Trends and Applications of English Language Teaching and Learning in Ukraine Context
AWEJ Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on the English Language in Ukrainian Context, November 2020

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This special issue results from an extended cooperative initiative involving the Ukrainian universities and the Arab World English Journal (AWEJ). The edition’s overall theme, “Trends and Applications of English Language Studies in Ukraine Context,” serves to collate a significant collection of research papers to produce one of the most critical and authoritative investigations into the state of English language education in Ukraine.

This collection includes topics ranging from experimental researches of teaching and learning language for specific purposes, professional English communicative competence, and interdisciplinary aspects of English language education to the role of a variety of current technologies in the classroom, assessment instrument impact and effectiveness, content and course design, the use of the mother tongue as a classroom mediation tool to support of pedagogical practices.

The volume contains linguistic research papers on ethnocultural specificity, the structural, semantic, and functional peculiarities of terminological units, the poly code character of English learners’ dictionaries, neurolinguistic programming technologies in foreign language teaching. These investigations are intended to serve an international audience of scholars interested in better understanding English language teaching and learning in Ukraine.

Presented in this issue, the trends of English language studies in the Ukraine context can aid in the application of the increasingly effective and responsive practice of English language education both regionally and globally, serving to inspire further research in this field. They suggest practical techniques to help scholars apply meaningful strategies and guide their students through effective learning by making them active participants in constructing knowledge and educational experience.

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Using Distance EdTech for Remote Foreign Language Teaching During the COVID-19 Lockdown in Ukraine

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Abstract
The situation with a coronavirus challenged the education system and forced educators to shift to a fully E-learning. Many academic institutions were not ready for such a rapid change. The remote learning of foreign languages during the COVID-19 lockdown caused modern teaching technologies to expand the scope of the educational process, broaden its practical orientation, contribute to the intensification of students' independent work, increasing their cognitive activity. The goals of the article include: to define types and specifics of modern edTech for the educational process on the way of transition from no E-Learning to fully E-Learning; to eliminate the role of the Internet as means of information and communication edTech in teaching foreign languages at higher education establishments; to find out the ways of improving students' learning at higher educational establishments, the importance of using distance edTechs and Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, & Challenges (SWOC) analysis of E-learning techniques during the pandemic lockdown. This article also provides the examples of usage of different edTechs in Ukrainian higher education establishments in general. Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University, Lviv State University of Life Safety, Odesa National Maritime University in particular.

Keywords: distance edTech, E-Learning, foreign language teaching, remote learning, SWOC analysis, the COVID-19 lockdown, Ukraine

Introduction

Speaking about the role of new technologies in education worldwide, one can distinguish two opposite poles in the discussions, at one end of the continuum – transforming the current system of education, like the National Education Technology Plan of the United States. It calls for "applying the advanced technologies used in our daily personal and professional lives to our entire education system to improve student learning, accelerate and scale up the adoption of effective practices, and use data and information for continuous improvement" (United States Department of Education: Transforming American Education: Learning Powered by Technology, 2016, https://tech.ed.gov/). It is not a secret that in a predominantly "developed" country, new technologies and approaches are layered upon older ones. Still, the education system works at least from a global perspective. On the other side of the pole, one can see teachers and students of "less developed" countries that would happily switch places. So, the conclusion is that contemporary education depends on our perspective: one country's education crisis may be another country's aspiration.

Traditionally the primary purpose of teaching foreign languages in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is the formation of core communicative skills and practical mastery of at least two foreign languages. Not so long ago, the major restructuring program at most HEIs was conducted, emphasising on professional skills only. It aims to enable graduates to use global resources and international talent to answer future challenges (UNESCO, 2010). Similarly, the essential eight skills university graduates should possess are: (1) Character Development, (2) Self-Management Skills, (3) Social and Cooperative Skills, (4) Communication Skills, (5) Literacy and Numeracy, (6) Thinking Skills and Creativity, (7) Knowledge Application Skills, and (8) Information Skills.

Character Development and Self-Management Skills are vitally important as they enable graduates to deliver their idea as an individual or a group member and comprise a diversity of backgrounds to come out with a right decision, solution, and negotiations (Morreale, Osborn & Pearson, 2000). Communication skills traditionally are considered to be of priority as they refer to the ability to use active listening, writing skills, oral communication, presentation skills, questioning, and feedback skills to establish successful communication (QCA, 2000; SQA, 2003; Washer, 2007; Jones, 2009). Under such conditions, the teacher's task is to administrate the learning process, to enhance the students' cognitive activity, and choose appropriate teaching methods that would allow each student to reveal his creativity. But at the present stage of rapid information development, knowledge becomes obsolete very quickly. Educators are continually looking for new approaches to make the organization of a learning process more effective.

That is why HEIs in Europe and Ukraine as well are turning a university curriculum from the outdated conventional objective (no E-Learning form) to new high-tech contexts of global changes (fully E-Learning), which we are witnessing now in the world's remote learning caused by the pandemic COVID-19 lockdown. Another important aspect of this problem is the modern employment settings. It is now generally accepted that the current changes in the global economy and job market require graduates to have initiative skills, be adaptable to rapidly changing situations, and work well in teams and different multicultural environments. All mentioned above trigger significant changes in the way universities train their undergraduates and increases
emphasis on graduates’ continuing lifelong education. In these circumstances, a personality-oriented, differentiated approach to the very process of teaching, this for sure will contribute to improving the quality of the educational process. As a result, a new curriculum is being worked out by HEIs that is not only focused on the development of professional students' knowledge but also on their core competencies, such as communication and IT skills, emotional intelligence, ability to lifelong learning.

However, nowadays, many HEIs are still based mainly on obsolete concepts and focused on content learning. When many existing-working activities are taken over by AI-based machines and robots, our education is still based on traditional skills and competencies. It is interesting to know that since the middle of the 20th century, a notion of "learning technology" was associated with the technical usage of training tools only. At the end of the 20th century, a different meaning appeared in the concept of "learning technology". Under this term, one can understand the most rational ways of achieving learning goals (Babelyuk, 2019).

Objectives of the Study
1. To investigate, analyze, and characterize the types and specifics of modern EdTechs for remote foreign language teaching.
2. To conduct the level of usage of the provided EdTechs during the pandemic in Ukraine.
3. To provide Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, & Challenges (SWOC) analysis of remote foreign language teaching during the coronavirus pandemic in Ukraine.

Literature Review
At the beginning of the XXI century, in the dictionary of terms on general and social pedagogy, "learning technology" is described as "a set of forms, methods, techniques, and means of transmitting social experience, as well as technical equipment of this process" (Воронин, 2006, p. 113). Different interpretations of this notion can be adhered to the following definition of "learning technology," which is relevant for our research: learning technology is a sequence of procedures and operations that make up an integrated didactic system, the implementation of which leads to the achievement of guaranteed goals for training and education. But this definition seems rather general, as it does not reveal the importance of technical components in the current educational process.

One of the first recorded uses of the Internet for teaching is Computer-Mediated Communication Systems (CMCS) at the New Jersey Institute of Technology in the 1970s (Hiltz & Tuttof, 1978; Hiltz, 1986). That was a "blended" learning model (the combination of classroom teaching with the online discussion between students and a teacher). The model is brought into a variety of software programs to support Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC). One of the most popular was CoSy, developed by the University of Guelph in Canada. A particularity of CoSy was that it enabled threaded discussions (postings were linked directly to a specific previous posting). This type of teaching was provided mainly through specially designed printed material, audiocassettes, and broadcast television programs.

Up until 1990, educational applications of the Internet were limited (email, discussion forms, including CoSy and such like types) due to the limitation of storing or sending large
amounts of content (the narrow bandwidth (56Kbps)). The limit has been removed by the development of the World Wide Web (WWW).

The introduction of WWW gave a push to the bringing in commercial products, providing teachers with online learning environments that included "pages" for online course materials, tests and assignments, discussion forums, and access to other web-based resources, now called learning management systems (LMSs). In response to commercial LMSs, large research universities and some government agencies worked out and used open sources of LMSs, such as Moodle and Sakai.

**Methodology**

The study is descriptive and provides the necessity of transference from no E-Learning to fully E-Learning during the COVID-19 lockdown. The problems associated with remote foreign languages teaching in Ukraine and possible solutions were also identified. The SWOC analysis was provided to single out numerous strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and challenges associated with the online mode of teaching during this pandemic. The research tool used for analyzing the data of this research is a content analysis. The research method is descriptive research. The qualitative aspects have been taken into consideration in the research study. This study is entirely based on secondary data. A systematic review was done in detail for the collected literature.

Secondary sources of data used are (a) journals, (b) reports, (c) search engines, (d) company websites and scholarly articles, (e) research papers, and other academic publications.

**Data Collection Procedure**

The primary purpose of teaching foreign languages today is students' skills in foreign language acquisition and general communicative skills. Different modern teaching technologies help to realize a student-centric, personality-oriented, differentiated approaches to teaching and contribute to improving the quality of the educational process in general.

But in the 1970-1980s new edTech were created and put into practice. Among the scholars involved in the theoretical generalization of the latest pedagogical researches in the frame of HEIs, one can name Klarin, Fomenko, Markova. They have worked out the key edTechs to increase the effectiveness of the educational process when conducting foreign language lessons.

*The Technology of Communicative Teaching*

This technique presupposes the formation of general foreign language competencies/skills at a communicatively optimal level. It is aimed at the simultaneous development of necessary language skills (oral and written speech, grammar structures, reading, listening) is alive, accessible communication. It is essential to fulfill some tasks to achieve this goal: to develop linguistic, intellectual, and creative skills of students, which subsequently will satisfy the need for independent knowledge acquisition; to create favorable educational conditions for the free development of an individual as an equal part of an active joint educational activity. In implementing this technology, such practices of teaching foreign languages as grammar drills, audio-lingual, and video-lingual comprehension turned out to be effective and appropriate. A significant advantage of this technology is its reliance on a factual psychological, pedagogical, and methodological basis. Among them, one cannot but mention the growing popularity of e-resources,
such as electronic dictionaries and other e-books and textbooks, which turned out to be particularly useful during the COVID-19 lockdown.

Besides, during the pandemic lockdown in Ukrainian HEIs, the special attention was paid to webinars, using ZOOM meetings. These are online seminars that provide a teacher with the opportunity to transmit information simultaneously to all his/her remote participants – to receive new knowledge using a virtual classroom in which they can hear and see the teacher and each other from anywhere in the world. The benefits of webinars are apparent: 1) all participants are involved in the learning process, they can ask questions and instantly receive answers to them; 2) the educational process is exciting and alive: audio and video recordings received during a webinar are replaced with text transcripts that make it easy to work on the text; 3) it presupposes a minimum set of necessary tools for training: a computer, speakers with a microphone or headphones and access to the Internet; 4) webinars significantly save time, because participants do not need to be at the venue of the webinar.

This technology can be introduced into the educational process in HEIs through the Internet and social networks. As indicated above, the technology of communicative learning involves teaching foreign languages based on communication (oral and written). Due to the specific communicative nature of social networks, all participants of the educational process have the opportunity to speak the language they are learning not only with teachers but with acquaintances from other countries and native speakers. That makes it possible to practice not only writing in a foreign language but also speaking.

