the future profession, production; decreased interest in learning, unwillingness to learn, problems with attendance and academic achievement; negative motivation to communicate with teachers, fellow students, representatives of labor collectives; a decline in activity, responsibility, initiative nature and independence, dependence on "bad companies", illegal actions, "dropouts".

**Literature Review**

It is established that a special role in solving the problem of student destructive behavior overcoming in the university pedagogical system belongs to scientists developing the problem of specialists' clusters development with creative thinking for modern labor markets. This group of researchers also developed technologies for designing student personality models - a future specialist with a high level of intellectual capacity of topical, prognostic, reflexive and strategic nature, providing students with long-term immunity from destructive influences (Vyugina, 2015; Kuklin & Belyakov, 2003; Parsons, 1998; Haken, 2005; Halpern, 2000; Hjell & Ziegler, 1997; Hamel & Prahalad, 2001). The trends in this direction allow us to substantiate the key notions of the student's destructive behavior, to establish the causes of this phenomenon and to develop mechanisms for its correction in the creative orientations of the university pedagogical system to the process of training future specialists. Another group of researchers (Baeva, 2002; Dmitrievsky, 2002; Marchenkova, 2009) focuses on the problem of students' self-alienation in society, the cause of which they allocate the aggressive influence of social networks. Researchers who focus on the problems of an individual’s identity (Zeer, 2003: Fromm, 2009; Chuprov, Zubok & Williams, 2003), make informed conclusions that professional identity - is an objective and subjective unity with either a separate representative of the profession or with a professional group and the activities carried out in it, which determines the adoption and implementation of professional norms, roles and statuses. The process, that is inversely proportional to identity, ends with the professional destruction of the personality. Specialists on the problems of student socio-cultural immunity formation in the university educational environment singled out problems of the environment identification with the society sociocultural space, which is methodologically incorrect (Karpukhin, 1998; Kislyakov, 2014; Kolesnikova, 2012). To date, researchers give special attention to the problems of educational process innovative models designing and implementing, as a space that is safe for the future specialist's personality formation (Vyugina, 2015; Kislyakov, 2014; Kholueva, Mukharlyamova, 2016; Shchelkunov, 2010;
In the course of the research it was proved that, despite a rather extensive array of scientific works on the phenomenon of student destructive behavior in the university educational space, most of the research is of a discrete nature that does not touch upon the specifics of the university pedagogical system as a unifying research vector. In connection with this trend, the need for a scientific and methodical justification for correcting the student destructive behavior in the innovative space of the university pedagogical system is still topical.

Results

Modern discourse of the concept "pedagogical system of the university"

It was established that one of the first in the scientific community in 1967 who substantiated the systematic approach in pedagogy was the Russian scientist F. F. Korolyov (1967), who proved pedagogical reality structure’s and functions’ systemic nature:

- the personality is pedagogically systemic, since its properties and qualities are interrelated, and actions are an integral manifestation of its characteristics, the interaction of properties and qualities;
- the training team is not just a group of trainees, not every group is an authentic collective;
- the transformation of a trainees group into a training team, achieved by certain efforts of the instructors and the trainees themselves, raises the level of the pedagogical results of the upbringing, education, training and development of each one and the success of the collective as a whole.

In the course of the research, the pedagogical system as a notion and as a definition is regarded as an ordered set of interrelated elements of the pedagogical process (goal, subject, object, content, modes of activity, pedagogical means, organizational forms, results), united by a common goal of functioning and management unity, interrelated with educational environment as a holistic phenomenon.

As a concept - description the pedagogical system is presented as a key category of didactics. It is proved that this tendency is confirmed by the system approach significance in the pedagogical problems successful solution, among which the interaction of the teacher and student determines the course of the educational process oriented to the strategic goal - the formation of the personality of the future specialist with the specified qualities. According to leading experts, this component has a set of elements of the system: goals, the content of education, methods, and means, organizational forms of teaching and educating, instructors (teachers, curators, and tutors), trainees (students). At the same time, the main system-forming element of this pedagogical system is goals (Novikov, 2006). The identified goals have a flexible hierarchy:

- the first level - the social order of society and its various social groups to all educational subsystems for a certain social ideal of the person being formed as a personality, citizen, professional;
- the second level is an educational goal for each type of educational institutions individually, for each curriculum, in which the social order is transformed in terms and categories of pedagogy;
- the third level - pedagogical goals, which are implemented on a daily basis, at each training session.

Realization of the pedagogical system goals is carried out in the course of the pedagogical process, which in turn is conditioned by the education goals and its main elements interaction: the instruction content; teaching, that is, the teacher activity; learning, that is, the student activity; education means. In this sequence, the pedagogical process realizes its system functions as a dynamic interaction of its subjects, aimed at solving educational and upbringing problems (Khutorskoy, 2001).

In the course of the study, the sensitivity of the university pedagogical system to the specific features of the socio-cultural environment structural and functional states was established; it’s socially and personally - significant spiritual needs, social and cultural norms and values; conditions for self-realization of intellectual student potential and its reproduction. These trends are reflected in the content of education.
It is proved that thanks to external influences of the socio-cultural environment, the university modern pedagogical system qualitatively changes its internal structure, giving preference to innovative elements:

1) openness - the ability of the system to interact with a large number of subsystems in the form of a joint result: the integration of all ways in mastering information about the openness of the world, the integrity, the interconnectedness of man, nature, society; the appeal to the world outlook meanings of the information received; independent use of various information sources; personality orientation of the learning process; development of a communication culture; the psychological orientation of students to the super-task, which determines the formation of new benchmarks and goals of the pedagogical process; changing the role of the teacher in the learning process - moving to joint, partner, collegial actions with students in new situations;

2) nonlinearity - multivariate nature and unpredictability of the system transition from one state to another. The result of the educational process is always different from the intent of its participants, because ever-increasing information flows deprive the pedagogical system of stable equilibrium. In the theoretical sense, this idea is expressed in the multivariate or alternative choice by the trainers and the trainee of education strategies.

In the practical plane of the pedagogical process, nonlinearity means:
- creation conditions in the educational environment for choosing and providing each individual with the opportunities for an individual movement towards success;
- stimulating the independence of choice and making a responsible decision;
- providing alternative and independent choice: individual trajectory of education, the pace of learning, the achievement of educative different levels, the type of educational institution, educational disciplines, teachers, forms and methods of teaching, individual means and techniques, creative assignments, etc.;

3) self-organization presupposes the existence of a non-standard interaction of the trainer with the trainee in the pedagogical system. On the one hand, this interaction is subordinated to the student goals, motives and acting ways on pedagogical requirements. On the other hand, they go beyond these requirements - subjecting of basic relations system to contacts and interaction of the individual with the external environment (peers, parents, the educational process, the labor market, the global space, the Internet space). It has been established that self-organization in such a situation is manifested in the student self-consistent functioning as an entity of learning due to his or her direct and inverse relations with the external environment. It is proved that the external environment is in a state of constant development, possessing such characteristics as dynamism, interdisciplinary nature, informational nature (Vyugina, 2015; Novikov, 2006). The revealed characteristics dominate in the pedagogical system focused on solving the tasks of training a specialist who is professionally mobile, possesses the competencies of self-organization, is capable of adapting to changes in the external environment, and which is endowed with the abilities and knowledge for destructive processes overcoming.

**Socio-pedagogical factors of student destructive behavior manifestation**

In the course of the study, a set of socio-pedagogical factors was established, which determines the university students’ destructive behavior.

**Factor 1. The situation of virtual conflict**

It is established that the basic nucleus of a student's personality is determined by consciousness open to new meanings of life. At the same time, the orientation of the pedagogical system is alienated from the student essential characteristics (corporeality, consciousness, personality, will) that allow him or her to exist in aggregated realities simultaneously (Asadullina, 2009). In the university pedagogical process to date, two kinds of realities are transposed: corporeality and consciousness, and the student personality realities are not involved and are also replaced by the will of the teacher. These unrealized realities create...
a student constant virtual (internal) conflict with the student himself, with the teacher, with the future profession, with the society, with the production, etc. It is established that the consequence of the conflict are learning problems: a decrease in motivation and interest in learning, a drop in activity, responsibility, initiative and independence. Further, the conflict conditioned by the will reality manifests itself at the level of the personality reality and consciousness (unwillingness to learn, problems with attendance and academic achievement, dependence on "bad companies", illegal actions, "dropouts"). The source of a virtual conflict emergence is, first of all, the contradiction between the totality of the student realities already formed (taking into account age norms) and the level of requirements by the side of university teachers, the pedagogical process. In the course of the study, the alienation of the pedagogical system from students has been proved: in reality, students have no idea about their curriculum, do not participate in the discussion of curricula, elective courses, practices, and do not participate in the selection of individual trajectories of instruction. The duty of the students is to orient to the schedule, have plans for seminars, carry them out, prepare for and pass tests and exams. All this already from the first course puts the students in a situation of virtual conflict with the standards of the pedagogical system requirements and their own personality realities and will.

Factor 2. Contradictions of the individual's self-assertion process in the profession.
It is established that personally significant professional relations with the labor collective and the society, especially the coincidence of the professional roles and duties performed by the individual with his or her own goals, backed by the social need in them, constitute the fundamental values of the personality. In addition, they form the basis of the subject’s self-affirmation (Parsons, 1998). During the research it was revealed that the interaction of professional interests of the individual and society under modern conditions is undergoing serious changes. First of all, these are the processes of the discrepancy between the strategies for students training in the university pedagogical system and the labor market needs in specialists of a new generation that adapt to the performing functions in complex technological processes. The existing stereotype of institutions and enterprises attitude to specialists with traditional values of professional training and deep fundamental knowledge mirrored the student destructive manifestations: 50% of students participating in monitoring only occasionally attend classes; about 15% steadily ignore them. Their behavior is explained by these groups of students as follows: "Nobody needs competent specialists. Therefore, there is no sense in "straining" in study". In such a situation, the fact that 64% of students are oriented to the attainability of personal plans in designing career growth seems to be unrealistic. Only 10% express concerns about the possibility of their implementation.

Factor 3. Personality of the specialist is hired goods
It is proved that in the real life activity of labor organizations the personality of a specialist is used as one of the resources providing the production process. "A person subject to his alienated needs is no longer a person in the spiritual or in the physical sense. It's just amateur and self-conscious goods" (Fromm, 2009). In the new conditions of the economy postindustrial development, the main role is played not by materialized labor, but by the quantity of intellect embedded in it. The peculiarity of this universal approach is that the intellectual capacity of the produced product is determined by the number of patents, know-how, research, developments, innovations, knowledge of the specialist and the specialist himself as a resource used in this production. All this in students’ representations is not reducible to the notion specialist and alienates them from the future profession.

Factor 4. Mass media
They are turned into a powerful and dominant means of destroying the university student value orientations. Today they have transformed not only into a factory of stars and dream, but also in the...
creators of new myths, carriers of not a social, but virtual reality in its illusory form. Through the media, it is possible to broadcast for personality not only the necessary knowledge of the environment, but also purposefully form emotional and behavioral stereotypes, orientations, templates. A modern student is formed and lives in the mega-information space, which creates a fertile ground for influencing his or her value system. Mass media, introducing opportunistic information into the minds of young people, distort the actual problems of concern for students. An example of this trend is the rating of answers to the question What are the most urgent problems for students today?: Drug addiction - 80%, alcoholism - about 70%, employment - about 47%, education - 43%. Significantly inferior to them are such problems as the inability to become well-off - about 31%, the lack of meaning of life - about 25%, the humiliation of citizens’ dignity from outside opponents - about 25%, legal insecurity - about 15%. One of the mechanisms of media impact are mythologization and stereotyping, which comprehensively influence all levels of mass consciousness - emotional, behavioral and value orientation, the sphere of the conscious and subconscious. An example is the myth of the great American dream, aggressively introduced into the consciousness of young people on the whole planet.