The Technology of Modular Teaching

It is the implementation of a teaching process by dividing it into professionally significant actions and operations that allow students to achieve their learning goals independently and stimulate their cognitive activities. It originated in the late 60s and, at the beginning, was spread in English-speaking countries, such as the USA, England, and Canada. Modular education in its modern form was proposed by American educators Russell and Postletway (1974). Its purpose is "to create special conditions of choice for the complete mastery of the content of the educational program in a different sequence, volume and pace through separate and independent training modules, taking into account students’ interests and capabilities" (Современные образовательные технологии, 2011, p. 432). The advantages of this edTech are creating favorable conditions for students’ motivated study of foreign languages, mutual participants' interaction in the educational process due to the implementation of an individual approach to a learning process, the possibility of multilevel training in the process of foreign language learning.

During the COVID-19 lockdown in Ukrainian HEIs, this technology is implemented with the help of the Internet and social networks through one of the most popular educational systems Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (MOODLE). This system is widely used not only by universities, schools, language schools but also by independent tutors in more than 100 countries. It has a broad range of opportunities to fully implement the learning process into the electronic environment, including various options for formation and presentation language material, knowledge testing, monitoring of students’ academic performance, communication, and organization of their community. It is also worth noting that the main options of e-environment
are developed with a focus on the pedagogy of social constructivism, which presupposes an active, communicative involvement of students in the process of language knowledge, skills and abilities formation, and their interaction, which is, to our minds, vitally crucial during the COVID-19 lockdown.

*The Technology of Individualization of Learning*

It is the implementation of a process of teaching foreign language independent students' learning programs. The essential component of which is their specific psychological characteristics. The idea of an individual approach to students' learning in a class or a team belongs to Comenius (1592-1670). Since now, problems of personal practice in education in general, and in HEIs, in particular, received a scientific background in studies on the following topics: ways of increasing cognitive activity and independent activity of schoolchildren in learning; principles of organization of group and individual work.

Hence, the edTech of individualization of learning is designed to eliminate discrepancies between the real educational capabilities of each student and the level of their educational activity according to their learning program. Thus, it is worth noticing that this technology can serve not for individual purposes only, but also group tasks. But in both cases, it is essential to take into account the personality traits of each student within his psychological aspect, which include: student’s interest in the process of learning, the degree of confidence in his capabilities, cultural characteristics, motivation to learn a foreign language, willingness to make one's own decisions.

Under the complicated conditions of the COVID-19 lockdown, the edTech of individualization of learning provides an excellent opportunity for self-study, mainly while using some means of distance education (the Internet). Via the Internet, students can independently find the necessary information they need, related training materials, and practical educational resources in the shortest possible time. Besides, as far as we can assume from our practice, students' motivation for learning is continuously growing due to the Internet and social networks. It can be explained by the fact that the Internet is the most familiar environment for contemporary learners, where they can communicate easily, consult their teachers or native speakers.

*The Technology of Multilevel (differentiated) Training*

It is the implementation of teaching foreign languages some educational devices when consolidating new material, some assimilation occurs, or review of the covered material. It can be used at any stage of the lesson.

Differentiated multilevel training provides students' cognitive motivation and stimulation of their mental activity; voluntary choice by each student of the level of assimilation of educational material; organization of independent work of students at various levels; full assimilation of the primary component of the content of education; paired, group and teamwork as forms of organization of educational process; ongoing monitoring of learning material; introductory or final control for each unit of mastering educational material (for students who still have not completed the essential tasks, correction work is necessary until complete mastery). This technology allows students to evaluate their capabilities of learning a foreign language, needs, and interests during the educational process objectively.
Testing Educational Technology

It is one of the most effective means of controlling students' acquired knowledge. For the first time, testing was applied by Fisher in 1864 in the United Kingdom. He created a book that presented questions and a series of answers to each of them. In Ukraine, testing appeared later and was proposed by the Ukrainian scholar of Greek origin Rossolimo (1910).

The benefits of this technology are obvious: with the help of testing, a teacher can check the progress of all students in the group simultaneously, because it takes a short period to complete the test, which, accordingly, makes it possible to conduct it in almost any class. Another advantage of this edTech is that all students are placed on an equal footing. So, testing takes place in the same environment, with the same volume and complexity of tasks. The above advantages of testing technology indicate the appropriateness of its use in the educational process in general and in teaching foreign languages.

Due to popular social networks, which are significantly often used in the educational process of HEIs during COVID-19 lockdown, students do not leave their comfort zone for the implementation of classroom educational activities (including testing as well). For example, through surveys on Instagram, a teacher can identify the level of learned material (conducting testing) by students being in their familiar environment. By the way, this test option will not cause stress for students, but only favorably affect the results.

Project Educational Technology

It presupposes almost any technological innovation in the new educational process, which positively affects foreign language learning outcomes and increases students’ motivation.

Currently, one of the most popular devices in teaching foreign languages is project technology. Since it presupposes the fulfillment of the following tasks: a) to develop students' language skills; b) to navigate independently in the information space; c) to construct their knowledge and apply it to solve various problems alone; d) to analyze the information received; e) to develop students’ creative abilities. So, as we can see from the above statements, the use of modern information technologies in general, and project technology can both diversify the educational process and provide excellent opportunities for expanding the educational framework, which, of course, involves increasing students’ motivation. It contributes to the individualization of foreign language learning. Due to project technology, students can learn to work independently, show their educational capabilities, and language abilities to the full, actively engaging in real activities. Besides, it is necessary to stress that project technology provides teachers with a chance to realize their students’ creative abilities, the results of which can significantly improve and optimize any learning process as a whole. Sometimes, they are not applicable in the classroom because of a lack of time, equipment, or other resources.

The Technology of Distance Education

It presupposes that students are provided with all the necessary textbooks, e-dictionaries, and teaching aids, which they need in foreign language learning. It is aimed at cooperation between participants of the educational process. Today, in contemporary HEIs, it is necessary to provide students with a perfect opportunity for continuous training. They will have access to world
information and appropriate educational resources, improve their professional language skills, and activate their creative development.

The main element of edTech distance education is a specially worked out distance education course, presented in an electronic form. The basic requirements for its formation can be formulated as follows: a) distance education course should be built on a modular basis; b) distance education modules are based on a single model; c) module information elements are focused on independent learning; d) the content of modules should include various contexts, taking into account students' academic language level; e) each module has components intended for input and output control of the learner’s knowledge; f) assessment procedures should be classified according to the levels of material assimilation; g) the modules and information elements of the distance course should include sets of expert rules that determine the path of the module (Кларин, 1995).

Also, it should be noted that many students and educators do not have full-time training and special courses for retraining in the frame of distance learning. That is closely related to information and communication technologies, which provide the possibility of implementing online training and quick access to the necessary e-resources, putting into life the principle of "long-life learning."

**Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)**

ICT creates appropriate educational information and communication environment of foreign languages teaching in HEIs. The educational information environment is a set of conditions providing unified approaches to the implementation of information activities and information interaction when using a distributed information resource in education, science, and culture.

New information and communication edTech have selected didactic properties and functions. Their essential features are quite clearly described in the works of Polat (Полат, 2002). ICTs are effective means of teaching not only necessary language skills but also modern ways of presenting cultural peculiarities of the countries. But the primary goal of this edTech is to prepare students to live in a modern, rapidly changing information society, in a world where there is a constant need for new professions, new knowledge and discoveries, and continuous training. Hence, to the most commonly used ICT tools used in the educational process, we can include electronic textbooks and manuals demonstrated with the help of a computer or a multimedia projector; electronic dictionaries, encyclopedias, and reference books; simulators and testing programs; educational resources of the Internet; DVD and CDs with pictures and illustrations; video and audio equipment.

At present, all the abovementioned ICTs for teaching foreign languages are closely connected with the Internet and social networks; that’s why they are frequently used during the COVID-19 lockdown. Due to these ICT tools, standard educational methods and technologies are being modernized, thereby meeting the modern needs of high-tech society and improving the quality of the educational process in general.
Discussion

The condition of the COVID-19 lockdown in Ukraine turned out to be a challenge for the national education system. Educators had to move to fully E-learning form of teaching using distance edTechs at remote learning: edTechs of communicative teaching; modular instruction, individualization of learning multilevel (differentiated) training, testing, project, distance education, information, and communication, selecting co-features which are most appropriate for different types of teaching material.

Department of Germanic Languages and Translation Studies, Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University, Drohobych, Ukraine; Department of Foreign Languages and Translation Studies, Lviv State University of Life Safety, Lviv, Ukraine; Philology Department, Odesa National Maritime University, Odesa, Ukraine, introduced many innovative teaching techniques emphasizing the interactive form of learning a foreign language. Some of the teaching methods adopted are Powerpoint presentations of lectures and practical lessons, Web-based learning, virtual laboratories, audio-visual aids, video-based demonstrations.

The departments organize the courses into three levels: master’s degree, bachelor’s degree, and continuing education levels in learning foreign languages. Due to the COVID-19 lockdown, they have devised a multi-media distance education enabling students to study independently without having a conventional classroom. Universities have developed and integrated various instructional media (ITT) into a distance teaching/learning system. These media help students study independently without having to enter a conventional classroom to prevent spreading the virus. The instructional media comprises main media (textbooks and workbooks mailed to students) and supporting media (audio with scripts, recorded radio and television programs accompanied with printed course materials and other audio-visual aids).

The websites of these universities contain full details of activities. They include a development fund (including support for small projects); an inquiry service that links the departments; the programs of online conferences, workshops; online projects looking at aspects of teaching and learning.

During the COVID-19 lockdown, fully web-based courses in the abovementioned universities were organized with all material and interaction solely via the web (ZOOM platform). The main aim was to exclude contact teaching where the web is used as a support to facilitate access to study guides and prescribed material according to the curriculum, and online communication between lecturers and students. Many departments at the Universities must follow the latter model to prevent the spread of the coronavirus.

The definite positive changes which facilitate the development of edTechs in Ukrainian universities can be viewed. The Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine provided the access to the international scientometric databases of Scopus and the Web of Science and now has extended it until February 28, 2021, and May 31, 2021, for all state and municipal universities and research institutions of Ukraine at the expense of the budget. Many institutions have also gained access to new analytical tools.
The Universities provided access to different websites, courses, and media to increase the research activity of students and teachers of their universities, i.e., Coursera (a technological company) that provides the publication of educational materials on the Internet in the form of a set of online courses (https://www.coursera.org/promo/free-courses-college-students?).

Web pages of the universities provide helpful tips and links to resources by category. Using these Web pages during lockdown training sessions makes it easier for lecturers to teach and students to study.

Distance education during the COVID-19 lockdown showed some concerns about essential directions, which should be improved. They are the curriculum, evaluation, academic planning and management, guidance and counseling, the use of edTechs.

**Conclusion**

"The key lesson for others may be to embrace e-learning technology before disaster strikes!" (Todorova & Bjorn-Andersen, 2011, p. 598). Online teaching is no more an option. It is already a necessity. The spread of the virus has accelerated the process of online learning in the world, particularly in Ukraine. Disasters will continue to occur, and technologies will help us cope with them. A high level of readiness to react to the changes in the environment and adjust ourselves to different modes (remote learning/online learning during the COVID-19 lockdown) is of high importance. HEIs should prepare contingency plans to cope with challenges, pandemics, and natural disasters. Sufficient availability of ICT, different edTechs, digital learning resources in the form of Massive Open Online Courses, e-books, e-notes, and so on are of high importance (Huang et al., 2020). Instruction, content, motivation, relationships, and mental health are the five essential things for an educator providing online education (Martin, 2020).