**Factor 5. Social networks**

They occur in 1999-2001 years in the US, as a new total instrument for constructing a world of reality. In the modern media stream, the textual basis actualizes various models of the world, the knowledge of the audience by the personality and accumulates their experience. It is proved by all the preceding and present experience of mankind that the dynamic life world is not only the surrounding subject world, but also the psychic and spiritual world of man (knowledge, values, orientations, norms, ideals), all that in aggregate forms the immediate reality of individual human life, which is created and recreated every day by every person. In digital media, there is a clear connection between their audiovisual text structures and the social activity of information consumers, which confirms the dynamics of expanding the boundaries of the living space at the expense of the media. Today, the hidden impact of digital media on the consciousness of the individual is the invisible technology of life management that allows integrating media into the structure of social interactions and communications. In fact, the real world of modern society person is formed and functions in the mega-information space, since the main function of media texts is to compile stories of everyday life, to make dialogues of heroes with real or hypothetical interlocutors. In this regard, a really difficult question arises: how free is the choice of a student personality who is under the constant influence of the media. It is proved that students, basing on their own unfulfilled experience, not a clear idea and understanding of life values, actively use their right to freedom of life priorities choice which aggressively introduced by social networks

**Factor 6. Clustering of labor**

The transformation of large corporations into creative post-industrial ones takes place through clustering, that is, the creation on their basis of creative centers and structures of transnational leaders among existing corporations, whose role will be strengthened by reducing the role of traditional structures. Clusters of creativity grow into structures of technological processes organization and management. As for the experts- the direct executors of the production process, they are used as a technological resource that serves certain conveyor lines and is responsible for its own part of the work. In these conditions it is difficult to imagine the reality of using skills to work in a team of leaders, declared as the core idea of a creative cluster. A trained, highly educated specialist, thus, is deprived of the opportunity to realize the integrity and creativity of activity process

**Mechanisms to overcome student destructive behavior in university pedagogical system**
In the course of the study, mechanisms of external and internal nature were established to overcome the student destructive behavior.

1. External mechanisms - the innovative elements of the pedagogical system.
   Openness. As a mechanism to overcome the student destructive behavior, the openness of the system is effectively used in the implementation of the poly-variativ approaches to updating the educational material, taking into account the logic and structure of the learning process; in correcting the motives for teaching students; in involving them in the design of curricula and programs; development of projects of independent and research work; in clarifying the knowledge criteria and assessing; in harmonization of the psychological climate in the training group.

   Nonlinearity - from the standpoint of overcoming the student destructive behavior is determined by multi-variativ, alternative and poly-functional nature. The result is a transition to a single content, selected from various options, cooperative interaction between subjects of the pedagogical system. Cooperative interaction, as a complex nonlinear system, is conditioned by subjective factors - peculiarities of sensory, emotional perception and behavior of teachers and students. Violation of this perception boundary modifies the behavior of the student. This method is vividly illustrated by the method of problem training: a new idea is born in the situation of a problem situation, when the learner finds himself in a situation of doubt, choosing under a high motivational background the resolution of the problem situation. It is proved that in this process, illumination, insight, new knowledge is generated (Novikov, 2006; Halpern, 2000; Khutorskoy, 2001).

   Self-organization. As a mechanism for overcoming destructive behavior occurs in the process of three processes interaction: spontaneous generation of new elements of the system; homeostasis, through which the system maintains a certain level of organization with changes in the external environment; perfection and self-development of a system capable of accumulating and using past experience. It is established that the student personality in the conditions of openness, nonlinearity and self-organization of the pedagogical system should be considered as a self-organizing, dynamically developing system capable of reflection and self-learning. Self-organization in this case is manifested in the self-consistent functioning of the student as a subject of training, through direct and inverse relations with the external environment. The external environment is the environment of learning, which is in constant self-development and self-organization.

2. Internal mechanisms - the pedagogical process aimed at optimal interaction of the pedagogical system basic elements in the innovative conditions of openness, nonlinearity and self-organization. Priority elements of the pedagogical process that are important for overcoming the student destructive behavior are grounded in the research: the level of knowledge, skills, competences of teachers and students, the development of intellectual potential, personality qualities, cognitive needs, internal motives of activity, activity content, flexibility in perception of information, natural preferences, propensities and abilities, etc.

   It is established that the use of innovative elements of openness, nonlinearity and self-organization in the university pedagogical process makes it possible to solve the task of training a specialist- who is professionally mobile, capable of adapting to the conditions of the external environment, endowed with the ability to purposefully search for decision-making and self-organization. It is determined that at the intersection points (the pedagogical process) of the tasks of training students with the declared qualities and the destructive behavior manifested by them, alternative conditions for correcting the contradictions of the system and student orientations arise, and for the teacher - the key element of the pedagogical process, favorable conditions for aligning with students the educational process paths development, the mechanisms implementation to overcome destructive behavior and to form students' readiness to overcome the set destructions (see. Table. 1).
Table 1. Dynamics of students’ readiness to overcome destructive behavior in the university pedagogical system (a five-point scale of assessments is used).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of students’ readiness to overcome destructive behavior</th>
<th>Criteria of student destructive behavior in the pedagogical system</th>
<th>Before the experiment</th>
<th>After the experiment</th>
<th>Before the experiment</th>
<th>After the experiment</th>
<th>Before the experiment</th>
<th>After the experiment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>A constant virtual (internal) conflict with oneself, with teachers, the future profession, the society, the production</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Decreased interest in learning, unwillingness to learn, problems with attendance, with academic achievement</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Negative motivation to communicate with teachers fellow students, representatives of work collectives</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The fall of activity, responsibility, initiative and independence, dependence on &quot;bad companies&quot;, illegal actions, &quot;drop-out&quot;</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

The experimental data presented in Table 1 confirm the effectiveness of using innovative elements of openness, nonlinearity and self-organization in the university pedagogical system. It is proved that these elements allow to reduce the level of destructive behavior, confirmed by the criteria of students readiness for their overcoming: 1) a permanent virtual conflict with oneself, with teachers, the future profession, the society, the production ("before" the experiment, students' scores range from 0.5 to 1.0 points, "after" the experiment from 2.5 to 4.5 points); 2) decreased interest in learning, reluctance to learn, problems with attendance and academic achievement ("before" the experiment the evaluation of students vary from 0.5 to 1.5 points, "after" the experiment from 1.5 to 4.0 points; 3) negative motivation to communicate with teachers, fellow students, representatives of work collectives ("before" the experiment the evaluation of students vary from 1.0 to 2.5 points, "after" the experiment from 2.5 to 4.8 points); 4) the decline in activity, responsibility, initiative and independence, dependence on "bad companies", illegal actions, "drop-out" ("before" the experiment the assessment of students vary from 1.0 to 2.0 points, "after" the experiment from 2.5 to 4.8 points).

Conclusion
The conducted research confirms the theoretical and practical significance of the research as an actual direction in the student training - future specialists, in demand by the mobile developing labor market. Based on the results of the research, in this paper, theoretical and methodical approaches to the development of mechanisms to overcome the student destructive behavior, determined by openness, nonlinearity, self-organization of the university pedagogical system are established. To substantiate the theoretical and methodical approach significance to the development of the pedagogical system innovative elements, the paper reveals the content of university pedagogical system concept, rethought...
taking into account the specifics of overcoming the student destructive behavior; the mechanisms for overcoming the student destructive behavior are defined. Based on the results of the study, the structure and content of the pedagogical system innovative elements (openness, nonlinearity, self-organization), which correct the process of overcoming the student destructive behavior are grounded. The effectiveness of innovative elements structure and content has been proved with the help of "high", "average" and "low" levels of students' readiness to overcome destructive behavior in the university pedagogical system: a constant virtual conflict with oneself, with teachers, the future profession, production; decreased interest in learning, unwillingness to learn, problems with attendance and academic achievement; negative motivation to communicate with teachers, fellow students, representatives of labor collectives; a decline in activity, responsibility, initiative and independence, dependence on "bad companies", illegal actions, "dropouts". This problem as a research direction does not exhaust itself with the solution of the studied aspects. The substantiation of the theoretical and methodical approach to the models projecting for digital technologies cooperation with the university educational process and the construction of interaction between these structures is of particular interest to future researchers dealing with the above considered problem.

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References


Methodological Grounds Of Network Interaction In Training Pedagogues And Managers For Application Of Ict In Professional Activities

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Abstract

The article presents methodological foundations of training pedagogues and managers for application information and communication technologies (ICT) in their professional activities. The aim of the study was the search for new methodological bases for forming a methodical training system. The research was conducted in a regional system of pedagogues’ advanced training. The methodology proposed is based on an interdisciplinary approach to teaching. The study has shown that implementation of the principles of diversification, reengineering (redesign of processes), and academic mobility allows the system to be flexible in responding to the changes caused by avalanching technology modernization, and creates conditions for personalization of education (individual educational routes designing). Creation of situation of success and overcoming of psychological barriers are facilitated by a space of dialogue — atmosphere of friendliness, mutual understanding, and psychological comfort. Such an environment can be created based on the idea of integration of formal, non-formal, and informal components of pedagogues training in the area of ICT application in their professional activities. The elaborated model of training pedagogues and managers for ICT application is being tested in the system of additional professional education in Vladimir Oblast, the Russian Federation.

Keywords: pedagogue training, information and communication technologies (ICT), diversification, reengineering, network interaction, dialogue

Introduction

Society of global network communication needs to search for new approaches in training pedagogues and managers to apply information and communication technologies (ICT) in their professional activities in order to adapt it to constantly changing conditions of information society and expectations of education services consumers. This problem is studied in the different works on andragogy and theory of adults education (Koroleva, 2013; Noskova, 2010; Shlova, 2013; etc.)

Method

Methodological foundations of training pedagogues and managers in the application of ICT in their professional activities were formulated on the basis of the examination of researches by modern Russian scholars and analysis of the interim results of the testing of the elaborated model in the system of additional vocational education in Vladimir Oblast, the Russian Federation (Polyakova & Kozlov, 2015). The model has been tested since 2013. Experimental work included two components, formal on the one side, and non-formal and informal, on the other side. The formal component of the program consists in organization of the course training. The non-formal and informal components imply network educational activities for teachers, creation of pedagogical communities on the educational websites WikiVladimir and Otkrytyy klass (“Open class”), as well as in social networks. There were 331 participants in the experiment, all of them were students in the courses of additional vocational education (“Informatization
of education” module) as a part of the formal component of the model. Of them, 103 pedagogues participated in educational activities of the non-formal component of the model. Comparative analysis of the pedagogues’ competence in the application of ICT in their professional activities at the beginning and at the end of the training showed that those pedagogues who took an active part in the network educational activities showed the better results of the formal education.

Results
The key results of the study conducted is the justification of the application of such cross-disciplinary notions as diversification, reengineering (redesign of processes), and network interaction in pedagogy and andragogy.

Diversification as a pedagogical category
Diversification in education is understood as a new pedagogical paradigm, which focuses on personal self-design and enhances flexibility of education system; a variative strategy, which ensures flexibility of education services, programs, types and kinds of education establishments, etc.; a general pedagogical principle, which creates conditions for variety of sociocultural technologies provided by unlimited variants of education programs; and a globalization process, which provides transition from unitary and unified education systems to innovative ones (Koroleva, 2013).

T. E. Manger and O. B. Murzina (2011) summarize studies in diversification of lifelong education and identify horizontal (extending the scope of activities at all the levels of education), concentric (variety of education services offered through implementation of innovative technologies) and multilevel (occurrence of fundamentally new class and level of services taking into account age-related peculiarities of an individual) diversification (Manger & Murzina, 2011: 267).

The system of pedagogues and managers training to apply ICT in professional activities can be first of all updated by means of concentric and multilevel diversification. In our opinion, it is possible if the process goes beyond formal (institutional) education and widely uses means of non-formal and informal education.

Reengineering in education
The ideas of reengineering — redesign of processes that implies application of information technologies to achieve completely new goals (for example, social networks or network services tools are used for educational purposes) — are becoming increasingly significant (Oykhman & Popov, 1997: 44–59). The development of reengineering (redesign) in education was caused by the emergence of mediawiki, a hypertext structure, which happened to be very convenient for the activities of network pedagogical communities and for organizing telecommunication activities (network projects, trainings, master-classes, open courses of distance and mobile education; webinars, Internet conferences, barcamps, etc.). Internet social services are increasingly being used for education purposes. They already have comfortable environment, with which users are familiar, possibility to arrange joint activities, lifelong education in convenient time and in individual tempo (informal education). Informal education can be represented in various forms: unification of pedagogues and directors in hobby clubs, hobbies, creation of open groups in social networks; sharing knowledge and rating of professionally significant information
Obviously, this kind of education is quite difficult to affect for formal structures. It is professionalism, personal qualities, influence of specialists in career development system, who try to use the resources of informal education to develop positive attitude to applying ICT in education in teachers and directors and contribute to the development of ICT competence, that are very important here. Thus, the efficiency of the process of training in applying ICT is defined by multi-leveled and multiform character of information and education environment, and ability to integrate its components (substructures) in the following personally significant “nods” of education network: training pedagogues in career development courses and methodical support of professional development (formal education); development of network pedagogical communities on regional and federal websites (non-formal education); self-education activities and professionally important communication in social networks (informal education).

Dialogue-based network interaction

Network interaction established in the society of global network communication and spread in non-formal and informal education becomes an object to study for modern science. Multidimensional and non-linear character of network interaction is reflected by the group of specific principles formulated by O.N. Shilova (2013). These principles are dichotomous by their nature and are represented as pairs of antonyms: “linearity (consequence) — non-linearity; subjectivity — globality; order and chaos; controllability — self-arrangement; collectivity — individuality, rationality — irrationality” (Shilova, 2013: 7). This dichotomy is sequentially implemented in integration of formal and non-formal components of training in the area of ICT. It allows to successfully combine mostly collective character of education (cooperation) and individual educational needs, keeps up motivation for education and creates situation of success.

The efficiency of organizing and carrying out joint distributed network activities of education process participants in solving professional tasks are proved in the study of T. N. Noskova (2010). She considers network interactions as modern ways of individuals’ information behavior, which are based on the principles of integration and unity (for example, resources and structures), openness (possibility to join, include, and supervise the actions of other people), distribution in space and time of actions, subjects, resources, cooperation, etc. (Noskova, 2010: 28). This external impact on the system is supported by internal development of the system as well, which is mostly based on self-arrangement in non-formal and informal education.

Academic mobility (the increase of mobility among students of career development system, among other things, through the ability to use open education resources of partner regions and single education environment based on global telecommunications) gains much importance in the situation of uncertainty in education. The flexibility of the process is also ensured by personalization — design of individual educational routes, content, forms and technologies of adult professional education in modern society.

Organization of professionally significant communication in the Internet faces additional difficulties: apart from psychological barriers in direct communication, a pedagogue feels uncomfortable while using network communication tools. Therefore, it is necessary to purposefully create a space of dialogue (atmosphere of friendliness, mutual understanding, and psychological comfort) during education and network communication. This is one of the conditions for carrying out dialogue interaction between people (Polyakova, 2008).

Conclusions
Thus, changed social and cultural conditions define the emergence of new ideas and approaches in training pedagogues and managers to apply ICT in professional activities. In our opinion, the ideas of diversification, integration of formal, non-formal, and informal education, reengineering, network interaction, academic mobility of students and professors, and personalization of education based on dialogue interaction are essential. These ideas became methodological grounds for our model of training pedagogues and managers to use means of ICT.

References
The Image of a Russian Person in the Northern Worldview: Based on a Study of Russian Dialects Used by The Old Timers of Yakutia

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Abstract

The article considers representation of the image of a person in the Russian dialects of Siberia (Yakutia). Such dialects are called starozhil'cheskie [used by the old timers], and the history of their development is related to the exploration of the North-East, starting from the XVI century. The language used by the long-term residents of Yakutia is an artefact of not only a material but also spiritual life of Russian settlers, reflecting their history, culture, customs, worldview, beliefs, and relationships with indigenous peoples.

In the context of modern anthropological studies it is especially relevant to consider the image of an individual per se: appearance, character, attitude to work and native language, as well as relationships with representatives of other ethnic groups.

Some words of the local Russian dialects borrowed from the Yakut language are analysed in this article for the first time.

Keywords: dialects, Russian dialects used by the old timers, linguistic worldview fragment, national specifics, evaluative naming units, borrowed words, linguistic consciousness.

It goes without saying that linguistic studies are necessary for promoting mutual understanding among peoples and a dialogue of national cultures. The description of a fragment of the linguistic worldview among the Russian old timers (so-called 'starozhily') of the Arctic creates conditions for the national identification of the Russian population in the region as the exponents and guardians of the general and specific features of their cultural values.

The image of a person is a multifaceted structure, which we perceive as a set of human characteristics formed in the social consciousness and objectified through the language. According to N.D. Arutyunova, “to evaluate an object, you have to let it ‘pass’ through yourself: the nature of the evaluation corresponds to the human nature” (Arutyunova, 1998: 58). And the evaluation of a person is an important component of the linguistic worldview of the dialect speakers. S.S. Zaytseva states in her study that “the language, as a product of human thought and cognition, aims, in turn, to reflect the objective reality, and therefore it indirectly expresses the human knowledge about the world around us, and, in particular, the knowledge about the human being” (Zaitseva, 2014: 78).

The research considered the image of a person expressed with characteristics of the following lexico-semantic groups: “outer person” – evaluation of the person's appearance, primarily in folklore texts; “inner person” – attitude of dialect speakers to labour as the main parameter of their life; perception of the surrounding other people.

The Russian Arctic population in Yakutia lives compactly downstream the Indigirka and Kolyma rivers. In the “lower Indigirka” Russian dialects, the vocabulary used to describe the human appearance falls into groups depending upon several parameters. The local population valued health above all other qualities: the northerners' life required great physical strength, agility and many special skills, so the following adjectives were used to describe a strong beautiful person: zdorovyj - bul'onistoj - bravoj -
dobroj - korpusnoj - mogutnoj - korenastoj - krugloj - dobroj, bogatoj, as in Takoj bul'onistyj, a nichyo rabotaet [He is a portly fellow, but a works fine]; Rodilas', kogda ona dobraya byla, horosha, krupna [When just born, she was good, fine, so chubby!]; Oj, tutushhij on takoj! Krupnoj da krugloj [Oh, he's well-knit - hefty and round!]; Takoj on korpusnoj paren' byl, krasivij, pijatlivij [He was a corpulent fellow, handsome and pleasant]; krasivij - bravoj - braven'koj - strogannoj - priyatlivij - smazlivij - smazlivyj po brovi, as in Ish', kakoj on bravyy, krasiven'kij da smazlivyj [What a stout fellow - he is so comely, so handsome!]; A moloduha-to iha horosha, korpusna [Their daughter-in-law is so pretty and plump].

It is very important that the main occupation of the Russians in the Arctic was commercial maritime navigation, hunting and fishing, egg-collecting, gathering of berries and wild plants roots: Nevesta horosha, pryamo zoru posmotret', kostka bravaya [The bride is good, pleasant to look at, with the sturdy bone].

Designating a vital part of the body, the word golova [head, brains] is used to describe a person from quite different angles, mostly positively, indicating the person's intellectual abilities: Na Severe trudno zhit', klimat surovoj, mestnost' shibko bol'shaya. Tut cheloveku nado byt' s golovoj, mestnost' horosho znat', v tyomnuyu pogodu, kogdy purga orientir nado znat'. Tak chto horoshaya golova nuzhna [It is difficult to live in the North - the climate is harsh, the territory is too big. Here a man must have a good head on his shoulders, he must know the area well, and in the dark and blizzard he should know his landmarks. So, a good head is a must here.]

The specific natural conditions and the economy based on fishing and hunting have left their mark on the perception of person's appearance, defining the list of personal features disapproved by the Indigirka area residents: Nekrasivyj - stydkoj - stydnoj - interesnoj - rylastoj - hmulaostoj; Schegolevatyj - hvorchistoj - raskudystoj, as in Interesnoj on chelovek, nekrasivyj, ryaustoj paren', strashnoj, stydnoj on [He is a strange person - unsightly and muzzle-faced, so ugly, shameful]; Vidon korol' stydkoj, da es' krov v nem pravoslavnaya [Though King Vidon is ugly, he still has some righteous Orthodox blood in his veins] – from the Tale of Bova, the King's Son (Bova Korolevich).

The lexico-semantic group (LSG) of nouns with the meaning 'a lazy person' is a part of the category of emotional and evaluative characteristics of a person. It is one of the central groups of nouns denoting persons due to the high relevance of the semantic attribute of the “human attitude to work” in the language system, which is, in turn, related to its social significance: Industriousness is one of the essential human virtues and a criterion used in moral evaluation of a person. Such sayings are widely used: Lentyaya vse skoz' pal'cy motrjat [Everyone looks past an idler]; Darom i stopku ne podadut [They won't give you even a shot [of vodka] for free]. They communicate the idea that only hard work can help you accomplish anything, and the following proposition is actualised: hard work is both a necessity and a need for every person; you can't survive without effort in the North.

The LSG “a lazy person” contains expressive lexical units denoting negative assessments characterizing a person. In the dialect vocabulary it is opposed to the LSG “a hard-working person”, including words denoting positive assessments: trudyaga [doer], muravej (“ant” in the meaning “eager beaver”), pchela [busy bee]; dial. bojkoj, bojkusha [brisk], but this group is comparatively small as compared with the LSG ‘a lazy person’. This is not a mere coincidence. Among the speakers of the local Russian dialects, the social ethical and moral standard is a positive, conscientious attitude to work, as opposed to an...
indifferent, neutral attitude. Any deviation from this standard is evaluated negatively and condemned by
the society, which is reflected in the language.

Based on the contextual analysis, we have identified some semes that are present in various combinations
in the meaning of each word. The typical combinations of semes are the following:

- a person is lazy/does not like to work, study or be otherwise socially useful/is light-
minded/screws around, wastes time/pejorative evaluation: balban, balabolka, balabosh,
verteshka, bultun, bydlo, bugat;
- a person is lazy/cannot or does not want to work, study/is ignorant, narrow-
minded/negative evaluation/(figurativeness) peripheral semes: balban, balabosh, bydlo,
besput, bezuemnik, besponjatnoj;
- a person is lazy/does not like and does not want to work/rude, defiant/deceitful/blabber/talks a lot/twaddler/negative evaluation/(figurativeness)
peripheral semes: alyra, alyrnik, alyrshitsa, alyr', aljas, aljasnik, balabolka, balabosh,
bachaboshka, basnevitoj, basnik, bajun, bezdel'nik, besponjatnoj, besput, brehun, bultun,
varnak, vrakun, bultush, zadornoj, etc.;

In the Russian linguistic worldview the easy work is associated with idleness. Such attitude is re-affirmed
with the nominations alyra, alyrshhik. Cf. alyra-alyrshhik [Archaic. Idler, crook]: On vot takoj chelovek,
ne mogot postojanno zhit' u kogo-minet'. Segodnja on zdes', a zavtra ischi ego, idi. Alyra-alyrshhik da i
est', rabota' ne hochet, a isti nado. Plut on, plutovatoj, alyra da est'. Plutovat'-to on mogot, u ego eto
poluchaetsya [He's the kind of person who cannot live permanently with anybody. Today he is here, and
tomorrow he is gone with the wind. He is an idle crook – he does not want to work but wants to eat. He is
a roguish fellow, a real crook. He can only cheat, he is good at it]. The obsolete Russian words alyra, alyr'
alyrnik, alyrshhik, alyrnska meant "buffoon, trickster, liar", later transformed into 'liar, crook, swindler,
card-sharper, loafer, idler, lazybones, freeloader, gadder'. The verb alyrit'sya is used in the meaning
'mock, sneer' (Dal', 1880: 13). The denotative meaning of ‘trickster’ highlighted the seme of ‘cheating’,
developing the meanings of ‘crook, swindler’, and further the meaning of majdanshhik [card-sharper – a
person that trades dice or cards on a majdan market square], actualizing the semes of ‘deception’ and
‘idleness’. In the linguistic consciousness of the Russian old-timers the meaning of the word is narrowed,
and idleness is identified with rogery.

- a person is lazy/does not work/is a scum, drunkard/highly negative
evaluation/figurativeness/bakalda, bahalda, varnak;
- a person is lazy/is sluggish, inactive, clumsy, awkward/negative evaluation/figurativeness:
bugat, bydlo;
- a person is lazy/likes easy work/ingratiate him with his superiors, flatters,
fawns/negative evaluation/figurativeness: bljudoliz, bljudolizinik;
- a person is lazy/looks slovenly and unkempt/cannot do anything useful or needed/highly
negative evaluation/figurativeness: arahlej, arahlejka, arahlevatoj, rohlej, rahlejka.

Among other idioms, the following idiomatic expression was recorded: ruchki sklast’ [throw up hand]: A
on davno ruchki skal, otkazalsya ot dogovoru s nam [He threw up his hands long ago, abandoned our
agreement]. The verb sklast' used in the idiom is a vernacular word (cf. ne pokladaya ruk – ‘working
diligently’).