The research allows drawing some theoretical assumptions (SWOC) of using distance edTechs for remote foreign language teaching during the COVID-19 lockdown in Ukraine. Time and location flexibility, covering a broad audience, immediate feedback are among strengths. Technical disabilities, learners’ level of technological awareness, stress, and lack of eye contact are among weaknesses. EdTechs development, academic flexibility – opportunities. The absence of technical aids, quality of education, digital illiteracy is among challenges.

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Phonetic Portrait of a Ukrainian EFL Teacher: Prosodic Parameters in Academic Discourse

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Abstract:
Particular durable second language (L2) pronunciation distinctions of speakers who belong to the same first language (L1) community serve as their instant audio-identification markers, creating their typical phonetic portrait. Deviations in non-native English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher pronunciation remain a vibrant area of research due to their impact on speech intelligibility and comprehensibility, their pragmatic and emotional potential in oral verbal communication. The purpose of this contribution was to establish standard pronunciation deviations in academic speech of Ukrainian EFL teachers, thus depicting their phonetic portrait. A research methodology included acoustic and auditory analyses of pronunciation of British and Ukrainian speakers of English. The findings showed that Ukrainian EFL teachers display a set of common pronunciation distinctions: on the tonal level of the beginning and the end of the intonation group, tonal range, interval, rate and tone movement change in different parts of the intonation group, volume realization, speech rate; lack of qualitative and quantitative differences in the pronunciation of long and short monophthongs in stressed and unstressed syllables, full pronunciation of unstressed vowels. The results will find their application in EFL teacher education programs and further research of the accented speech nature.

Keywords: English academic discourse, foreign accent, non-native speech, phonetic portrait, prosody, segmental and prosodic features, teachers’ professional identity

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Introduction

Current practices in English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education include, among other innovations, a significant shift from “the previous rejection of foreign-accentedness as something undesirable to the present greater openness to non-native speech” (Volin, Poesova, & Skarnitzl, 2014, p. 210). Specific distinctions on the segmental and prosodic levels of speech embrace peculiar features of vowel and consonant articulation, widening of a tonal range, tempo, timbre, specific use of intonation expressive means. They indicate the membership of the speakers of a particular national, territorial, regional, demographic, social, or professional community. These distinctions can serve as their instant audio-identification markers. According to Coulthard (2004, p. 432), the pronunciation features of an idiolect constitute the most accurate “linguistic fingerprint” of a speaker as we can measure its acoustic features instrumentally. Thus, the phonetic distinctions of the academic discourse of Ukrainian EFL teachers create their typical phonetic portrait.

The phonetic aspect of Ukrainian EFL teachers’ academic speech has been underresearched. The paper focuses on studying the pronunciation dimensions of Ukrainian EFL teachers’ professional portrait to address this gap. It presupposes distinctive pronunciation variables typical of English academic discourse by the teachers belonging to this ethnic group. It is necessary to establish a set of linguistic markers with which these phonological and phonetic variables correlate to build a conceptual model of a phonetic portrait of Ukrainian EFL teachers.

Theoretical Background

Teachers’ professional identity (TPI) is a vibrant area of current research focusing on TPI formation, the identification of TPI characteristics, and its content (core and peripheral elements) (Archanjo, Barahona, & Finardi, 2019; Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Rus, Tomaa, Rebegaa, & Apostol, 2013; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Beijaard et al. claim that “identity is not a fixed attribute of a person, but a relational phenomenon” (2004, p. 108). It suggests that the TPI concept involves “a combination of competing interactions between personal, professional and contextual factors” (Rus et al., 2013, p. 316). We support the views that the TPI is inherent to teaching as a professional activity (Archanjo et al., 2019, p. 73) and is “constructed, maintained, and negotiated in an academic community to a significant extent through language and discourse” (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 23). Thus, a cognitive model of the TPI is allegedly a multilevel construct that finds its objectification in teachers’ professional discourse, with teachers’ academic talk predominantly serving the primary means of its representation.

Despite the increased attention to the EFL teachers’ academic talk (Jing & Jing, 2018; Richards, 2017; Sybing, 2019), little research has explored distinctive lingual features as an integral part of EFL non-native teacher professional identity representation. English as a foreign language being the content, the means of teaching (i.e., the language of instruction), and the professional discourse (academic talk) presents a particular challenge for non-native English speaking teachers, especially in the countries belonging to the “expanding circle” (Kachru, 1990). For non-native English speaking teachers, language proficiency is central to their professional identity, representing “the bedrock of their professional confidence” (Murdoch, 1994, p. 254).
Language proficiency as a multidimensional construct (Hulstijn, 2012; Lim, 2018) incorporates pronunciation alongside other integral components: lexical, grammatical, discursive, pragmalinguistic, etc. Stevick claims that “pronunciation is the primary medium through which we bring our use of language to the attention of other people” (1978, p. 145). For this reason, non-native English speaking teachers’ pronunciation constitutes one of the core components in the lingual representation of their TPI, without underestimating other integral parts. The detailed content analysis of EFL non-native teachers’ pronunciation is a means of their professional identity representation. It should focus on such key notions, as an accent, foreign accent, intelligibility, comprehensibility, segmental and prosodic means that make the theoretical background of our research on the phonetic portrait of a Ukrainian EFL teacher.

The starting point for exploring the pronunciation of non-native English speaking teachers belonging to a particular ethnic group – their phonetic portrait – is the concept of a foreign accent. It is essential to differentiate between the following two notions: an accent and a foreign accent. An accent is a set of dynamic segmental and suprasegmental habits of native language speakers that “convey linguistic meaning along with social and situational affiliation” (Moyer, 2013, p. 11). Broadly defined, a foreign accent embraces deviations in the pronunciation of non-native speech compared to native discourse (Gut, 2009, p. 253).

A comparison of two accents will reveal differences of several kinds (Laver, 1994, p. 63). First of all, accents employ definite phonological and phonetic means, and, accordingly, they display differences that include a set of lingual parameters. Here, the term phonological pertains to those phonic means that have a meaning differential value. Simultaneously, the term phonetic covers those peculiarities of speech production, which do not involve any change of meaning. Secondly, users of an accent choose pronunciation forms: 1) social characteristics of the speaker, such as social status, level of education, age, sex, and 2) a particular communicative situation (formal or informal). Thus, an accent displays differences described by a set of parameters relating to social and communicative factors. We could claim that an accent displays features that correlate with phonological, phonetic, social, and communicative dimensions.

To differentiate the terms of an accent and a foreign accent, we should emphasize that the L1/L2 cross-linguistic distance, learner-extrinsic factors (age of acquisition and testing; quantity and quality of input) and learner-intrinsic factors (cognitive abilities, aptitude, motivation) can greatly determine the final quality of the asymptotic performance L2 speakers (Saito, 2018). We could predict that the erroneous pronunciation of those English phonological and phonetic means, which are not available in the Ukrainian phonetic system, constitutes salient features of the Ukrainian English accent.

**Research Methodology**

The research methodology included a comparative analysis of Standard English Pronunciation and Ukrainian EFL teachers’ English speech, auditory analysis carried out by native speakers of English and Ukrainian phoneticians experienced in listening and interpreting English speech, acoustic analysis of tonal, dynamic and temporal prosodic characteristics of texts produced by native and non-native speakers of English.
Carrying out the auditory and acoustic analysis of academic discourse, we analyzed the pronunciation of five native speakers (British university and school teachers) and nine Ukrainian English speakers (university EFL teachers). Moreover, while teaching English Phonetics to prospective EFL teachers in Ukraine, the authors of this study have had numerous opportunities for observation and analysis of Ukrainian English in classroom settings for many years.

The corpus of experimental material included 152 fragments of English academic discourse. We asked the native speakers (standard speech) and non-native speakers (accented speech) of English to read the texts aloud and recorded each item separately. Two native speakers of English and three Ukrainian phoneticians performed the auditory analysis of the experimental material. They evaluated the pronunciation correspondence of the speakers to the English orthoepic norm, identified their accent, ethnic and professional affiliation; qualified their pronunciation legibility, and defined the level of language proficiency in the accented speech as high, mid, or low. The phoneticians were supposed to fix the most persistent and recurrent pronunciation errors as segmental and prosodic deviations in Ukrainian EFL teachers’ English speech. The acoustic analysis of tonal, dynamic, and temporal prosodic characteristics of texts produced by native and non-native speakers of English. We used Praat software, which allows a simultaneous representation of acoustic waveforms and pitch lines to carry out the acoustic analysis.

Results and Discussion

In the focus of our research, there are four lingual dimensions: 1) segmental, 2) suprasegmental/prosodic, 3) voice quality features, 4) specific articulatory/adjustment phenomena. Segmental components refer to individual consonantal and vocalic sounds in a target language. Suprasegmental or prosodic features as “the structure that organizes sound” (Cutler, Dahan, & Donselaar, 1997, p. 142) embrace a wide range of L2 phonetic phenomena, such as word stress, sentence stress, intonation, rhythm, and fluency. Voice quality is the auditory impression made by the specific mechanical setting of the speech organs over stretches of speech (Esling, Wong 1983; Esling 1994; Pennington 1996, p. 156). Coarticulatory or adjustment phenomena comprise consonant or vowel quality change (assimilations and reductions), loss of consonants or vowels (elisions), and even loss of entire syllables in natural-sounding pronunciation in conversational English. So, the stress-timed rhythmic pattern of English causes the modifications of sounds in connected speech and reveals its specificity in Ukrainian EFL teachers’ foreign accent.

The auditory analysis of the experimental material revealed the mispronouncing of particular sounds and sound combinations by Ukrainian EFL teachers. The most common errors are the lack of qualitative and quantitative changes in the pronunciation of long and short monophthongs in stressed and unstressed syllables, full pronunciation of unstressed vowels, nasalization of vowels, etc. We paid particular attention to the complete or partial absence or unreasonable presence in the English speech of Ukrainian EFL teachers of such phonetic phenomena as aspiration, accommodation, quantitative and qualitative reduction, positional length of vowels.
The violation of the rhythmic structure in some utterances that influenced their comprehension and expressiveness characterizes the analyzed academic discourse of Ukrainian EFL teachers. Native English speakers fixed violations in the English words accent distribution by Ukrainian bilinguals. They registered the increase of the number of the syllables in words ending in -ed (wash – washed /wɒʃd/ instead of / wɒʃt/; cook – cooked /kʊkt/ instead of /kʊkt/, etc.), in the word clothes /klɔʊðz/ the ending -es often sounds like /klɔʊðz/. We observed some pronunciation errors in words, where the change of stress affected the part of speech to which they belonged (present – present, |import – import).

The study of the melodic patterns violations in the academic speech of Ukrainian EFL teachers focuses on the discrepancies in the tone level, range, interval, rate, and tone movement change in different parts of the intonation group.

Analysis of tone level violations in utterances produced by non-native speakers proves an increase in the tone level of stressed syllables. In this way, the speaker emphasizes the semantic importance of lexical units within the intonation group, marking them with a special rise. It is essential to note that a special rise is pronounced by raising the tone level and to emphasize the semantically relevant word. In this case, the speaker increases the volume of the syllable with a special rise compared with the volume of other stressed syllables in the intonation group.

Analyzing the tone level at the end of the intonation group in the utterances produced by non-native speakers, we register an increase of the tone level compared to the medium-low tone level in the utterances produced by native speakers. The results of the experimental study of the distribution of the tone level at the beginning and the end of intonation groups indicate that its increase makes the utterance less expressive. It may influence its comprehension, and alongside other violations in the pronunciation of units of segmental and suprasegmental levels in other parts of intonation groups, distorts their meaning. Thus, we can interpret the increase of the tone level in the analyzed fragments as an error at the prosodic level, which is one of the features of the phonetic portrait of a Ukrainian EFL teacher.