The words and idioms containing an emotional and expressive assessment of a person and the individual
traits of character can be classified according to moral attributes. It has been found that the most common
is the assessment of a person in relation to others. In this group the nominations with personal
assessments containing modes of disapproval are the most frequently used. For example, rugatel'nik –
‘foul-mouth, ribald, rude fellow’: Ohto chasto rugaetsya, plohie slova govorit, pakostit yazykom, my nazyvaem rugatel’nik [We call someone rugatel’nik if he often swears, speaks bad words, uses nasty language]; Rugatel’nikov u nas zdes’ ne uvazhayut, vyprovodyat [Foul-mouthed people are not respected here, we get rid of them]. Rugach is a person who often swears, use foul language – same as rugatel’nik: Zhili one hudo, zhena rugachka byla, on tozhe rugach horoshij [They lived badly – his wife was foul-mouthed, he was also a pretty foul-mouthed]. The following component is identified in the rhetorical standard of the long-term Russian residents of Yakutia: they disapprove those who use invectives and foul language, i.e. it is prohibited to use such filthy words.

An important role in the conceptualization of evaluative nominations is played by the word’s inner form. For example, such nomination as zloimka has an inner form representing the following structure of knowledge: ‘having evil’, i.e. harbouiring ill will. For example, zloimka – ‘hater’: A babushka-to ih vokshu da ne zloimka [Their grandmother is not a hater]. Synonymous relationships occur between the word’s lexical meaning and its inner form – ‘harbouring ill will’ is identical to the feeling of hatred. An evidence of this is the word nenavistnik listed in the Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language by S.I. Ozhegov and N.Yu. Shvedova with the meaning of “a person who is constantly harbouring ill will towards others, full of hatred for somebody” (Ozhegov & Shvedova, 2008: 408). The inner form also contains an evaluative proposition – such behaviour is disapproved by others. In V.I. Dal's Dictionary there is a similar word zloimenityj (Dal’, 1881: 707) characterizing an infamous person. The lexical meanings are different, as the first word is derived from the verb imet' [to have], and the second – from the word combination byt' imenit' [to have], and the second – from the word combination byt' imenit' [to be famous]. In the Russian language there is an expression durnaya slava [bad reputation]. The expressions byt' zloimenitym [to be infamous] and imet' durnuyu slavu [have bad reputation] have identical meanings. The word zloimka has a different inner form; therefore it has another lexical meaning. It should be mentioned that the nomination has a gender orientation: it is used to characterize women.

Evaluative nominations contain different human characteristics, forming a person's image in the minds of native speakers. The evaluation is manifested both in the lexical meaning and in the inner form. The Lower Indigirka residents – descendants of the first explorers who came to Yakutia of their own accord in search of better lands in the second half of the XVII century – were never numerous, and they had been long integrated into the household and economic life of the Indigirka delta indigenous population. The unfamiliar living conditions and hostile elements gave rise to many legends about mythical creatures that live in the neighbourhood. The existing tales, legends and songs allow us to determine, at least in general terms, the features of their neighbours. The residents of the Indigirka area, as well as some other Russians, had legends about the natives who had lived there before the arrival of Russians and later disappeared. In Russkoye Ustye they were called chandaly (“Chandals”). One of the tales about the “Chandals” recorded in 1928 explained why they had disappeared: Oni ochen’ legkie_na nogah, u nih bylo ochen’ mnogo oleni. Oni stali uzh nad nimi izdeva’sya: sdirali shkuru i otpuskali zhivymi. Eti oleni stali mstit’ im: soshlis’ v tabuny i ubezhali. Chandaly, ne imeja vozmozhnosti pojmato ih, vymerli. Postrojki ostavshiesya nazyvajutsya “chandaly”. Postrojki est’ i teper’ (odna okolo letnika, Schelkanova — mestnost’ Tolsta) [They were notably fleet of foot, and they had a lot of deer. They started torturing them: they skinned the deer and released them alive. Those deer began avenging them: they came together in herds and fled. The Chandals could not catch them and became extinct. The buildings that remained after them are named “chandaly”. You still can find such buildings now – one of them is near the Schelkanov’s summer house, in the vicinity of Tolsta] (Fol’klor Russkogo Ustya, 1986).

The tales about so-called hudye chukchi [bad Chukchi] or chuchany [Chuchans], frequently mentioned by the recorders of the Indigirka folklore, are also very interesting; <…> Davno, davno na dvoish tovarishhj odin chukcha natolknulsya. Strelii streloj — odin tovarishh zarevel i smahu upal. Chukchi
stali prygat’ i smeyat’sya. Drugoj tovarishh v nego strelil, mezhe krylec (lopatok) popal, i chukcha upal. Lico u chukchi chelovech’e. Zavivaetsya v rovdugu i v remnyah krugom. Begaet bystro. Krichit razno: na pestsovyj laj i na chelovecheskij krik nahodit (pohodit). Tol’ko zakrichit — srazu drozh’ beret. Hodyat “oni” s kop’yami i lukami... [Long time ago a Chukchi came across two friends. He shot an arrow - one of the friends howled and instantly fell down. Two Chukchi began jumping and laughing. The second friend shot at him and hit him between the shoulder blades, and the Chukchi fell down. The Chukchi’s face is human. He is wrapped in buckskin and bound with belts. He runs quickly. He cries in different voices: it sounds like an arctic fox barking and a human cry. When he cries, it gives you the creeps. “They” are walking with spears and bows...] (Fol’klor Russkogo Ust’ja, 1986: 217).

In the folklore of Russkoye Ustye you can also find more realistic images of neighbours – representatives of the local population surrounding the Russians: Ehal da yahal, vidit: yurta stoit yukagirskaja. Etoj yurte priehal, dirku i smotrit: tut ego baba sidit s etima lyud’mi [After he was going so long, he saw a Yukagir yurt. He came to the yurt and looked into the hole: his wife was sitting there with those people]; Nu, — govorit, — poyazhajte drugoj raz. Hot’, — govorit, — yakutka, bud’, hot’ yukagirka, hot’ i, — govorit, chukchanka bud’ — de-nibud’ by tol’ko, — govorit, — podstal [‘Well,’ he says, ‘go again.’ ‘Let her be,’ he says, ‘a Yakut girl, or a Yukagir, or,’ he says, ‘a Chukchi, just find her somewhere,’ he says] (Fol’klor Russkogo Ust’ja, 1986: 96).

As a result of the territorial proximity, as well as stable cultural and economic ties between the Russian and indigenous peoples, the languages of Yakutia have been undergoing active interaction. The amount of borrowed words indicates the close and strong ties of the Russian old-timers with the Yakut people first of all. It is even possible to speak of close interaction of languages, cultures and economic activities of the local Russian and Yakut population, which is primarily reflected in the vocabulary of the Russian dialects.

The inclusion of Yakut lexical units more or less accurately reflects the actual bilingual situations of daily life in the process of communication between the Russians and Yakuts. For example, the nomination ajdan with the meaning ‘disorder, confusion, noise’: Nemnogo proshlo vremeni, poshel krik, ajdan. Chjo takoe? Ajdan - eto besporyadok, tam sumyatit’sya mogut [After some time there was noise, ajdan. What is ajdan? It means disorder - people are confused]. The Yakut word ajdaan has similar meanings: “noise, uproar, hubbub, tumult; scandal; confusion, bustle” (Yakutsko-russkiy slovar’, 1972: 34); in E.K. Pekarsky’s dictionary: “noise, uproar, babel; scandal, unrest; bustle” (Pekarskiy, 1958). In the process of phonetic development a long vowel sound transfers into a short stressed vowel. In the Yakut language there is a verb derived from the same root - ajdaar, which has the meaning ‘to make noise, to shout, to rattle, to roar’ (Pekarskiy, 1958), as well as some derivatives of the verb. What is especially interesting about the word is that it is further developed in the Russian dialects of the Indigirka and Kolyma residents both in terms of semantics (a new meaning denoting a trait of a human character) and in terms of the formal grammar (the verb gets a Russian affix). New verbs of the Russian dialect of the local old timers were derived from the lexical unit ajdan: ajdanit’ [to squabble, to quarrel; create turmoil], ajdanit’sja [the same meaning as that of ajdanit’]. The borrowed words are morphologically assimilated: the verb endings are typical for the Russian language, and the denoted action characterizes a person by defining a trait of his/her character.

Among the borrowed words there are different parts of speech. Interjections, expressing “feelings, sensations, mental states”, are “characteristic part of the emotional sphere of the language” (Vinogradov, 1947: 732). Among the interjections used by the local Russian old-timers, those borrowed from the Yakut language are of special interest. In the Yakut language sanga allajyy [interjections] are unchangeable verb endings are typical for the Russian language, and the denoted action characterizes a person by defining a trait of his/her character.

According to V.V. Vinogradov, interjections in general are active and
indispensable means of communication as “collective signs of emotional expression of the state of mind” (Dialektologicheskij slovar’, 1976: 745). Interjections have actual semantic content and are intentionally used in communities (Dmitrieva, 2000: 385), serve as means of communication between people, including speakers of different languages from different cultural environments.

An interjection is reproducible, as any other word, but has an unstable phonetic structure. The borrowed interjections found in the local Russian dialects also demonstrate these properties. Here are examples of similar interjections: Aja is used to express surprise, exclamation and physical pain; aja-ka is the same as aja; ajo expresses fear or physical pain; ajka is used to express physical pain; ajku is an exclamation expressing physical pain; ajyka is the same as ajku; ajykkabyn is the same as ajyka; aja is the same as aja, ajaka; aja-ka is a friendly greeting when dealing with a child. As stated in The Grammar of the Modern Literary Yakut Language, a strong expressive and emotional nature of interjections is reflected in speech with a particular intonation that can vary depending on a speech situation, the nature of an experienced mental or physical state or personal characteristics (Dmitrieva, 2000: 386). The interjection aja, expressing physical pain, can be used in different variants:

- “Aja, grud’ bolit, koski lomit! [Ughh, I have pains in my chest, my bones are aching!]” – expression of a dull, nagging pain;
- “Ajk! Ne trozh’, bolit pale-o moj, porezel, odnako, gluboko nozhichkom-to [Ow! Do not touch – my finger hurts, you see; I had a deep cut with a knife]” – expression of an acute pain;
- “Aijo, goryachyol! [Ouch! It’s hot.]” – a sudden pain;
- “Ajk, slomaesh’ da, bol’no delaesh’ da! [Yeow! You’ll break it, you hurt me!]” – a growing pain;
- “Ajykk, shibko bol’no da! [Oww that hurts!]” – a strong pain.

All dialects have a lot of similar examples. In each particular case, depending on the degree of pain, attendant circumstances and the speaker’s individuality, an interjection can have various intonations and semantic patterns, resulting in the unique emotional and expressive colouring of the entire phrase. This interjection can express other emotions as well (not only pain) - for example, irony or sneering: “Ajykkabyn, ty uzh shibko serditoj da? [My gosh, you’re helluva angry, aren’t you?]” It can also express a pleasant surprise at the sight of a child: “Kak da ona horosho est’, aja-ka [Aww, look how well she eats!]” The interjection ychcha “expressing a feeling of cold, hard frost” can be considered a verbal expression of a regional natural factor affecting all people who live in the cold expanses of the Arctic. It is a quite common emotional exclamation that is often used in the speech of the contemporary Far North inhabitants in Yakutia. And during severe frosts of the past centuries the local Russian people also often expressed their feelings with this interjection: Holodno u ih tam, shibko holodno. Ychcha, ruki da okocheneli [It is cold over there, helluva cold. Brrr! My hands were numb].

The Yakut word barahsan [a modal particle expressing love, affection and respect] is borrowed and used in the Russian dialects as an interjection conveying affectionate, sincere attitude to a person: Vot ty, barahsan, govorish’, kak byt’ dal’she [Oh dear, you now wonder what to do next]. When speaking about a child, a whole phrase is borrowed: Ej, troe u ih detej-to! Shura vot malen’kaya, agom barahsan! [Hey, they have three children indeed! Here is Shura, the smallest, cutie pie!]. Agom barahsan – an exclamation used by the local Russian old-timers – is a Yakut phrase meaning ‘my dear child’ (Yakutsko-russkiy slovar’, 1972: 63). It should be mentioned that in E.K. Pekarsky’s dictionary, reflecting the specific features of the Yakut language in the end of the XIX century, this word had a prevailing sense of pity, sympathy and compassion: “poor, miserable, pathetic; cute” (Pekarsky, 1958).

In general, interjections are expressions conveying emotions, feelings and experiences of a person living in a certain society with a definite idea of the surrounding world. Borrowing of interjections is an evidence of a worldview similarity among the Russian old-timers of Siberia and the native Yakut language speakers.
There are only a few personal nominations borrowed from the Yakut language in the Russian dialects used by the local old timers. The lexical unit omuk has a meaning of ‘a local name for a Yukagir person’ in the local Russian dialects. The Russians living on the banks of the Indigirka River used this word referring to the Yukagirs. In Russkoye Ustye the Yukagirs were the first (and quite numerous at that time) neighbours of the first Russian settlers. The Yakut word omuk has the following meanings: “1. belonging to a nation or tribe; 2. belonging to another tribe, stranger, outsider, outlander, foreigner, ...; 3. Tungus; 4. Lamut; 5. the Yukagir – nomadic hunting tribes related to the Tungus; 6. the Chukchi” (Pekarsky, 1959).

In general, the Yakuts called so many other peoples who populated the vast area. Today the Yakut word omuk has 2 main meanings: 1. the people; 2. foreign (Yakutsko-russkiy slovar’, 1972: 272). Semantics of the word was narrowed in the local Russian dialects, but it still reflects the specific linguistic situation of the XVI century in the north-east of Russia.

Tarahaj – a bald person. The Yakut word tarag'aj also denotes “bald, baldheaded, hairless; a bold spot, hairless patch, baldness” (Pekarsky, 1959). The degree of differentiation between nouns and adjectives may vary in different languages. “In the Russian language, the formal morphological distinction between nouns and adjectives is especially strong.” (Dmitrieva, 2000: 34). L.N. Khartinov mentions that in the Yakut language there is no definite distinction between nouns and adjectives (Dmitrieva, 2000: 35). The Russian dialect speakers borrowed this word as a masculine noun. The adjective from the word combination tarag'aj kihi [bald person] was substantivized without any formal changes and was used as a noun. Tarahaj – eto lysyj chelovek govoryat v Russkom Ust'e [Tarahaj is a bald person, as they say in Russkoye Ustye].

The nomination chuchenka in the meaning ‘domovoy, ghost’ is listed with a note “superstition” in the dictionaries of Russian dialects. In Russkoye Ustye they used to say, “Kogdy hudoba komu zholzno byt’, to sluchaetsya, shto chuchenka pojavitsya [If something bad is going to happen, sometimes a ghost appears].” The Yakut words cho’suo’tke, cho’chuo’kke denote “domovoy – a minor spirit that resides in every house” (Pekarsky, 1959). According to E.K. Pekarsky, “the spirit, adopted from the Russians, is represented as a red-haired girl with unequal buttocks” (Pekarsky, 1959). In our opinion, this is a case of a double borrowing: a word was borrowed from the Russian to the Yakut language and then got into the Russian dialects of old-timers of the North. The Yakut pronunciation of the word is a distorted version of the Russian word susedko [neighbour]. The Russian dialects of the north-east of Russia still keep the Yakut version of pronunciation.

Chuchustur [bogeyman] comes from the Yakut language: Chuchustur puzhaet lyudey. Po-yakutski chuchustur, govorjat, a ne puzhenka. My da chuchustur tozhe guvrim [The chuchustur frightens people. The Yakut say chuchustur, not a bogeyman. We also say chuchustur]. In the Yakut language there is a nomination chychyj meaning “dangerous, frightful” (Yakutsko-russkiy slovar’, 1972: 516). In the old days they usually frightened children with this word. However, in this case it can be close to the Yakut chuchugur – “several identical sounds separated by very short intervals” (Pekarsky, 1959) and chus – “a short sound” (Pekarsky, 1959). In E.K. Pekarsky’s dictionary it is also stated that Chuuchugus was “the name of the shaman who lived in ancient times in the Vilyuysky Kray” (Pekarsky, 1959).

The speakers of the local Russian dialects use the nomination sata – a stone, a fragment of a meteorite allegedly possessing magical properties (the residents of Russkoye Ustye believe that such stone has healing properties). In the Yakut language sata is “a stone from the stomach/liver (of some animals and birds), allegedly having the magical power to cause changes in the weather” (Yakutsko-russkiy slovar’, 1972: 318). According to Yakut legends, “the stone is endowed with magical powers and, if you put it out on a summer hot day, it brings a strong cold wind, storm, rain and snow – bad weather, rough weather in general, and in winter it brings warm weather” (Pekarsky, 1959). The Yakuts find such stones in stomachs of animals or birds, and sata “can look like a human figure: you can see eyes, a nose and a mouth”
(Pekarsky, 1959). Stones can be of different sizes, shapes and colours – what is really important is their purpose and magical powers. They are usually stored wrapped in a cloth or fox or squirrel pelts. A sata can cause drought and strong winds; one of the meanings of the word in the Yakut language is “causing wind and cold, changing the weather through sorcery” (Pekarsky, 1959). The Yakuts and the speakers of the local Russian dialects have different ideas about the origin of the stone sata. The northern old timers consider that the stone is of extra-terrestrial meteoritic origin – presumably this is a rather recent interpretation. Nevertheless, they share the same belief in its magical power.

The anthropocentric paradigm of linguistics presupposes a holistic approach to understanding of a human being, in which the human being is an active participant in all cognitive processes, including verbal thinking activities. Issues of language and speech are crucial here, because the loss of the native language leads to disappearance of the entire ethnos. The Russian Arctic settlers not only preserved their native language but also spread the Russian language to the extent possible among the indigenous peoples of the North: “…many travellers have long been surprised at a trend that could look very peculiar at first sight: the further north you go in Yakutia, the more common the Russian language is among the indigenous population” (Chikachev, 2007: 28).

We find it interesting to study the popular, non-scientific attitude to the native language among the descendants of the first Russian settlers.

The dialect speakers usually do not oppose the native dialect to the literary language. A dialect is often understood as a “debased”, simple version of the language used by semi-illiterate people, i.e. there is a hierarchy of the high (literary) language and low (popular) dialects. However, the findings of the linguistic and cultural expedition (2014) and our communication with the Russian old timers of the Arctic in places of their compact residence have led us to the conclusion that the level of the linguistic consciousness among dialect speakers may vary.

Analysis of the levels of language, especially semantics, suggests that the long-time Russian residents of the Indigirka area speak one of the dialects of the Russian language, a local variety of the Russian language rather than a separate language. We would like to pay special attention to this fact because the dialect speakers themselves often say that the Indigirka residents speak “local Russian” preserving characteristics of the language of settlers from Novgorod who came here in the XVI century. We should say that the Indigirka residents and descendant of people who lived in this area have high level of linguistic consciousness, including perception of the speech and language environment, which is part of the dialect speakers’ naive linguistic worldview and the world outlook in general. Let us list the characteristics that allow us to make a conclusion about the high level of linguistic consciousness among the speakers of the Lower Indigirka Russian dialect: 1) affiliation with the community, a feeling of belonging to the society (during the conversations with informants there was high frequency of using pronoun nashi [our], implying relatives, friends, classmates and neighbours; on closer examination they proved to be residents of the same village, community); 2) an extensive system of group and individual nicknames, including many pejorative, endearing forms: bukushki [a common name for Russkoye Ustye residents used by others], Djudjurashka, Matolja [a diminutive form of a name Matrjona], Kenyushka [a diminutive form of a name Innokenty]. In some cases, the nicknames are understandable only to members of a linguistic community, which once again confirms that they adhere to a communal form of life; 3) daily use of dialect words. Scholars have pointed out that the metalinguistic consciousness is characterized by an extensive use of small folklore genres (Ivantsova, 2002), where dialectal words “continue” their lives. It has been repeatedly observed that many Russkoye Ustye residents are excellent performers of chastushki (four-line humorous folk rhymes). Such popular songs are composed for any occasion, sometimes spontaneously, and their aim is not to ridicule anyone or anything - a chastushka is composed for an event, sometimes quite insignificant. The verbal creativity is generally characteristic of...
Russkoye Ustye residents. There are local poets and storytellers among them. The dialect words and expressions are essential part of their literary works. The dialect speakers themselves greatly contribute to the dialect preservation with their efforts of linguistic reconstruction (lessons of local culture, interest groups, communal activities, study of literature on local history, use of the “Russkoye Ustye Dialect Dictionary” by A.G. Chikachev (2005), intentional contacts with the oldest residents of Russkoye Ustye, etc.); 4) attitude of speakers to their language. Unlike speakers of other dialects, the Russkoye Ustye residents do not consider that their dialect is a “low” language - they love it, see its real value and are doing their best to preserve it. They understand that scholars are interested not only in the dialect but in the phenomenon of Russkoye Ustye in general, and they carefully preserve their historical legacy: the articles, essays and books about Russkoye Ustye and its residents have become the public domain; many families own the “Russkoye Ustye Dialect Dictionary” by A.G. Chikachev, and they regularly turn to it in order to check some words, they also recommend it to their children, while older people argue about the accuracy of a particular interpretation; some dialect speakers compile their own vocabularies. 

We should mention that the high level of linguistic consciousness is demonstrated by representatives of different age groups.

There is a concept - first introduced by R.I. Avanesov, but still neglected by many linguists - that dialectal variants of the language are not only territorial but also temporal. R.I. Avanesov used the term “macrosystem” in reference to a contemporary dialectal language “with enabled space but disabled time”, i.e. “territorial macrosystem” or “topo-macro system”, as well as to a “macrosystem with disabled space (i.e. single-territory) but enabled time”, i.e. “chrono-macro system”, and to a “chrono-topo-macro system”, i.e. “a macrosystem in its different chronological sections and its territorial dynamics in time” (Avanesov, 1963: 311-313; Avanesov, 1958: 4-5). L.L. Kasatkin agrees with such treatment, stating that the contemporary language of the older generation is different from the language of the middle-age, younger and the youngest generations. In this case we can speak about different language systems. However, they function in the same linguistic environment, both temporal and territorial. Therefore, we can consider that in a dialect (as well as in a literary language) they form a complex system of interrelated and interdependent elements (Kasatkin, 2007). Speakers of any dialect could comment on this linguistic concept with a very simple statement, “Now we speak it less, but our grandmothers (grandfathers, older people, mothers or fathers) spoke our dialect very well.” A similar opinion is widespread among the Russkoye Ustye residents: Bol’shynstvo slov ne upotrebljal [We do not use most of the words (from the “Russkoye Ustye Dialect Dictionary”)] (29-year-old woman); Ne lyapaemsja, kak stariki-to nashy liyapalis’ [We do not blab as our seniors used to do] (38-year-old woman).

The following comments were recorded during discussions with the teachers of both the primary and secondary regional schools on the extent of dialect preservation among the local schoolchildren: “The children do not use [dialect] words at school. When we came to Russkoye Ustye, we were immediately struck by the use of local Russian dialect words among the schoolchildren.” (Subprincipal, a newcomer who does not speak the dialect); “The children do not speak [the dialect], but they know their roots.” (Schoolmaster of the secondary school, a local resident who does not speak the dialect); “The children study and are very interested in the local history, deliver reports at conferences and participate in contests, but they do not speak the dialect.” (Mathematics teacher, a local resident who speaks the dialect); “The children from Chokurdah [regional centre] do not speak [the dialect], but those from Russkoye Ustye speak it more often.” (Head Teacher of the primary school, a local resident who speaks the dialect); “The children do not speak the dialect, but they attend lessons of the culture of Russkoye Ustye, where they study, among other things, some local dialect words.” (a primary school teacher, a local resident whose mother speaks the dialect).
When the children themselves (13-16 years old) were questioned, it was found out that they could use dialect words in phone conversations, when communicating with their relatives (especially older ones), in the street or at school. Sometimes they use dialect words between themselves, being aware that they will be understood.

A questionnaire was developed to be filled in by the children considering themselves to be Russkoye Ustye natives or interested in the culture and daily life of the residents of Russkoye Ustye (1 person):
1. Please, indicate your age.
2. Please, indicate your sex. Male  Female (underline)
3. Do you consider yourself to be a Russkoye Ustye native? Yes   no (underline)
4. If yes, then why?
   - because I was born there
   - because my parents (mother, father) were born there
   - because my grandmother, grandfather were born there
   - (own variant) ___________________________
5. As for the language of Russkoye Ustye natives, you
   - speak it fluently
   - speak a bit, but understand a lot
   - understand sometimes
   - neither speak nor understand it
6. Where and with whom you use the local Russian dialect words? _____________________
7. Do you want to speak fluently and understand the language of Russkoye Ustye natives? Yes   no (underline)
8. Do you want your children to speak fluently and understand the language of Russkoye Ustye natives? Yes   no (underline)

The study involved twenty five 8-16 year old children (8 y.o. - 2 pupils; 9 y.o. - 5; 10 y.o. - 2; 11 y.o. - 2; 13 y.o. - 2; 14 y.o. - 6; 15 y.o. - 3; 16 y.o. - 3).