The auditory analysis of the tonal range violations in English utterances produced by non-native speakers shows a close relationship between the tonal level of the first stressed syllable of the intonation group and the range. An increase of the tonal level of the first stressed syllable of the intonation group always leads to expanding the tonal range.

Since the variability of the tonal range is one of the ways to indicate the importance of the information contained in the intonation groups of utterances and different levels of its expressiveness, the lack of modifications at the tonal range level causes difficulties in the perception of this information and its division into basic and additional. Moreover, a similar realization of the tonal range makes the utterance less emotional.

Therefore, the auditory analysis of the tonal range of the intonation group actualization in the English utterances realized by non-native speakers proves the narrowing of the tonal range of the intonation group. It explains a decrease in the level of expressiveness and pragmatic potential of analyzed utterances. The tendency mentioned above varies according to the degree of
complexity of the deviations registered in these utterances. We can explain this by the violations in the English pronunciation of Ukrainians at the prosodic level and interpret them as mental errors that arise due to insufficient communicative and cognitive experience of the speaker.

The tonal interval at the junction of different parts of the intonation contour allows tracing the level of the emotional state of the speaker in the process of communication. The most frequent zone of the tonal interval in the analyzed utterances is the medium interval, which indicates the deviation of the EFL teachers’ pronunciation from the authentic realizations and an insufficient level of their pronunciation culture.

The rate of tone movement change in the terminal intonation group reflects both the objective and subjective attitude of the speaker to the utterance. A comparative analysis of the rate of change of the terminal tone movement showed that the percentage of high rate is low, since the categorical statements are not typical to the English speakers. Therefore, it is natural that Ukrainian speakers with a high level of language proficiency have almost the same indicators of this parameter as native English speakers, which proves their high pronunciation culture. The prevalence of the low and medium rate of change of the terminal tone movement in the utterances produced by Ukrainian speakers with a low level of pronunciation proficiency indicates the absence of modifications of this parameter. It does not correlate with the semantic structure of the utterance, which is another proof of the insufficient level of the Ukrainian EFL teachers’ phonetic competence.

The auditory analysis of the utterance stress in the English academic speech produced by Ukrainian EFL teachers proves that the semantic factor determines its distribution. Thus, in the English statement, The language has begun to reflect this changed relationship, the native speaker pronounces the word language as a separate intonation group realized with a high falling tone. It allows him to emphasize the main idea of the analyzed utterances.

In contrast, in the same statement, The language has begun to reflect this changed relationship, Ukrainian speakers with medium and low levels of pronunciation proficiency do not pronounce the word language with a kinetic tone. The speakers do not separate it into an intonation group. This fact reduced the pragmatic potential of the statement and changed its emotional coloring. Instead of convincing the listener of the positive changes taking place in modern Britain, the speaker states the fact of objective reality and does not express any personal attitude to the events that are of concern to most Britons as a single nation.

The acoustic analysis of the dynamic characteristics of the experimental material proved that the native speakers preferred moderate volume while pronouncing the majority of the utterances (70,73%). We observed the increase of the volume in the analyzed utterances when the native speaker added to them some emotional coloring and emphasized their communicative centers. Besides, we registered the decrease of the volume in those utterances, which rendered the additional information produced by native speakers and Ukrainian EFL teachers with a high level of pronunciation proficiency. It contributed to both semantic and prosodic contrast realization. On the contrary, the increased volume dominated in the utterances produced by Ukrainian EFL
teachers with medium (56.90%) and low (61.94%) levels of pronunciation proficiency. It signals the emotional state of the speaker and indicates his attempt to attract the attention of the listeners. Hence, it is essential to note that in some cases, the increased volume does not ensure the practical realization of the emotional and pragmatic potential of the analyzed utterances.

The study of the tempo in the utterances produced by non-native English speakers showed the dominance of its moderate variety. This type of tempo, combining with the increased volume, signals about the high emotional and pragmatic potential in utterances produced by Ukrainian EFL teachers with a high level of pronunciation proficiency. In contrast, we do not observe the variety of tempo in utterances produced by speakers with medium and low levels of pronunciation proficiency. It prevents the realization of the utterance purpose and does not add any emotional coloring to it.

In the analyzed rhetorical question, "What is behind the English obsession with games?" the native speaker reflects on the British way of life and culture, expresses his feelings about the British national identity. He asks a question and tries to find an answer to it.

The realization of the same utterance: "What is behind the English obsession with games?" by a Ukrainian speaker with a high level of phonetic competence indicates that it is close to the pronunciation of a native speaker. The use of high falling tones conveys the excitement of the speaker, his feelings, and emotions. The rising wave-tone movement of the sliding scale makes each subsequent stressed word of the utterance semantically relevant, encouraging the listener to reflect on the political, economic, and cultural problems in the UK today.

The pronunciation of the utterance: "What is behind the English obsession with games?" by a Ukrainian speaker with a medium level of phonetic competence conveys the feelings of concern and anxiety of the speaker about the existing problems. Though we observed the deviations from the utterance produced by the native speaker, i.e., high tonal beginning of the "What", the use of the stepping scale instead of the sliding one. However, such intonation somewhat changes the rhetorical character of the utterance and acquires features of a wh-question.

The realization of the utterance "What is behind the English obsession with games?" by a Ukrainian speaker with a low level of phonetic competence completely changes its pragmatic potential. The listeners perceived and decoded it as a question that requires a specific answer. In this case, it loses the rhetorical features and affirmativeness typical to the utterance produced by a native speaker. The excessive number of stressed syllables in the intonation group, pronunciation errors, and mistakes at the segmental level are characteristic features of Ukrainian EFL teachers with a low level of phonetic competence. Besides the prosodic errors mentioned above, we also registered the pronunciation errors on the segmental level. Among the most frequent mistakes are the substitution of the central sonant /w/ with the fricative /v/; the substitution of the pharyngal /h/ with the Ukrainian backlingual /x/; incorrect pronunciation of the definite article before the word that begins with a vowel (/ðı/, /ðe/, /zı/, /ze/, /dì/, /de/) instead of /ðı/; mispronouncing of the allophone shwa of the phoneme /ǝ/ and others.
Conclusion

In summary, this paper argued that a phonetic portrait of Ukrainian EFL teachers embraces pronunciation deviations in their academic speech. It constitutes one of the core components in the lingual representation of their professional identity due to pronunciation as a speaker instant audio identification marker in communication. Being a multilevel construct, a phonetic portrait of a non-native English speaker consists of accented phonetic features correlating with segmental and prosodic parameters. The auditory and acoustic analysis of the Ukrainian English academic speech proved that Ukrainian speakers of English exhibit pronunciation deviations on both segmental and prosodic (suprasegmental) levels. The most salient in the phonetic portrait of Ukrainian EFL teachers are prosodic characteristics, namely the tonal level of the beginning and the end of the intonation group, tonal range, interval, rate and tone movement change in different parts of the intonation group, the distribution of the utterance stress and the division of utterances into intonation groups, volume realization, speech rate. The most typical violation at the suprasegmental level is the erroneous intonation contour while providing the basic and additional information that impedes the understanding of the utterance. The reasons for the difficulties in perception and decoding of the Ukrainian EFL teachers’ pronunciation are the lack of tonal (contrast) variation: the variation of tempo and volume in expressing the semantic contrast; the excessive number of stressed words in intonation groups that significantly affects the perception of utterances.

The obtained results are relevant for improving the quality of teaching English pronunciation to prospective EFL teachers in Ukraine. They could be of interest to the professionals involved in EFL teacher training in other national settings.

The study reveals scope for further linguistic research of the perception specifics of Ukrainian English by native speakers, the cognitive mechanism of Ukrainian English foreign accent, the influence of the language mapping of the world on the bilingual accent. Future research could examine L1 pronunciation features in Ukrainian English that influence comprehensibility in intercultural verbal interactions, taking into consideration the growing role of the English language as a lingua franca in intercultural communication.

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References


Multilevel Forms of Interference Detection in Intercultural Communication and Translation

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Abstract
The development of open information and communication space creates conditions for the spread of bilingualism as a leading trend in the language development of modern society. However, the disadvantage of this situation is the interference, which involuntarily occurs if you speak two or more languages. The problem of detecting indications of interference becomes especially relevant, which is explained by many reasons, among them vague language and translation training of the translator, which is what causes the indications of harmful interference in intercultural communication and translation. Clarifying the indications of interference as a communicative barrier due to the convergence of linguistic and cultural codes of the contacting languages will ensure a successful process of intercultural communication and translation. It will promote the development of relevant, significant professional translation activities in translators. When learning a language, try to find similarities or differences in language structures to better explain errors in differences or master the material by comparing the similarities of language structures. In intercultural communication and translation, the main aim is to convey information to the reader or listener in the most natural way possible, using all known stylistic, grammatical, lexical, and grammatical means. This research was conducted based on the methods of observation, comparison, analysis, functional and descriptive methods. In order to solve this problem, the achievements of linguistics, sociolinguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, methods of teaching foreign languages were analyzed, as the study of the phenomenon of interference is based on them. The result is the formation of a linguistic personality, in particular, the bilingual personality of the translator in a dialogue that has the ability and skills to use the language in all its manifestations in different situations of intercultural communication; the ability to understand and assimilate someone else's way of life and behavior in order to break ingrained stereotypes; skills to expand the individual picture of the world by involving in the "language picture of the world" speakers of the studied language. Some prospects for further explorations in the development of a direct model of the bilingual personality of a translator in the context of intercultural dialogue and methods of linguistic and cultural formation competencies of translators in the aspect of mastering linguistic and cultural knowledge, skills and abilities in the studied areas of communication.

Keywords: cultural codes, development, indications of interference translation, interference, intercultural communication, linguistic codes

Introduction

In modern linguistics, the problem of detecting interference is especially relevant, due to several reasons. First, the value system of the people, way of life, mentality, national character, traditions, customs - all this, along with the real world around man, the real conditions of his life is reflected in language. Knowledge of the state system, social economic relations, norms and rules of conduct, style and way of life, rituals in various situations of interpersonal and business partnership, customs, traditions of native speakers are the key to the success of intercultural communication and correct translation. Secondly, in the context of modern integration of the individual international and world culture, and in the context of expanding international contacts, internationalization of all spheres of life, the problems of language, culture, communication and translation are urgent. Thus, there is a need to study the identifying of multilevel interference in intercultural communication and translation.

The XXI century is a new stage in the development of modern society. Most of the social-cultural and political-economic changes of recent years are related to the desire of different countries and Ukraine, particularly for an open community and integration into a single European cultural and educational space. To establish contacts between domestic organizations and foreign partners, Ukrainian citizens were forced to reconsider the professional training of translators. When communicating with foreign partners, it is necessary to know not only a foreign language but also the cultural characteristics of their partners, if interlingual communication is conducted in the professional sphere and involves oral or written translation from one language to another. Professionally oriented intercultural communication is a means and a kind of translation in the field of professional communication.

This study aims to answer the following two research questions:

What are the causes and mechanisms of interference?
How does the interference affect intercultural communication and translation?

The study of this issue is one of many currently underway. It is focused on identifying national specifics and interlingual differences in English and Ukrainian speech, establishing patterns of functional changes that accompany this phenomenon, interpreting the causes of interference and revealing the mechanisms of its generation in the sphere of linguistics. Taking into account interference during translation allows us to prevent mistakes and reduce their number, thus facilitating intercultural communication and identifying them.

Avoiding various problems related to interference promotes more effective development of second language competence, reduces the time to master new material, and allows you to develop self-control, and prevent the occurrence of interference more effectively.

Literature Review

Theoretical and methodological basis the articles are intended for research of Ukrainian and foreign theorists and practitioners, in particular, on the phenomenon of interference in the framework of intercultural communication and translation, established by Alimov (2006), Anisimova (2012), Valihura (2008), Bartell (2003), Benson (2002), Rybina (2015).
Interference is a necessary condition for the translation process. Since languages cannot exist in isolation, and the process of intercultural communication and translation is a linguistic contact, the influence of one language on another will inevitably have the consequences of translation. Of course, it is impossible to claim that interlingual interference is always a functional, positive phenomenon. Still, it is also inadmissible to claim that it is still a negative phenomenon, because in that case, we limit ourselves to one-sidedness and limit the possibilities for translation (Korunets, 2003).

Variant equivalents are the most common type of translational equivalents. Most words are ambiguous in the linguistic aspect and therefore require the selection or formation of a lexical-semantic match. The correspondence of the translated text to the original can be said when there is an identity of descriptive situations. It should be borne in mind that the cases of the complete mail of both individual lexical units and sentence parts of different languages in their entirety are relatively limited. The category of correspondence includes, first, the sum of formal components (structural connections), the sum of semantic components (lexical and grammatical meanings), as well as meaningful information (Korunets, 2003).

The study of the phenomenon of interference is based on linguistics, sociolinguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, methods of teaching foreign languages.

In psychology, interference is considered the occurrence of obstacles due to the transfer of skills and abilities from one activity to another. It is due to objective disagreements, the process of conflict interaction of language mechanisms, which is manifested externally in the bilingual language in deviations from the laws of one language under the influence of negative interaction of another or due to internal influences of a similar nature (Rozentsveih, 1975).

In psycholinguistics, interference is considered as an integral part of the process of a slow, gradual penetration of a foreign language element into the system of a particular language in the process of mastering it.

In linguistics, the problem of interference is studied in the framework of language contacts, and this concept is understood as "violation of bilinguals (a person who speaks two languages) norms and rules for the ratio of two contact languages” (Komyssarov, 1973).

In the methodology of teaching foreign languages, interference is seen as a negative result of the unconscious transfer of former linguistic experience, as a break the influence of the native language on the studied foreign language (Myniar-Beloruchev, 1996).

Phonetic interference is understood as a distortion of the sound system of language due to the use of phonetic skills acquired during the study of another language or due to the native language (Brokert, 2012).

The term "transliteration" refers to a means of transmitting borrowed foreign words based on the graphical composition of the original language to the visual system of the translated language. There are several types of transliteration in translation. These are strict transliteration, which
involves the sequential replacement of one name with only one character of another letter; weakened, which consists in the relief of only some characters; extended, the characteristic of which is the representation of the corresponding compounds of signs in a particular way in another writing system. In other words, we are talking about transliteration as about the transfer of the graphic form of the name using the international graphical course of correspondence (Semchynskyi, 1974).

**Methods**

This research was conducted based on observation, analysis, differential, functional and descriptive methods.

Using the method of observation and analysis, the definition of the phenomenon of interference was identified and provided, and to clarify the features of the detection of interference in translation. The differential method made it possible to distinguish grammatical, lexical, phonetic, semantic and syntactic manifestations of interference. The ways and means of influencing the addressee in intercultural communication and translation can be possible with the help of the descriptive method. The functional method was used to understand the place and role of interference in the system of functional styles in general and intercultural communication in particular. This method analyzes the interference in the unity of argumentative, semantic and linguistic elements that realize the intention of the author and aimed at achieving the desired impact on the recipient.

The research tools were word-combinations, sentences, texts of different functional styles from the Internet resource.

**Results**

The research shows that in intercultural communication and translation is provided by:

*sound (phonetic, phonological, and sound-reproductive) interference* - translate

\[\text{[trænzleɪt]}\text{vs.}[\text{trænzleɪt}];

It is especially pronounced in non-native speakers if the primary and secondary languages are not closely related and have significant qualitative and quantitative differences in the system of vowels and consonants (Zelenin, 2010). In some cases, this type of interference can not only distort the pronunciation of the phonetic unit but also change its meaning, which will create difficulties in communication between communicators or make it impossible at all.

Phonetic interference occurs when a native speaker perceives and reproduces the sounds of one language, which can be called secondary, according to the rules and standards of another, which can be called primary (native or the other foreign language). When bilinguals, identifying the phoneme of the secondary system with the phoneme of the primary, reproduce it according to the phonetic rules of the primary language, phonetic interference occurs. This type of interference is most common if the translator does not yet have sufficient translation experience (Zelenin, 2010).

The main means of speech activity are comprehension, the mechanism of speech memory, and the mechanism of prediction. The instrument of understanding plays a crucial role in the translator's activity. He is responsible for the analysis of the semantic side of speech, its structural
organization, and speech design. Comprehension is realized using an internal way of formation and formulation of thought, using inner address. Thus, at the first stage of translation, there is a comprehension of the incoming message, carried out internally using different languages and with various degrees of development. The mechanism of awareness is realized through analytical-synthetic activity with all necessary mental actions, and operations (comparison, classification, analysis and synthesis) (Valihuśa, 2006).

Phonetic interference is manifested in the change of emphasis in some foreign words under the influence of the native language, for example magazine, industry, colleague; as well as in the pronunciation of letters that are not being spoken in English: whistle, sword. Cases of so-called incorrect accentuation of words are also common. This applies to those words where the emphasis is on the first syllable if they are nouns, and on the second syllable if they are verbs: suspect - sus-pect.

Phonetic interference occurs when the distinguishing feature characteristic of the phonetic system of one language is absent in another. As for the main types of phonetic interference, they include incorrect emphasis; omission of sounds that do not exist in the Ukrainian language; pronunciation of sounds, which according to the rules of English phonetics, should be omitted; incorrect reading of letter combinations; other variations in the phonetics of the language, which not only distort the correct sound of the language but also over time add it to the tokens of uncharacteristic sounds, resulting in the formation of words with a negative impact on the purity of language and its identity.

**spelling interference – magazine;**

Spelling interference is manifested mainly through a transliteration. One of the main manifestations of spelling interference in linguistics and translation is transliteration, which, to some extent, it is difficult for the translator, especially if he/she is dealing with proper names.

In modern translation studies, there are several rules for using transliteration in translation from Ukrainian into English. The first rule is that using an approved transliteration system is not mandatory when translating foreign names into Ukrainian. The second rule is that transliteration should be done directly from Ukrainian into English without the use of any additional language. The third rule states that the approved norm is mandatory for translating names, from Ukrainian into English in legislative and official acts. Thus for the transfer of own names apply two principles of transfer. It is the reproduction with the help of letters and the recording of the sound of a word regardless of its spelling in the original language (Semchynskyi, 1974).

The use of transliteration in the translation process, especially if we are talking about proper names, has a particular specificity. Transliteration differs from practical transcription in its way simplicity and the ability to enter additional characters. Transliteration is often used the compilation of bibliographic indexes and in the organization of catalogs. For example, when you want to collect in one place in the catalog description of all works of the domestic author in foreign languages. The transliteration tool is used when languages use different graphic systems (for example, English, Ukrainian, Greek, Armenian, Georgian). Still, the letters (or graphic units) of these languages can be placed in some correspondence with each other, and, according to these correspondences, there is an interlingual transmission of proper names (Semchynskyi, 1974).
What difficulties do a translator face using transliteration? This is, firstly, that the phonological systems of the Ukrainian and English languages do not quite correspond to each other. And, secondly, their graphics and reading rules, which are characteristic of these languages. Another problem faced by the translator is that the main requirement of transliteration is to convey the sound as accurately as possible and preserve the graphic features of words in different languages. Still, it is not always easy to follow this rule (Semchynskyi, 1974).

**grammatical (morphological, syntactic, and punctuation) interference - If it is not excellent for words! - How wonderful!**

Turning to the consideration of manifestations of interference within the minor parts of address, it should be noted that morphological interference is defined as a deviation from the norm observed in speech associated with violation of categorical features of parts of speech, which arises under the influence of the relevant categories of interfering languages (Shchepylova, 2003).

Morphological interference will be manifested in the English translation of such constructions, which include prepositions that differ from the Ukrainian counterparts because they show different amounts of meanings, as well as since that verbs, nouns, and adjectives in both languages have other prepositions and cases using. Therefore, when translating texts, it is necessary to remember the equivalents of prepositions in a foreign language: to succeed in something - to be good at smth.; show something on the map/photo - to show smth. on the map / in the picture; to fight against the enemy - to fight against the enemy; in credit - on credit; on demand - at smb. request (on request); to be guilty of a crime - to be guilty of a crime; to suspect a crime - to suspect smb. of a crime.

There are cases when in English, according to the rules of morphology, a preposition will be used, but in the language, translation is not needed: to answer __ a question; move forward __ a few miles.

Attempts to use similar prepositions where they are grammatically different cause interference: *It makes no difference to me (not for me). This news is vital for us (not to us).*

The Ukrainian language has an interfering influence when choosing the time and method: instead of *Present Perfect and Past Perfect, Past Indefinite* forms are used. Particular difficulties arise when learning the correct use of the definite (*the*) and indefinite (*a, an*) article in English, as such a grammatical category is absent in the Ukrainian language.

Considering translation difficulties caused by syntactic and punctuation features of the language being studied, it should be noted that syntactic interference turns out in replacing the rules of syntactic design of a sentence with a syntactic form characteristic of one of the contact languages (Rozenetsveikh, 1975). Syntactic interference can be subject to almost all members of the sentence, the order of words in the sentence and its structure if in this regard, there is a difference between the first, second, and third foreign languages. When translating from Ukrainian into English, it should be taken into account that in sentences of a foreign language, there is a direct order of words. All members of the penalty can be expressed in different parts of speech and must take their place in the sentence. In English, only the direct word order is used: *We have signed the contract with this company.*
In English, adverbial modifiers usually follow after object in the following order: 1) the adverbial modifier of the image of the action; 2) the adverbial modifier of the place; 3) the adverbial modifier of time (maybe at the end and beginning of the sentence). In the Ukrainian language, there is no clear rule on the location of the adverbial modifier in the sentence: *He met her by chance at the exhibition yesterday.*

Often when translating subordinate clauses are subject to interference: *Do you remember what the judge said?* It is incredibly challenging to translate sentences in a conditionally way: *If we signed the contract, we should be able to get the equipment.*

Considering the punctuation differences, it should be noted that punctuation is used quite differently in native and foreign languages in the following examples: *date: July 8, 2010; The Sellers guarantee that the delivered goods are in all respects following the description, technical conditions, and specifications of the order.*

It is also worth noting that the comma in English is used to separate the thousandths from the hundredths except the Ukrainian language: *1,500.*

**Linguistic interference - stamp:**

Linguistic interference is the interference of the vocabulary of one language system in another, which usually leads to literalisms. Scholars define lexical interference as a two-way convergence of linguistic units of one or different languages due to their semantic use and as leads to involuntary violation of language norms. Linguistic interference is most often found when translating from the native language to foreign, in the ability to find the adequate means of transmitting information from the native language to the language of translation.