The children consider themselves to be Russkoye Ustye natives for the following reasons: Russkoye Ustye is the birthplace of the close relatives (mother, grandmother, grandfather) - 20 persons; 2 persons answered that they were born in Russkoye Ustye themselves; 1 person answered that had been living in Russkoye Ustye since an early age (2 years old). Only one person does not consider himself to be a Russkoye Ustye native, though he gave the following answer to question 5: “understand [the language of Russkoye Ustye natives] sometimes”. One person does not consider himself to be a Russkoye Ustye native and neither speaks nor understands the Russkoye Ustye dialect.

Two persons consider that their Russkoye Ustye dialect speech is fluent; 9 pupils speak a bit, but understand a lot; 7 pupils sometimes understand it (such answer was more common among pupils in senior forms); 7 persons chose the answer “neither speak nor understand it”.

Questions 7 and 8 were aimed at the clarification of prospects for future functioning of the dialect. The overwhelming majority of respondents (22 out of 25) gave a positive answer, thus expressing their desire to preserve their dialect traditions and hand them on to the next generation. 3 respondents (9, 14 and 15 years old) did not show any desire to speak the dialect or transfer their knowledge of the dialect to their children. Our findings, in our opinion, suggest that the younger generation is focused both on the preservation of the territorial dialect in their speech practice and on the transfer of the dialect to future generations.

References
Kuterma Ot Kondratiev (Kondratiiis' Mess) By G. R. Derzhavin As The First Example Of Lesson Comedy In The Russian Literature

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Abstract

G. R. Derzhavin’s Kondratiiis’ Mess comedy is viewed as one of the first examples of lesson comedy in the Russian literature of the 18th century; its consistency with the didactic and critical tradition based on J. B. Moliere’s principle “to teach by entertaining” is pointed out. G. R. Derzhavin’s play is an interesting variation of lesson comedy aimed at children and based on the genre of proverb comedy. With a thesaurus approach as a basis, the author reveals his dramaturgic novelty in addressing the upbringing issues, justifying further development of lesson comedy as an active guide of educational ideas in the Russian literature in the first half of the 19th century. The paper is of interest to the literary historians.

Key words: morality comedy, genre, proverb, virtue, spectator

Lesson comedy is one of the interesting cultural events in the history of the Russian theater at the end of the 18th – the first half of the 19th centuries. With its tasks of an educational art, it mainly followed morality comedy, or “school” comedy (Erofeeva 1997). Let us remind here that nurturing virtue through a staged typical mirror-situation is a key peculiarity of morality comedy. Following Aristotle, the great J. B. Moliere claimed theater to be a mirror of society and showed the burning social issues and the epoch’s characters on stage, thus being ahead of the next generation realists. Stage play as a performance form aims to inspire spectators’ minds, to get them debate and look for answers: what is good, and what is bad. Stage play showed the situation in different dimensions and offered a spectator to make his own choice, which is why very often the end remained either open or a possible one. And the comedies of J. B. Moliere are vivid illustrations of that.

Abandoning direct didacticism is novel in “school” comedy of the 18th century, although N. La Chaussee, L. de Allan Valle, D. Didro, R. Sheridan and other playwrights always instructed and did not deny the educational function of the arts. Moreover, D. Didro, for example, connected morality with the notion of freedom as the most prefect expression of the Enlightenment epoch’s spirit.

The spectator was nurtured right from the first words addressing the stalls, so that the staged example helped understand the situation, human nature and the moral. “Theater stalls are the only place where the tears of good-doer and evil-doer mix”, wrote D. Didro (Didro 1936: 349).

The notion of “l’éducation” – “education, nurture” – was brought to the fore in morality comedy. It was registered in the European dictionaries of the 15th century, but only thanks to the Classicism epoch followed by the Enlightenment epoch, it became relevant and popular in the society. This is also determined by the fact that the notion derived from Latin “education” is interpreted both as a process and as a persuasive means.

There is one more notion, which is important for morality and lesson comedies – “liberalitas”. F. E. Korsh noticed about Terence's comedy Brothers, that this notion could be interpreted differently from the Golden Age understanding of “liberalis” as “generous”; it could mean “artes liberales, homo liberalis” i.e. the one whose behavior makes him deserving to be called a free man, honorable (Korsh 1897: 121-122).

The Russian literature is known for morality, or “school” drama in the works of M. Kheraskov, the author of The Virtue School, and N. Sandunov, the author of The Soldiers’ School drama, where the notion of
honorable was shifted to a common person, a peasant-soldier who proves himself to be the best by his deeds.

At the end of the 18th – the first half of the 19th centuries, lesson comedy continued Moliere’s tradition to teach by entertaining, although the theater still addressed, primarily, the audience of high society. Nevertheless, following the Russian authors of morality drama, the lesson comedy addressed the social issues of the Russian society, and that was why the characters from the high society and provincial nobility came to the fore front. At the same time, the family theme occupied the central place, including the issues of bringing up and educating children, relationships between the seniors and the juniors, general issues of family relations, inheritance, etc. Thus, lesson comedy took the traditions of the European morality comedy and developed towards social comedy with the Russian reality as the material for it. However, the social issues of lesson comedy were addressed only in the first half of the 19th century, when the theater became a public phenomenon and started to participate actively in the literary and political struggle of the time. The comedies by I. A. Krylov, A. Shakhovskii or M. Zagoskin prove this fact.

Written in 1801, a humorous play by G. R. Derzhavin, Kuterma ot Kondratievo, detskaya komedinya v odnom deistvii s khorami (Kondratiss’ Mess, Children Comedy in One Act with Choirs) is one of the first examples of lesson comedy. Ya. Grot wrote about this dramaturgical experiment of the poet: “One more short play appears in the list of his already popular works, Kondratiss’ Mess, assessing which, we shouldn’t forget that it is a joke comedy written for children” (Grot 1864-1883).

The reviewer is not judgmental in his assessment. However, the plays to be staged at homes were popular in the society and could be considered an integral part of free time activities. We believe that the dramaturgical experiment of the great G. R. Derzhavin was undervalued, because it is a vivid example of lesson comedy based on the genre of proverb comedy. P. N. Berkov wrote about this genre in his History of the Russian Comedy of the 18th century (Berkov 1977).

G. R. Derzhavin’s comedy has a simple plot with no explicit conflict, everything is based on a mess which is easily cleared up. The play takes place in the Zvanka settlement. Zvanka is a favorite mansion of G. R. Derzhavin, who lived his last years there and died there in 1816.

The spectators’ attention is focused on the home furniture:

Театръ представляетъ гостиную комнату, столъ съ самоваромъ и чайнымъ приборомъ. Миловидова въ покоевомъ платьѣ, и волосы у нея нѣсколько смяты (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 306).

The theater shows a dining room, a table with a samovar and a tea set. Milovidova is in a home dress; her hair is a bit in a mess.

The cast of characters includes family members only: Milovidova, a visiting sister of the hostess; her underaged daughters; the Witch, an old woman in a mask; Fedosya, a maid in the mansion, and three Kondratii – a valet, a gardener, a musician, all called servants. As the play progresses, a dialog of the mother and daughters reveals that Milovidova’s sister, the mansion’s hostess, is ill, which is why she asks her sister to make festival preparations for her. They also mention an old uncle, who does not want to be taken care of, although his health leaves much to be desired. The uncle does not appear on stage.

The plot is based on the preparations for the dinner and the ball. To give all the necessary instructions, Milovidova asks to invite Kondratii. One may think that the hostess of the mansion may not pay attention to her appearance. However, G. R. Derzhavin emphasizes Milovidova’s diligence, her need to take care of her image, when giving her daughters instructions:

Позови ихъ ко мнѣ. – Нѣть, постой; неодѣтою принять ихъ дурно; чуже нѣзы мы люди. Подите и прикажите имъ, что я вамъ скажу, и пусть сюда придуть: я посѣтъ посмотрю, что они сдѣлали (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 313).
Ask them to come to me. – No, wait; it is bad to meet them untidy; they are hired people. Go and tell them what I order, and they may come here; and I will see later what they will have done.

So, the author focuses the spectators’ attention on the necessity to be neat all the time. Here the playwright remarks about Milovidova’s attitude towards her children. When she is alone, she admits that she has very good daughters, but she can’t praise them in front of other people, “a to насмѣшники тотчась разнесуть, просвищутъ, что будто я ихь балую” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 319) – “otherwise there may be rumors that I spoil them”. Modesty is a valuable criterion. The emphasis on showing respect to those who are unwell – the hostess and the uncle – is also important. To nurture compassion is one of the play’s aims. Before the festival, above the noise and fun, the girls can hear their mother’s remark: “надобно быть сострадательными; когда кто боленъ, то тутъ веселье не у мѣста” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 309) – “you should be compassionate; when someone is ill, making merry is improper”. She also appeals to her daughters to stop having fun and help her. The age of the children is not given.

We can only guess that they are teenagers from the last scene, when the hostess of the mansion appears and puts the things right. But for now the morning is filled with the atmosphere of the coming ball and all the fuss and bother connected with it. The scene is filled with noise, fun, laughter. Let us remind that it is a children comedy. This audience determines a great amount of proverbs, sayings with didactic meaning and open instructions plainly said to the daughters. One of these proverbs states the general idea of the play, “Рано пташечка запѣла, чтобы котенка не сѣлъ” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 308) – “If you laugh before breakfast, you will cry before supper”. The girls do not know this proverb, but Milovidova says to their naïve remarks: “Глупеньки! Это пословица, и научаешь насъ ничему прежде времени не радоваться” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 310) – “You are too young! This is a saying that teaches us not to laugh before the appropriate time”. This very proverb is the leitmotiv for the play’s content, which becomes clear when they start discussing the necessity to help the ailing sister to organize the festival. Milovidova is sure that everything will be fine, although she is afraid to fail.

Milovidova does not forget her relatives’ capricious personalities, and she asks her daughters to give orders to each Kondratiis. But her instructions to her daughters together with the fact that she allows her children to give orders in another person’s house make us predict the future mess. All her orders contain phonetic play on words: the cook has to roast “куръ съ шампиніонами” – “chickens with champignons”, the gardener is required to make “взять съ повилицией” – “a bouquet with flowers”, the musician should prepare “рогъ съ барабаномъ” – “a horn with a drum” “для огромности хоровъ” – “to make the choirs sound louder” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 314-315).

The situation is humorous, because there are three Kondratiis servicing in the house, but they are not very quick in helping Milovidova, and come to her one by one; as a result, each of them is given a wrong task. They are surprised, especially the gardener, who is asked to prepare a horn with a drum: “Ахти! кротовъ чголи отпуживать? Но у насъ ихъ нѣтъ” (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 317) – “Oh, my God! Should I scare away moles? But we don’t have any”.

It gets even funnier when Milovidova asks Kondratiis to report about the orders they have fulfilled. The author’s remarks begin scene X:

Три Кondратьи, держаще въ рукяхъ: 1й, туръ (или парикъ) и свернутого бѣлѣ; 2й, гаршокъ тюльпановъ, окиданый мохомъ; и 3й, басъ съ скрипкою (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 319).

Three Kondratiis enter; the first one with a wig and some folded underwear in hands; the second one holding a pot with tulips covered with moss; and the third one carrying a bass and a violin. Each Kondratiis understands the orders in his own way: chickens with champignons are replaced with a wig and pantaloons, a vase with flowers is substituted for a bass and a violin, and horns and drums are replaced with moss and tulips. At the same time, each Kondratiis claims that this is the order he has heard. Putting things right is also very humorous, because each of the three Kondratiis tries to do the best
work. A humorous song, with the refrains being the key words of the orders, accompanies their fight for superiority; these are the words that Kondratiis understood wrongly: kur – tur (chicken – wig), vyaz – bas (vase – bass), rog – mokh (horn – moss).

Milovidova is also surprised with this mess; yet she admits that such things are typical not only for her family:


Here in Russia, noblemen’s houses are notorious for such mess because servants are stupid, and noblemen are mollycoddled; it is especially true for the houses with Kondratiis. - But whatever it is, all that is ours is so dear to the heart.

The Witch, who is surprised with the noise and shouts coming from the mansion, normally peaceful and quiet, helps settle the dispute of who is right and who is to blame. The old woman makes a remark addressed to Milovidova, who entrusts her daughters with giving important orders:

Я иногда слыхала, что вы роптали на безпрестанные мои хлопоты по хозяйству, и винили меня за то, что я очень заботлива: то чтобъ доказать вамъ того необходимость и оправдать себя предъ вами, я вымыслила эту шутку и, притворяясь больною, сыграла комедію, чтобы вы сами видѣли: что не свой глазъ, не любой кусъ. – Кутерьма отъ Кондратьевъ! (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 329)

I used to hear that you grumbled about my constant household chores and blamed me for being too caring; just to prove to you that it is important and to justify my deeds I made up this joke and pretended I was ill. I played this comedy for you to see: what looks easily manageable is not always so. You can get Kondratiis’ mess!