Linguistic interference is also manifested in the erroneous identification of similar forms (homonyms of one language, assigned to different tokens of another language), the similarity of the whole semantic structure of speakers, partially coinciding in individual meanings. Linguistic compatibility is not only subject to the norms of language, but also nationally specific, which is explained by its belonging to the linguistic picture of the world of a particular society.

Interference can be most clearly detected at the lexical level because linguistic interference can be recognized by the similarity or discrepancy of tokens in the compared languages. Under linguistic interference, more often all fall into language units that are divergent in different languages. In itself, the interference in terms of contact of closely related language units has a specific character, which is manifested in the existence of linguistic facts in which it manifests itself on several levels simultaneously (Alimov, 2006).

**semantic interference - to take the chair (but not a busy chair)**

The semantic interference of the translator is manifested in the words or expressions without taking into account the linguistic and cultural context, incorrect use of the word or phrase in context; inaccurate selection of synonyms; use in translation of the homonym of the English equivalent of the Ukrainian word; redundancy or insufficiency of translation, as a result of an
attempt to do a literal translation, without taking into account the linguistic and cultural specifics of the English-speaking reader.

Semantic features of words and expressions that are incorrectly used in English translations of the research topic, it is necessary to note the heterogeneity of the vocabulary in terms of issues, from words and expressions from the field of culture and religion, architecture and ending with a common language, which includes all the main parts of speech and is not limited to any subject. Note that most of the identified examples reflect the translation of known and widespread in the Ukrainian language of words and expressions, and therefore demonstrate the interference of the Ukrainian language.

Regarding the semantic features of words and expressions incorrectly used in English translations of a specific topic, it is necessary to note the heterogeneity of the vocabulary in terms of issues, from words and expressions from the field of culture and religion, architecture and ending with a common language, which includes all the main parts of speech and is not limited to any one topic: The ruins of the gothic temple of the middle of the XVII century. The Gothic Temple is the proper name of a historic building in England, near Buckingham. The word temple in the Ukrainian language is used, as a rule, in the phrase temple of God, and denotes any Christian church.

In 34 halls of the Volyn Museum of Regional Studies, founded in 1929, displayed are over 7 thousand exhibits, with over 100 thousand museum units being in primary fund. The expression museum units are also not entirely clear - obviously, it is about exhibited. Therefore, we propose to replace it with the word artifact.

The Soviet authorities used the church as storage for the May 1 transparencies. Obviously, in the text of the Ukrainian original, we have banners, i.e., means of agitation with a slogan or image on fabric or paper. In English, the word transparency is associated with openness or projector if it is an image on a transparent fabric or other material. Of course, this has nothing to do with propaganda, so we consider it illegal to use such a word in context. Instead, we suggest the English word placard, which is commonly used in this type of context.

Interference is often caused by attempts to convey the Ukrainian text, without analyzing the source material regarding the specifics of the use of a word in English, which includes both semantic parts of the word, and features of its compatibility or use in specific contexts (Dobzhanska-Nait, 2009).

Discussion

In connection with the sharpening of linguists' interest in the phenomenon of interference, which generates not only interlinguistic (phonetic, lexical-grammatical, syntactic) but also discursive, sociocultural barriers to intercultural communication and translation, we consider interference in a broad sense as a conflict-interaction mechanism, which is manifested in the secondary linguistic personality in deviations from the linguistic, discursive, sociocultural norms of one linguistic culture under the influence of another.
Difficulties arising in intercultural communication and translation occur in part due to distortions of the phonetic or lexical side of foreign speech. However, vocabulary is one of the most critical forms of reflecting the ethnocultural specifics of the worldview. Often discursive and sociocultural phenomena cause misunderstandings, obstacles, and disturbances in intercultural communication and translation.

In the conditions of intercultural communication as a dialogue of cultures, the opposition of one's own to another's is traced when the interlocutors appear as representatives of different cultures. In this case, the participants in the dialogue understand each other from the standpoint of their own cultures, which differ significantly from each other.

Investigating language interference in intercultural communication and translation, Alimov (2006) describes interference as follows: when translating, the translator deals first with the process of perception of speech in the source language. This perception at the stage of identification is carried out as a process of comparing the perceived items with the perceptual standards of similar items, which can store in the memory of translator.

This comparison is based on the criteria of words in both the source language and the language in which the translation is performed: in the absence or insufficient formation of measures in one language, the translator with varying degrees of awareness uses perceptual means from another language. It is this replacement of the perceptual means of one language by the perceptual standards of another language that is the cause of the interference.

**What are the causes and mechanisms of interference?**

In our opinion, there are several factors that cause interference:
1. National identity of peoples and their cultures.
2. Cultural differences of communicators as a consequence of their belonging to different national cultures.
3. Incomplete generality of language consciousness of communicants, which leads to the perception of another culture as a "deviation from the norm". At the same time, images of their own culture are considered the norm, and another culture is perceived by bringing other people's ideas of consciousness to the images of their own culture.
4. Interaction of different cultures, as a result of which various culturological phenomena arise.

However, in different cases, there are other forms of intercultural communication, directly opposite to dialogue, so to speak, anti-dialogue, in the way of conflict, cultural competition, the emergence of stereotypes of behavior opposed to culture, so to speak, "cultural alienation" or otherness Rybina (2015).

The latter appears in intercultural communication when the interlocutors, being representatives of different languages, cultures, oppose their own to another's. At the same time, communication partners are aware of their differences, and there is a mutual feeling of "foreignness" of the partner. The interlocutor, creating a message in his native language, unconsciously focuses on his system of cultural values. Another interlocutor, perceiving the message, relies on their culture.
In intercultural communication and translation, interlocutors of different linguistic cultures decode messages differently. In this case, of course, does not perform the communicative function of language (transmission of the meaning), for the implementation of which in the process of communication between representatives of different cultures, participants need to know and take into account both the structure of values of the bearers of these cultures and the system of values that is reflected in one language.

To solve this problem, it is necessary, on the one hand, to understand one's own cultural identity, and on the other hand, to describe the vocabulary of a particular language.

In terms of intercultural communication and translation, prevention of interference is provided, in our opinion, the formation of skills to respond adequately verbally and nonverbally to the communication situation, which involves the formation of linguistic and cultural competence of translators in terms of acquiring knowledge, skills, and abilities in the studied areas of communication.

Successful prediction of interference is possible provided that the dialogue of cultures is presented in the form of a functioning model intercultural interaction, which provides a way of mutual communication of people, representatives of different national cultures, in the framework of cognitive and communicative activities, to ensure adequate mutual understanding in the framework of intercultural communication and translation.

We see such a model of intercultural dialogue in the generalized option as a structural entity that includes mental and communicative parts. We consider the mental part as the sum of knowledge and factors about ethnic (material and spiritual), artistic and ideological culture, presented in the comparison. Ethnocultural information helps to get a systematic and complete picture of the real view of the world of different cultures, which mediates all the acts human worldview and worldview, allowing to comprehend local situations and events taking place in the world. The communicative aspect, in our opinion, is related to the social-cultural content. It includes elements of social-normative culture (rules of speech and non-speech behavior of representatives of different cultures in comparison).

The indirect link between these two aspects is language as a specific intermediate component. Thus, it allows to designate the language as a "force" that forms a person's perception of the world around him, determines his "worldview," his inner form affects the culture of people.

Intercultural interaction makes it possible to present a picture of the world of carriers of different cultures both globally and nationally, provided that linguistic and cultural, and conceptual-cognitive analysis is carried out by identifying exactly those parameters which distinguish the linguistic image of a particular ethnic group from the "picture of the world of another language. Carrying out the function of cognitive consciousness, different even in native speakers, such modeling of the situation is determined not by language systems, but by the life experience of the individual, the structures of internalized activities, and forms of behavior.
How does the interference affect intercultural communication and translation?

The reasons for the impact of interference on intercultural communication and translation are diverse, consider some of them. The effect of interference is that dynamic stereotypes of grammatical forms and constructions formed in the native language, especially those that differ from those in a foreign language, become backward, challenging to change so that when mastering a second language, they provide significant resistance and re-formed foreign language stereotypes (Sorokyna, 1971).

Zhluktenko (1974) describes interference like “identification of words, morphemes and grammatical models of both languages”. When translating, we can identify the following typology:

1. Change of grammatical ties in one language by analogy with those relations that exist in another:
   a) transfer of grammatical relations from language A to language B or vice versa;
   b) the elimination of grammatical relations that exist in one language due to their absence in another.

2. Change of grammatical function of a word or morpheme of one language on the model of another;

3. Expansion or contraction of the use of grammatical form, model, or unit of a given language under the influence of usability are identified phenomena of another language (Zhluktenko, 1974).

Vainraikh (1979) notes that the speaker usually identifies morphemes based on their formal similarity or similarity of their previous functions. Sometimes the suffix can be transferred from one language to another to replace a zero morpheme or a morpheme consisting of a small number of phonemes (Bokovnia, 1995). However, at the level of morphemes, interference is relatively rare. Much more often, it is manifested at the level of parts of speech.

Interference at the level of parts of speech is based on categorical differences and other features of parts of speech of different languages. Kornieva (2017) determines that these differences are found when comparing any part of speech, for example differences in the gender of nouns, verb forms, the presence or absence of articles. To overcome interference, it is necessary to identify similarities and differences and establish interlingual equivalents for their successful mastering.

Shishkina (1996) identifies the following reasons for the influence of interference errors in the field of grammatical categories:

1. insufficient penetration of the communicant in the context of the transmitted information;
2. misidentification of grammatical categories that exist in both languages;
3. formal use of direct grammatical correspondences in translation.

The main reason for errors at the level of official words in translation is the presence of synonymous means of expression of the same meaning within a given language. Among the most common errors caused by interference at the level of parts of speech are errors that occur when using categorical forms of the number and case of nouns, adverbial and adjective forms of adjectives; categorical forms of time, type, temporal relation, method, temporal and verb representation (Shishkina, 1996).
Conclusion

The study showed several shortcomings in terms of word order in some currently existing English translation publications, with numerous manifestations of multilevel interference of the native language. Preventing interference in intercultural communication and translation will improve English-language texts that create Ukraine's image in the world. Translation into a foreign language requires a high level of professional training with an understanding of the peculiarities of use and combination of words.

Prevention of multilevel interference in the conditions of intercultural communication is aimed at the formation of the image carrier world of one linguistic and cultural community of skills to understand the bearer of another linguistic image of the world, which means mastering the bilingual sum of knowledge about the picture of the world. In the context of intercultural dialogue, bilinguals become an active participant in intercultural communication, who speaks, along with the native and foreign language, as a means of everyday communication, which involves access to the cognitive (thesaurus) level of language personality.

The use of the linguistic picture of the world and the thesaurus of personality as a way of organizing knowledge allows arguing that understand any phrase or the text means by passing it through your thesaurus, correlate with their experience and find a place for it in the picture of the world according to its content. Just for such an understanding in the proposed model of dialogue of cultures, we pay special attention to the description of not only other linguistic phenomena, but also different conceptual systems in the context of ethnic, artistic, socio-normative, ideological cultures, which contributes in further prevention and overcoming of multilevel interference in intercultural communication and translation.

The result is the formation of a linguistic character, in particular, the bilingual personality of the translator in a dialogue of cultures, with the ability and skills to use the language in all its manifestations in different situations of intercultural communication; skills understand and assimilate someone else's way of life/behavior to break ingrained stereotypes; skills to expand the "individual picture of the world" by involving in the "language picture of the world" speakers of the studied language.

Some prospects for further explorations in the development of a direct model of the bilingual personality of a translator in the context of intercultural dialogue and methods of linguistic and cultural formation are competencies of translators in the aspect of mastering linguistic and cultural knowledge, skills and abilities in the studied areas of communication.

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References


Bilateral Interpretation and Its Teaching Methods to Foreign Students

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Abstract:
Teaching a foreign language is a challenge. In such a case, teaching translation is more than a challenge, primarily if students are taught the bilateral interpretation (Russian and English language combinations), and each of the mentioned above languages is a foreign one for them (our students are from China, Turkey, Japan, Algeria, Egypt, South Korea, and other countries). What are the invariant unbiased difficulties for foreigners determined by the grammatical system of the language combination? Should teachers consider phonetics and peculiar phonetic properties, or is it just enough to familiarize students with them? What are the optimal teaching methods and exercises? What is more important in translation, equivalence, or accuracy? Are the methods of consecutive interpretation’s teaching applicable in bilateral interpretation teaching? To answer these problematic questions, we dedicated our article to the specific features of teaching international students. The study is based on our practical experience of teaching international students. We also present our most productive teaching methods, exercises, and the use of available digital technologies of the 21st century.

Keywords: bilateral interpretation, equivalence, exercises, grammatical system, phonetic peculiar properties, teaching methods, accuracy

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1.0 Introduction

The Faculty of the Slavic Linguistics of Kyiv National Linguistic University provides a high-quality training in interpretation/translation and foreign languages teaching for foreign students. In terms of globalization teaching/learning foreign language and competent interpreters/translators’ training is becoming more urgent. It is clear that nowadays, the translation/interpretation courses are compulsory curriculum subjects of the major-English educational establishments. And, of course, English is the main one in the language combination in the majority of cases. The translation is understood as rendering the meaning of a text in a source language (SL) into a complete version of the target language (TL) without causing any loss to the original message. There is a widespread false perspective among ordinary people that any bilingual person can perform translation/interpretation.

2.0 Literature review

The precise nature of bilateral interpretation sets the scope of competencies needed for a qualitative and successful interpretation. The analysis of the related literature sources (Aarup (1993), Bühler (1986), Kalina (1992), Kalina, (1994), Kurz (1989), Kurz (1992), Gureeva (2018), Bogush (2019), Korniyaka (2018), Scott (2016), Popova (2017), Arakin (2005) has given us an opportunity to define the most critical challenges for international students. Pham, (2016), is right to say that interpretation is difficult for both students and lecturers. As for students, they face problem with vocabulary, grammar, cultural background and in some cases, context. As regards lecturers, they face difficulty with the teaching methods, as the theory of translation provides important but basic knowledge of interpretation/translation techniques. Still it does not provide them with strategies for teaching it. Some scholars state that teaching interpretation is an integral part of translation teaching, which, to some extent, may coincide with the foreign language teaching, at least in the final objective, that is, to teach students render their thoughts in a foreign language. To be more precise, foreign language teaching and interpretation/translation teaching differ in teaching objectives, as well as in methodology and principles terms. It seems quite logical to define the following difficulties of the bilateral interpretation teaching in general: invariant unbiased problems (grammatical system of the Source and Target Languages, peculiar phonetic properties, equivalence) and variant ones (interpreter’s psychological and physical state, context, operation environment, etc.). In the given article, we focus on the invariant unbiased difficulties and the ways of overcoming them.

3.0 Invariant unbiased problems

Our students deal with the Russian/English language combination. Considering the fact that both languages belong to different grammatical systems, it is necessary to increase the students’ awareness of these differences. The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones; in other words – the units of language into the units of speech, that is, inflections, affixation, word order, function words, and phonological means.

3.1 Grammatical systems of the Russian-English language combination

Indo-European languages are divided into two structural types – synthetic and analytic. If to speak of synthetic languages, most of the grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflections (languages like Latin, Russian, Ukrainian, etc.).
As to analytical languages, most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words and analytical forms of the verbs. It is essential to mention that as for English and Russian, one cannot speak of them as purely synthetic or analytic. Nevertheless, the system of cases in both languages is quite different (six Russian cases VS three English cases (subjective, objective, and possessive (to be more precise, nominative, accusative, and genitive). Also, the category of gender constitutes a problem, as there are three genders in Russian (masculine, feminine, and neutral), while, in English, we use either personal pronouns to refer to the noun’s gender or use suffixes or other words (like, for instance, tiger–tigress, Mr, Ms/Mrs, policeman/policewoman (although, there is a tendency to avoid sexisms in English nowadays, thus, we use police officer, chairperson).

What is more, as for Russian, the noun agrees with the verb in number, case, and gender, which may contribute to the complexity of bilateral interpretation. The word order in English is the fixed one; that is, the sentence usually starts with the subject + predicate (except for inversion), while in the case of Russian, it is the free one. That is why it is sometimes difficult for our students to define the subject and the predicate in the Russian sentence to follow the English word order pattern.

As for our students, they have several Russian special theoretical courses within the first, second, and third years of study, such as Theoretical Grammar of Russian, Theoretical Phonetics of Russian, Theory of Translation, which increase their awareness of the grammatical system of Russian.

Unfortunately, our international students do not have any theoretical courses in English, which causes definite difficulties for the bilateral interpretation, and the lecturers have to rely on the students’ English competences’ background at first.

3.2 Peculiar phonetic properties

As for the peculiar phonetic properties of both languages, they are also quite different. It is known that English vowels are characterized, among other characteristics, by length, which may differ the meaning of the words (like, for instance, this/these, will/wheel). Word stress in English can also differentiate the part of speech (for example, import/import, present/present). Such phonetic processes as elision, assimilation, and reduction can also cause difficulties in bilateral interpretation. As for elision, the final consonants /t/ and /d/ disappear being followed by consonants of the same voicing other than /l/; as, for example, in the word combination iced tea. The situation becomes more complicated because of the alveolar stop regressive place assimilation of consonants in case /t d n/ are followed by /p b m / or alveolar fricative regressive place assimilation/s z/ followed by /sZsp/ (Lecumberri, Maidment (2000). It is difficult for international students to restore and interpret such combinations as, for instance, it couldn’t be so which may be pronounced as /IkYβμβl σZY/ or cold cream which may be presented in two variants: /kYλκριμ/ or /kYλγκριμ/ as the result of elision or assimilation. The advantage of professional foreign language teaching for the future teachers/lecturers training is that these aspects are taken into account, and students are aware of them. It would be wonderful if future interpreters were also informed of these specific phonetic processes, but in our case, they are not.
Also, it is essential to remember that foreign students tend to use their mother tongue articulatory basis while speaking Russian/English.

For example, there is no sound /Δ/ in Turkish, that is why the sequences the book and to book sound the same, that is /τε βYκ/ . Of course, one may argue that it is the context which can differentiate the sequence, and it is true, but such phonetic difficulties may contribute to the interpreter’s psychological state.

There is a belief that accent is not a problem unless the pronunciation mistakes lead to cases of misunderstanding, which, in terms of interpreters, is of great importance.

3.3 Equivalence

Equivalence can also cause difficulties for students. It has always been in the scope of the theory of translation’s interest. Scholars are still discussing the nature of equivalence, pointing out its different aspects. Jakobson (1959) states that there are three kinds of translation, that is, “intralingual translation or rewording is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language; interlingual translation or translation proper is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language; intersemiotic translation or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of nonverbal sign systems” (p. 233). At the same time, he noted that sometimes there is no equivalence between words in the case of the interlingual translation. Nida (1964, 1969) introduces the idea of formal and dynamic equivalence. If to speak of the formal one, formal correspondence “focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content”, whereas the dynamic one is based upon “the principle of equivalent effect” (p. 159).

Translators and interpreters will not argue that in the case of official and technical texts’ translation translators deal with this type of equivalence mainly due to the existing clichés and conventional documents structure. On the other hand, in the case of bilateral interpretation, interpreters mostly deal with the dynamic equivalence, which means that the Source Language message is to be rendered by means of the Target language as naturally as possible. That is why it seems logical that students are to be taught to choose the most appropriate Target Language means to provide a competent interpretation. Baker (1992) is right in pointing out that equivalence in translation/interpretation is a relative notion as it is influenced by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors. That is why she offered grammatical, textual, and pragmatic levels of equivalence. Grammatical equivalence refers to the grammatical categories of the Source and Target Languages. As the result of this type of equivalence, the interpreter may apply a broad scope of translation transformations (omission, addition, transposition, and change of grammatical forms) due to the lack of the corresponding grammatical categories in both Source and Target languages (mainly, number, voice, person, gender, tense and aspect). Textual equivalence is essential for the text’s comprehension and may be achieved by the translator/interpreter due to cohesion. But it largely depends on the following factors: target audience, the purpose of translation/interpretation, and the text type. That is why, it is necessary to teach students to “feel” the text. Finally, in the case of pragmatic equivalence, the interpreter deals with the source text author’s intention, that is, with implicature (something which is meant but is not expressed verbally) contained in the text. Komissarov (1990), the representative of the Soviet School of translation, states that the source and target texts can be identical pragmatically, semantically, and structurally, which is close to the idea of Baker.
He came up with the idea of five types of equivalence: pragmatic (preservation of the informative, expressive, conative, phatic, metalingual, and poetic functions of the source text), situational (“identification of the situation”), lexical/semantic, grammatical and structural levels. At the same time, it is the pragmatic level of equivalence, which is the target for a translator/interpreter. It should be noted that Pym (2010) states that the perfect equivalence between the Source and the Target Languages is not possible; that is why the idea of assumed equivalence was put forward. Anyway, such an overview of different points of view on equivalence emphasizes the main aim of translation/interpretation, that is, to make the translated/interpreted text sound as natural in a Target Language as possible.

4.0 Teaching methods

All these invariant unbiased difficulties of translation shape the competences necessary for the competent translation/interpretation. The required competencies can be divided into linguistic (appropriate knowledge of the language combination, understanding of subject areas and corresponding terminology), extra-linguistic (cultural and social background and interpersonal skills), and genuine interpreting ones (active listening skills, good memory retention skills, notes taking skills, ability to convey the structures of the original by means of the corresponding means of the Target Language, and text processing skills).

A higher educational establishment can provide linguistic and interpreting competencies, which are the aim of bilateral interpreting teaching. In the case of our university, we deal with foreign students whose language combination is represented by two foreign languages. It constitutes definite difficulties in teaching as the misbalance in linguistic competence disables interpreting itself.

Nevertheless, there are specific methods and exercises to master the mentioned above competencies. No one doubts that short-term memory is of great importance for interpreters, and bilateral ones. Considering the stages of interpreting, that is, listening, utterance’s processing, and searching for equivalent structures in the Target Language, and performing proper interpretation, the role of short-term memory cannot be overestimated. It facilitates the processing operations in the following cases: the speaker’s accent may be hard to understand, the speech may not be clear, or the information presented may be dense. In cases when the Source and the Target Languages are syntactically different (as in our Russian/English language combination). Considering the fact that bilateral and consecutive types of interpretation are close, it is possible to use in the bilateral interpretation the majority of exercises designed for the consecutive interpretation teaching. We use exercises to develop listening comprehension, short-term memory, notes’ taking and text processing skills. First of all, we apply the set of exercises for the short-memory training like these: a) shadowing. It involves repeating what the speaker (the lecturer or other student) says, word for word, in the same language.