The comedy finishes with everybody being happy and in a good mood. The choir summarizes the lesson:

Счастье, когда в доме мир и покой: Дома въ устройствѣ, Духа въ спокойствѣ. Все счастье лежить (Derzhavin 1808-1816, P. 4: 329).

Happiness lies in home being peaceful and quiet, house well-handled, spirit calm; this is where happiness is.

G. R. Derzhavin described several important issues in his comedy-joke, but he expressed them in national tradition – through proverbs and sayings. If they are enlisted, the educational purpose of the play, presented in a dramaturgical form, will become clear:
If you laugh before breakfast you will cry before supper;

It's wrong Fedot – not whom I want;

Everyone wishes to command, but nobody wishes to execute;

The host gets angry, and the hostess gets afraid;

What looks easily manageable is not always so;

Made such a mess!

Happiness lies in home being peaceful and quiet, house well-handled, spirit calm.

The family theme was close and understandable to the Russian spectators, which is why, having expanded outside mansion theaters, it stayed central to the comedy of the beginning of the 19th century.

For a long time, lesson comedy used to consist of one act and was based on an example-lesson principle. This simplified form was determined by the growing popularity of the vaudeville genre, which often used French plots of the translated plays. In his time M. Paushkin, a Russian vaudeville researcher, noted that at the beginning of the century vaudeville developed in two directions: on the one hand, Russian content was put into French framework (original vaudeville), on the other hand, “a French toy was remade with an attempt to fit Russian images and Russian reality into a French plot – this is translated, remade vaudeville” (Paushkin 1937: 23). Lesson comedy experienced the same processes which can be demonstrated by such examples as A Lesson for Husbands or Crazy Test by I. Volberkh (1809), A Lesson for Wives or Home Secret based by A. Volkov on O. Kreze de Lesse’s comedy (1812), A Lesson in Botany or Punished Suspiciousness, an imitation of E. Dyupati by an unknown author (1820), A Lesson for Jealous People, or Jealousy does not Bring Good remade by R. M. Zotov (1823), etc. However, in the works of I. A. Krylov, namely, in his comedy A Lesson for Daughters (Erofeeva 2005), lesson comedy was further developed and defined a new phase in the history of the Russian national theater. This topic is still relevant – a protest against disregard of everything national just to please foreigners.

I. A. Krylov continued the idea of P. Plavilshchikov that “performance is a public fun changing people’s morals for the better”, and wrote:

The theater should help extract moral lessons from actions. Let a philosopher say that it is not right to be jealous towards the happiness of one’s fellow, that this passion is very dangerous in communities, it is dangerous for strong people; let him exhaust all oratorical means to make this passion disgusting; I will admire and be touched by his oratory skills; but a dramaturgical author must show a jealous person, the one described by the rhetor, he must give him such actions and nuances that could make me hate his face and, together with him, this destructive feeling, even without his words (Krylov 1969: 425).

At the beginning of the 19th century lesson comedy appears to be at the center of literary struggle, becomes a vivid example of active educational world view expressed in fiction, thus preparing the ground for the social comedy of the second half of the 19th century.

References
Common fixed point theorems for mappings in Hilbert Space

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Abstract
In this paper, we prove common and coincidences fixed point theorems for asymptotically regular mappings under various contractive conditions on Hilbert spaces setting. Our results generalize several well-known results in the literature.

Keywords: asymptotically regular mappings, common and coincidences fixed points, weakly compatible mappings, and Hilbert spaces

1 Introduction
Most of fixed point theorems for mappings in metric spaces satisfying different contractions may be extended to the abstract spaces like Hilbert spaces, Banach spaces and locally convex spaces etc., with some modifications Banach fixed point theorem and its applications are well known. Many authors have extended this theorem, introducing more general contractive conditions, which imply the existence of a fixed point. Almost all of the conditions imply the asymptotic regularity of the asymptotically regular maps play an important role in fixed point theory.

Sharma and Yuel [15] and Guay and Singh [8] were among the first who used the concept of asymptotic regularity to prove fixed point theorems for wider class of mappings than a class of mappings introduced and studied by Ciric [7].

The purpose of this paper is to prove some common and coincidences fixed point theorems in Hilbert spaces.

2 Preliminaries
Definition 2.1. A self mapping $T$ on a closed subset of a Hilbert spaces $H$ is said to be asymptotically regular at a point $x$ in $H$ if

$$\|T^n x - T^{n+1} x\| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$ 

Definition 2.2. Let $C$ be a closed subset of a Hilbert space $H$. A sequence $x_n$ in $C$ is said to be asymptotically $T$-regular if

$$\|x_n - T x_n\| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$ 

Definition 2.3. A pair of mappings $(f, T)$ on a Hilbert space $H$ is said to be weakly compatible if $f$ and $T$ commute at their coincidence point (i.e. $f T x = T f x$ whenever $f x = T x$). A point $y \in H$ is called point of coincidence of two self-mappings $f$ and $T$ on $H$ if there exists a point $x \in H$ such that

$$y = T x = f x.$$ 

The following lemma was given in [6] in a metric space setting.
Lemma 2.1. Let \( X \) be a non-empty set and the mappings \( T, f : X \to X \) have a unique point of coincidence \( v \) in \( X \). If the pair \((f, T)\) is weakly compatible then \( T \) and \( f \) have a unique common fixed point.

Definition 2.4. Let \( H \) be a Hilbert space, \( T \) and \( f \) be self-mappings on \( H \) with \( T(H) \subseteq f(H) \) and \( x_0 \in H \). Choose a point \( x_1 \in H \) such that \( f x_1 = T x_0 \). This can be done since \( T(H) \subseteq f(H) \). Continuing this process, having chosen \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) we choose \( x_{n+1} \) in \( H \) such that

\[
x f x_n = T x_{n+1}, n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots.
\]

The sequence \( f x_n \) is called a \( T \)-sequence with initial point \( x_0 \).

Definition 2.5. Let \( T \) and \( f \) be self-mapping on a Hilbert space, with \( T(H) \subseteq f(H) \) and \( x_0 \in H \). A mapping \( T \) is said to be asymptotically \( f \)-regular at a point \( x_0 \) if:

\[
\|f x_n - f x_{n+1}\| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty,
\]

where \( f x_n \) is a \( T \)-sequence with initial point \( x_0 \).

We know that a Banach space is a Hilbert space iff its norm satisfies the parallelogram law i.e., every \( x, y \in H \),

\[
\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2(\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2),
\]

which implies,

\[
\|x + y\|^2 \leq 2(\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2)
\]

3 Main result

Theorem 3.1. Let \( C \) be a closed subset of a Hilbert space \( H \) and \( S, T \) be mappings on \( C \) into itself satisfying:

\[
\|S x - T y\|^2 \leq a \|x - T y\|^2 + b \|y - S x\|^2 + c \frac{\|y - T x\|^2 \|y - S x\|^2}{1 + \|x - y\|^2}
\]

for all \( x, y \in C \) where \( a, b, c \) are non-negative reals with \( 0 < a + b + c < 1 \). Then \( S, T \) have a unique common fixed point.

Proof. Let \( x_0 \) we define a sequence \( x_n \) as follows;

\[
x_{2n+1} = S x_{2n}, \quad x_{2n+2} = T x_{2n+1}, n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots.
\]

From the main equality in theorem, we have;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 = \|S x_{2n} - T x_{2n-1}\|^2 \\
\leq a \|x_{2n} - T x_{2n-1}\|^2 + b \|x_{2n-1} - S x_{2n}\|^2 \\
+ c \frac{\|x_{2n} - T x_{2n-1}\|^2 \|x_{2n-1} - S x_{2n}\|^2}{1 + \|x_{2n} - S x_{2n}\|^2}
\]

Thus we have;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \\
\leq a \|x_{2n} - x_{2n}\|^2 + b \|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2 \\
+ c \frac{\|x_{2n} - T x_{2n}\|^2 \|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2}{1 + \|x_{2n} - x_{2n-1}\|^2}
\]

Therefore;
\[ \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq b\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2 \]

By using the parallelogram law we have:
\[ \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq b\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n} + x_{2n} - x_{2n+1}\|^2 \]
\[ \leq 2b(\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n}\|^2 + \|x_{2n} - x_{2n+1}\|^2) \]

So we have:
\[ (1 - 2b)\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq 2b(\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n}\|^2) \]

Or
\[ \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq \frac{2b}{1-b}(\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n}\|^2) \]

Putting \( k^2 = \frac{2b}{1-b} \), then we have:
\[ \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq k^2(\|x_{2n-1} - x_{2n}\|^2) \]

Proceeding in this way, we get:
\[ \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq k^{2n}(\|x_0 - x_1\|^2), n = 1, 2, ... \]

For any positive integer \( p \), we get:
\[ \|x_n - x_{n+p}\| \leq (\|x_n - x_{n+1}\| + \|x_{n+1} - x_{n+2}\| + \cdots + \|x_{n+p-1} - x_{n+p}\|) \]
\[ \leq (k^n + k^{n+1} + \cdots + k^{n+p-1})\|x_0 - x_1\| \leq \frac{k^n}{1-k}\|x_0 - x_1\| \to 0. \]

Thus \( \|x_n - x_{n+p}\| \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \). Hence \( x_n \) is a Cauchy sequence in \( C \). Since \( C \) is a closed subset of \( H \), then there exists an element \( v \in C \) such that
\[ x_n \to v \] as \( n \to \infty \). Now further, we have
\[ \|v - Tv\|^2 = \|(v - x_{2n+1}) + (x_{2n+1} - Tv)\|^2 \]
\[ \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - Tv\|^2 + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - Tv > = \]
\[ \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|Sx_{2n} - Tv\|^2 + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - Tv > \]
\[ \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + a\|x_{2n} - Tv\|^2 + b\|v - Sx_{2n}\|^2 + c\frac{\|x_{2n} - Tv\|^2\|v - Sx_{2n}\|^2}{1 + \|x_{2n} - v\|^2} + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - Tv > \]

Therefore:
\[ \|v - Tv\|^2 \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + a\|x_{2n} - Tv\|^2 + b\|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + c\frac{\|x_{2n} - Tv\|^2\|v - Sx_{2n}\|^2}{1 + \|x_{2n} - v\|^2} + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - Tv > \]

As \( n \to \infty \), \( x_{2n} \to v, x_{2n+1} \to v \) we have \( Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - Tv > \to 0 \). Then
\[ \|v - T_v\|^2 \leq a\|v - T_v\|^2 \text{ this implies that } v = T_v, \text{ since } a < 1. \text{ similarly we get } v = S_v. \text{Then } v \text{ is a common fixed point of } S \text{ and } T. \]

For the uniqueness, let \( u \in C \) be another fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \), where \( u \neq v \), then

\[
\|v - u\|^2 = \|S_v - T_u\|^2 \leq a\|v - T_u\|^2 + b\|v - u\|^2 + c \frac{\|v - T_u\|^2\|v - u\|^2}{1 + \|v - u\|^2}
\]

Then we get \( \|v - u\|^2 \leq (a + b + c)\|v - u\|^2 \), since \( a + b + c < 1 \) so \( u = v \) i.e, the common fixed point is unique.

Next we extend theorem 3.1 to the case of pair \( S^p \) and \( T^q \), where \( p \) and \( q \) are some positive integers and to the case of a sequence of mappings satisfying the same contractive condition in theorem 3.1

**Theorem 3.2.** Let \( C \) be a closed subset of a Hilbert space \( H \) and \( S \); \( T \) be a mappings on \( C \) into itself satisfying :

\[
\|S^p x - T^q y\|^2 \leq a\|x - T^q y\|^2 + b\|y - S^p x\|^2 + c \frac{\|x - T^q y\|^2\|y - S^p x\|^2}{1 + \|x - y\|^2}
\]

for all \( x, y \in C \) where \( a, b, c \) are non-negative reals with \( 0 < a + b + c < 1 \) and \( p, q \in (0; 1) \). Then \( S, T \) have a unique common fixed point.

**Proof.** Since \( S^p \) and \( T^q \) satisfies all the conditions of theorem 3.1 hence \( S^p \) and \( T^q \) have a unique common fixed point as \( v \);

\[ S^p (v) = v \Rightarrow S(S^p v) = Sv \text{ or } S^p (Sv) = Sv \]

so if \( S v = x_0 \) then \( S^p (x_0) = x_0 \). Thus \( S v \) is a fixed point of \( S^p \). Similarly we can show that \( T v \) is a fixed point of \( T^q \), i.e, \( T^q (T v) = T v \). Now we have;

\[
\|v - T v\|^2 = \|S^p v - T^q (T v)\|^2 \leq a\|v - T^q (T v)\|^2 + b\|T v - S^p v\|^2 + c \frac{\|v - T^q (T v)\|^2\|T v - S^p v\|^2}{1 + \|v - T v\|^2}.
\]

then we have;

\[
\|v - T v\|^2 \leq (a + b + c)\|v - T v\|^2.
\]

So we have \( v = T v \). On the same way we can prove that \( S v = v \). So \( v \) is common fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \).

To prove the uniqueness, let \( v \neq w \) be another common fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \). Then clearly \( w \) is also a common fixed point of \( S^p \) and \( T^q \). So from 3.2 \( S^p \) and \( T^q \) have a common fixed point \( w = v \). Hence \( S \) and \( T \) have a unique common fixed point. Hence we proved that if \( x_0 \) is unique common fixed point of \( S^p \) and \( T^q \) for all \( p, q > 0 \) then \( x_0 \) is unique common fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \).

**Theorem 3.3.** Let \( C \) be a closed subset of a Hilbert space \( H \) and \( F_i \) be a sequence of mappings on \( C \) into itself converging point wise to \( F \) satisfying :

\[
\|F_i x - F_i y\|^2 \leq a\|x - F_i y\|^2 + b\|y - F_i x\|^2 + c \frac{\|x - F_i y\|^2\|y - F_i x\|^2}{1 + \|x - y\|^2}
\]
for all \( x, y \in C \) where \( a, b, c \) are non-negative reals with \( 0 < a + b + c < 1 \). If \( F_i \) has a fixed point \( v_i \) and \( F \) has a fixed point \( v \) then the sequence \( v_n \) convergence to \( v \).

**Proof.** Since it is given \( F_i v_i = v_i \) and \( F v = v \) we have;

\[
\|v - v_n\|^2 = \|F v - F_n v_n\|^2 = \|(F v - F_n v) + (F_n v - F_n v_n)\|^2 \\
\leq \|(F v - F_n v)\|^2 + \|(F_n v - F_n v_n)\|^2 + 2Re<F v - F_n v, F_n v - F_n v_n> \\
\leq \|(F v - F_n v)\|^2 + a\|(v - F_n v_n)\|^2 + b\|(v_n - F_n v)\|^2 \\
+ c \frac{\|(v - F_n v_n)\|^2\|(v_n - F_n v)\|^2}{1 + \|v - v_n\|^2} + 2Re<F v - F_n v, F_n v - F_n v_n> \geq 0
\]

Taking \( n \to \infty \) and \( F_n v \to Fv \), we have:

\[
\|v - v_n\|^2 \leq (a + b + c)\|v - v_n\|^2
\]

So \( v_n \to v \) as \( n \to \infty \) since \( 0 < a + b + c < 1 \)

**Theorem 3.4.** Let \( C \) be a closed subset of a Hilbert space \( H \) and \( S, T \) be a mappings on \( C \) into itself satisfying:

\[
\|S x - T y\|^2 \leq a \frac{\|x - S x\|^2\|x - T y\|^2 + \|y - T y\|^2\|y - S x\|^2}{\|x - T y\|^2 + \|y - S x\|^2}
\]

for all \( x, y \in C \) where \( a \) is a non-negative real with \( 0 < a < 1 \). Then \( S, T \) have a unique common fixed point.

**Proof.** Let \( x_0 \) define a sequence \( x_n \) as follows;

\[
x_{2n+1} = S x_{2n} \land x_{2n+2} = T x_{2n+1} , n = 0,1,2,...
\]

From the main equality in theorem, we have;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 = \|S x_{2n} - T x_{2n+1}\|^2 \\
\leq a \frac{\|x_{2n} - S x_{2n}\|^2\|x_{2n} - T x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - T x_{2n+1}\|^2\|x_{2n+1} - S x_{2n}\|^2}{\|x_{2n} - T x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - S x_{2n}\|^2}
\]

Thus we have;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq a \frac{\|x_{2n} - x_{2n+1}\|^2\|x_{2n} - x_{2n}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2}{\|x_{2n} - x_{2n}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n+1}\|^2}
\]

Therefore;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq a\|x_{2n} - x_{2n}\|^2
\]

Putting \( k^2 = a \), then we have:

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq k^2\|x_{2n} - x_{2n}\|^2
\]

Proceeding in this way, we get;

\[
\|x_{2n+1} - x_{2n}\|^2 \leq k^{2 n}\|x_{0} - x_{1}\|^2 , n = 1,2,...
\]

For any positive integer \( p \), we get;

\[
\|x_{n} - x_{n+p}\| \leq \|x_{n} - x_{n+1}\| + \|x_{n+1} - x_{n+2}\| + \cdots + \|x_{n+p-1} - x_{n+p}\|
\]
Thus \( \|x_n - x_{n+p}\| \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \). Hence \( x_n \) is a cauchy sequence in \( C \). Since \( C \) is closed subset of \( H \), then there exists an element \( v \in C \) such that
\[
x_n \to v \text{ as } n \to \infty.
\]

Now further, we have
\[
\|v - T v\|^2 = \|(v - x_{2n+1}) + (x_{2n+1} - T v)\|^2 \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|x_{2n+1} - T v\|^2 + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - T v > = \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|S x_{2n} - T v\|^2 + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - T v > \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|x_{2n} - T v\|^2 + \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + \|v - S x_{2n}\|^2 + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - T v >.
\]

Therefore:
\[
\|v - T v\|^2 \leq \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2 + a \frac{\|x_{2n} - x_{2n+1}\|^2 \|x_{2n} - T v\|^2 + \|v - T v\|^2 \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2}{\|x_{2n} - T v\|^2 + \|v - x_{2n+1}\|^2} + 2Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - T v >.
\]

As \( n \to \infty \), \( x_{2n} \to v \), \( x_{2n+1} \to v \) we have \( Re < v - x_{2n+1}, x_{2n+1} - T v > \to 0 \). Then \( \|v - T v\|^2 \leq 0 \) this implies that \( = T v \). Similarly we get \( v = S v \). Then \( v \) is a common fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \).

For the uniqueness, let \( u \in C \) be another fixed point of \( S \) and \( T \), where \( u \neq v \), then
\[
\|v - u\|^2 = \|S v - T u\|^2 \leq a \frac{\|v - S v\|^2 \|v - T u\|^2 + \|u - T u\|^2 \|u - S v\|^2}{\|v - T u\|^2 + \|u - S v\|^2}.
\]

Then we get; \( \|v - u\|^2 \leq 0 \), so \( u = v \) i.e, the common fixed point is unique.

Our main results in this section are the following theorems;

**Theorem 3.5.** Let \( H \) be a Hilbert space and let \( T, f : H \to H \) be such that \( T(H) \subset f(H) \), and \( f(H) \) or \( T(H) \) is a complete subspace of \( H \), and \( T \) is asymptotically \( f \_regular \) of some point \( x_0 \) in \( H \) and \( T, f \) satisfying the below inequality:
\[
\|Tx - Ty\|^2 \leq a \max \{\|fx - fy\|^2, \|fx - Tx\|^2, \|fy - Ty\|^2, \frac{1}{2} \|fx - Ty\|^2 + \|fy - Tx\|^2\} + L \min \{\|fx - Tx\|^2, \|fy - Ty\|^2, \|fx - Ty\|^2, \|fy - Tx\|^2\}.
\]

And \( 0 < a < \frac{1}{8} \), then \( T \) and \( f \) have the point of coincidence.

**Proof.** Let \( x_n \) be an asymptotically \( T \_regular \) sequence in \( H \). Then by Parallelogram law we have:
\[\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 2\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2 + 2\|T x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 2\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2 + 4\|T x_n - T x_m\|^2 + 4\|T x_m - f x_m\|^2.\]

Using the main inequality in theorem;

\[\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 2\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2 + 4\|T x_m - f x_m\|^2 + 4a \max \{\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2,\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2\} + 4L \min\{\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2,\|f x_m - T x_m\|^2,\|f x_n - T x_m\|^2,\|f x_m - T x_n\|^2\}.\]

Again by using Parallelogram law we have;

\[\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 2\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2 + 4\|T x_m - f x_m\|^2 + 4a \max \{\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2,\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2\} + \frac{1}{2} (2\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 + 2\|f x_m - T x_m\|^2 + 2\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2) + 4L \min\{\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2,\|f x_m - T x_m\|^2,\|f x_n - T x_m\|^2,\|f x_m - T x_n\|^2\}.\]

Since \(f x_n\) is a \(T\) sequence, we have:

\[\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 2\|f x_n - f x_{n+1}\|^2 + 4\|f x_{n+1} - f x_m\|^2 + 4a \max \{\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2, 2\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 + \|f x_m - f x_{n+1}\|^2\},\]

\[\|f x_m - f x_{n+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} (2\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 + 2\|f x_m - f x_{n+1}\|^2 + 2\|f x_n - f x_{n+1}\|^2) + 4L \min\{\|f x_n - f x_{n+1}\|^2,\|f x_m - f x_{n+1}\|^2,\|f x_n - f x_{n+1}\|^2,\|f x_m - f x_{n+1}\|^2\}.\]

Taking limit as \(n, m \to \infty\), and using asymptotically \(T\)-regular of \(f x_n\) gives us:

\[\|f x_n - f x_m\|^2 \leq 8a \|f x_n - f x_m\|^2.\]

Hence we have;

\[\|f x_n - f x_m\| \to 0.\]

It follows that \(f x_n\) is a Cauchy sequence in \(H\). If \(f (H)\) is a complete subsequence of \(H\), there exists a point \(p \in H\) such that \(f x_n \to p = f u\).

We claim that \(u\) is a coincidence point of \(f\) and \(T\). If not \(\|u - Tu\| > 0\).

From the main inequality in theorem, we obtain;

\[\|f u - Tu\|^2 = \|p - f x_{n+1} + f x_{n+1} - Tu\|^2 \leq 2\|p - f x_{n+1}\|^2 + 2\|f x_{n+1} - Tu\|^2 \leq 2\|p - f x_{n+1}\|^2 + 2\|f x_{n+1} - f u\|^2,\]

\[\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2,\|f u - Tu\|^2, \frac{1}{2} (\|f x_n - Tu\|^2 + \|f u - T x_n\|^2) + \]

\[\]

\[\]

\[\]

\[\]

\[\]
\[L_{\min}\{\|f x_n - T x_n\|^2, \|f u - Tu\|^2, \|f x_n - Tu\|^2, \|f u - T x_n\|^2\}.\]

As \(n \to \infty\) we get:

\[\|f u - Tu\|^2 \leq 2a\|f u - Tu\|^2\]

That is a contradiction. And so \(p = f u = Tu\) is a point of coincidence of \(f, T\).

**Theorem 3.6.** Let \(H\) be a Hilbert space and let \(T, f : H \to H\) be such that \(T(H) \subset f(H)\), and \(T, f\) satisfying the below inequality:

\[\|T x - Ty\|^2 \leq a \max\{\|f x - f y\|^2, \|f x - T x\|^2, \|f y - T y\|^2, \frac{1}{2}(\|f x - T y\|^2 + \|f y - T x\|^2)\}
\]

\[+ L_{\min}\{\|f x - T x\|^2, \|f y - T y\|^2, \|f x - T y\|^2, \|f y - T x\|^2\}.\]

And \(0 < a < 1\), then \(T\) and \(f\) have at most a unique point of coincidence.

**Proof.** Assume there exists \(p, p^*\) in \(H\) such that \(p = f u = Tu\) and \(p^* = f u^* = Tu^*\) for some \(u, u^* \in H\). From the main inequality in theorem we obtain;

\[\|p - p^*\|^2 = \|Tu - Tu^*\|^2 \leq a \max\{\|f u - f u^*\|^2, \|f u - Tu\|^2, \|f u^* - Tu^*\|^2, \frac{1}{2}(\|f u - Tu^*\|^2 + \|f u^* - Tu\|^2)\}
\]

\[+ L_{\min}\{\|f u - Tu\|^2, \|f u^* - Tu^*\|^2, \|f u - Tu^*\|^2, \|f u^* - Tu\|^2\}.\]

Thus we have;

\[\|p - p^*\|^2 \leq a\|p - p^*\|^2\]

And we deduce that \(p = p^*\)

\[\square\]

**References**