It is close to the interpreter’s environment as the interpreter is always a word or two behind the speaker as one repeats what has just been said. It is perfect for memory development since it forces the interpreter to store and recall small groups of sounds, words, and chunks of information in a relatively short period of time; b) shadowing with a twist. It also involves repeating the exact words of the speaker, but with a pause, the length of which equals approximate duration for
interpretation, and the students rely on their memory only; c) attentive listening for key elements. This exercise has a lot of advantages, and different precision information elements may be used according to the practical aim.

Usually, we present a text (up to 10 sentences) and then ask students either to answers the questions (as in the case of the listening comprehension training in foreign languages teaching) or retell the text paying attention to the precision information. Moreover, the quality of the text’s restoration can be checked by the students of the group that teaches them to be careful. It is odd to say that a lecturer can use various combinations of such exercises to train the students’ short memory.

We mainly use role-playing at definite stages of training. It has the following advantages: our trainees are psychologically ready for speech communication through the language combination, they have to use active vocabulary and grammar structures, it teaches students to use the appropriate speech variant that increases their awareness of situational spontaneous speech, and the task set is close to the real conditions of the interpreters’ activity. As our students have their English course, we try including the active thematic vocabulary into the bilateral interpretation training. The typical interpretation class starts with several exercises aimed at memory training. A lecturer is free to choose from a great variety of exercises existing. These may be putting down numbers read in English/Russian with their symbolic representation (depending on the lecturer’s aim, students may put the numbers down in digits or words). It is recommended to use numbers at the initial stages of training. When this skill is quite formed, we add other precision information (months, days of the week, and names of cities, countries, or people). It is advisable to alternate Russian and English lexical units improving the trainees’ ability to switch the language combination. According to our observations, depending on the students’ motivation, some can put down the text of approximately ten sentences’ lengths presented in the mix of language combinations and interpret it based on their notes.

This exercise provides the lecturer with the possibility of the role-playing application when the group is divided into three teams: interpreters, listeners, and experts. Listeners leave the classroom for several minutes while the text containing the precision information is being presented. Then they are invited to come back, and interpreters perform interpretation, while the experts assess the quality and the accuracy of interpretation. Moreover, it is possible to ask the listeners to interpret the text back into Russian/English, after which the group and the lecturer analyze the interpreters’ performance. It seems that such an exercise is beneficial both for students and lecturers, as lecturers can notice difficulties and adjust their teaching strategy while students are in semi-natural working conditions. We also use the scope of other exercises, such as “odd-one-out”, adding a word to the sentence to make a meaningful utterance. “Odd-one-out” is a very productive exercise as it trains the short memory, on the one hand, and activates students’ active vocabulary, on the other one. One can give the set of thematically related words (like, for instance, a table, a chair, a bookcase, a desk, a microwave presented in Russian/English, and ask students to point out the odd word (in our case, it is the word microwave, as other words may be related to the study) providing explanations for their choice. Adding missing words to make a meaningful utterance is also a beneficial exercise. We usually use the keys at the initial stages of our interpreters’ training. One can give his/her students a short text with gaps in it. The students are to
fill in the gaps using the keys, for example, Your Excellences, Heads of State and Government, Vice-Presidents, Ministers for Foreign Affairs and other .... It is a great honour for me to address you at the opening of .... The international situation now is far.... The trainees use the keys, for example, representatives of the 192 States Members of our Organization, the general debate of this sixty-third session of the General Assembly; from satisfactory. It is important that students do not see the text that is read by the lecturer in one of the languages with a slight pause before the gap (approximately up to 2-3 seconds) within which students are to fill in a gap. Surely, the use of keys is decreasing with the students’ skill formation. It is also worth mentioning that a lecturer can ask the student to interpret the text. At the same time, it is not difficult to develop several such texts of different thematic belonging to practice active vocabulary, acquire fluency in interpretation, and form the skill of anticipation. We also use the exercise where our students have to repeat the exact previous sentences and continue the story: 1. The wheel was first used in the region of 3500 BC. 2. Potters in Mesopotamia or in Central or Eastern Europe first used the wheel in the region of 3500 BC. 3. Most scholars believe that potters in Mesopotamia or in Central or Eastern Europe first used the wheel in the region of 3500 BC. 4. Most scientists believe that potters in Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) or in Central or Eastern Europe first used the wheel (or circle) in the region of 3500 BC. 5. Most scientists believe that potters in Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) or in Central or Eastern Europe first used the wheel (or circle) in the region of 3500 BC. , however, the first dated document on the use of wheels for transportation refers only to 3200 BC (Dmitrieva (2008). The added elements are given in bold, and the students’ task is to repeat the previous sentence (as in classical snowball widely used in foreign language teaching), adding new elements offered by the lecturer. As we have already mentioned, we use role-play as well. It is usually performed when the group has covered the definite lexical topic in the Practical English/Russian Course and has practiced all the necessary conversational formulas. The role-play scenario is as close to the real one as possible. As an example, let us consider the conference interpretation scenario. The lecturer is usually the “chairperson”. The trainees are “speakers”, “audience”, “interpreters” and “experts”. The “chairperson” gives the floor to the “speakers” who deliver their speeches (they may be developed in advance or be based on the previous background knowledge), while “interpreters” interpret from English into Russian or from Russian into English. Our “experts” perform the most crucial role as they assess the accuracy of interpretation, note loss of precision information, and offer their variants after the end of the “conference”. It is important to let all the students try themselves in all these parts in turn.

One more often productive exercise we use is the “echo interpretation”. It means that one student utters a sentence in one of the languages (Russian/English), the other student interprets it into Target language, and the third student interprets it back into the Source language, and so on. The productivity of this exercise is provided by the fact that students use their variants and equivalents, preserving the meaning of the original sentence, on the one hand, and by a rather fast tempo of interpretation.

We also use the video clips and recordings’ interpretation. Nowadays it is not a problem to get video clips from YouTube, the Internet or special foreign language teaching complexes, SpeakOut, for instance. However, we prefer official speeches that are in a free access, for instance, from Speech Repository. Moreover, these speeches can be used for consecutive and bilateral interpretation as a part of the role-play.
5.0 Discussion

It seems reasonable to aim to discuss the problem of bilateral interpretation’s teaching of international students in two main directions. Namely, in terms of the most critical skills our students should acquire and the most effective methods the lecturers/teachers should apply in the process of the desired skills development.

As for the skills desired, the latter are the following ones: the capacity for a quick switch between the language combination’s constituents, students’ sustainability (the concept of continuous self-education after graduation), fundamental psychological strength, the capability to define the crucial elements of the message and apply the means available for its competent interpretation, as well as the students’ general cultural competence’s improvement.

It is clear, that the capability for a quick switch between the languages is possible as the result of continuous training only, which is why the lecturers/teachers should always remember this.

As for the students’ sustainability, students should realize the fact that their specialty requires continuous training and improvement, that they should always follow new dictionaries and be in trend with the latest technological developments.

If to speak of the fundamental psychological strength, the future interpreters’ training should be as close to the real conditions of any kind of interpretation as possible. The most challenging problem is to teach our students to define the crucial components of the incoming message and convey it in a competent way. It should be kept in mind that not only the precision data (names, numbers, etc.) may be of crucial importance, but the speakers’ intentions as well, that is why students should understand the context and consider the communicative situation.

As for the general cultural competence, students should know culturally biased notions of the countries (in our case, all the Russian and English speaking ones), know the latest political and economic trends as well.

The challenging and ambiguous thing is the choice of the most effective teaching methods. It is true to say that there are no universal ways to teach our students, as they are all different (in our case, they are the representatives of different cultural and language backgrounds). That is why the only way to define the most effective methods is to monitor their progress and apply other methods and techniques to achieve the desired aim.

6.0 Conclusion

Teaching bilateral interpretation is a challenge for both lecturers and students. The situation is even more difficult as we teach foreigners who have two foreign languages in their language combination. It becomes clear that teaching and practicing interpretation in general, and bilateral one, in particular, is impossible without the linguistic, extra-linguistic and genuine interpreting competencies formed. Educational establishments involved in the interpreters’ training can provide linguistic and real interpreting competencies.
It is necessary to keep in mind that invariant biased difficulties of bilateral interpretation require the lecturers’ awareness and readiness to help their trainees. The exercises we mention in the given paper are not a must, and lecturers are free to choose any activities to develop their students’ interpretation skills. Coming back to activities, we have just mentioned the most frequently used in our practice. What is essential, it is necessary to train bilateral interpreters on different accents of English and increase their awareness of phonetic specific features. It is also necessary to enlarge students’ background knowledge through country studies.

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Metaphors with Implicit Negation in Modern English and Ukrainian:
Cognitive and Linguodidactic Aspects

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Abstract
This article focuses on the cross-linguistic cognitive study of English and Ukrainian metaphors with implicit negation. The paper aims to prove that some metaphors imply the meaning of negation in the dialogues and monologues and to identify the common and divergent parameters of the cognitive-figurative realization of negation in English and Ukrainian. The investigation is grounded on the methods of comparative analysis, conceptual analysis, contextual analysis, and analysis of the dictionary definitions. The study of communicative-pragmatic features of the use of metaphors reveals that they perform the objecting function in the media. Still, they differ from specialized grammatical means of negation in the emotional and associative background, dependence on the context, and vast opportunities of the interpretation. The obtained results indicate that in both languages, metaphors with the implicit negation are connected to the verbalization of the same nine basic concepts: UNTRUTH, INVALIDITY, FAILURE, INEFFICACIOUSACY, RELUCTANCE, UNCERTAINTY, USELESSNESS, INACTION, ABSENCE OF PROSPECT. The study found that often such metaphors are the result of transferring close or similar domains. The authors conclude that English and Ukrainian, despite the fundamental differences in the grammatical realization of the negation, are very similar in the ways of formation the metaphors with the negative meaning. The paper gives some methodological recommendations for a more effective study of the metaphors with implicit negation in the higher educational institutions.

Keywords: concept, implicit negation, idiom, metaphor, the English language, the Ukrainian language

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Introduction
The functional multilateralism of the negation, the active usage of it in the mental, psychological, and speech spheres of human life determines the necessity of complex and diverse investigation of this act of speech. This paper investigates the metaphors as a means of indirect negation, making possible ambiguous but a more colorful expression of the nonhomogeneous negative meaning to have a more substantial influence on the receiver. The study of metaphors with a specific negative function is essential for deepening ideas about the multifaceted nature of the category of negation and the constant expansion of the range of means of its expression.

One of the objectives of this research is to analyze the cognitive structure of metaphors with a negative meaning to understand the mental basis for the figurative expression of the negation. Due to this task, the following section of the paper identifies the domain and target concepts related to denial in English and Ukrainian. This survey aims to identify the common and divergent parameters of the cognitive-figurative realization of negation in the modern English and Ukrainian languages. The grammatical expression of negation in these languages is fundamentally different. It seems interesting to find out how they differ in the metaphorical expression of the negative meanings.

Comparative study of metaphors with a negative meaning on the material of two unrelated languages is essential for linguodidactics, as speakers often have difficulty mastering the symbolic means of other languages. The paper gives some methodological recommendations for the more effective study of the metaphors because it is essential to improve the communicative skills of students to accurately select the means of expression, taking care of the emotionality and eloquence of speech in different communicative situations.

Literature review
Contemporary linguistics tends to identify the negation as a central concept of human communication or a universal category of human language. (Swart, 2010; Penka, 2015). Negation is a fundamental operation of human cognitive and communicative activity because it is with the use of negation that speakers refute false assumptions, correct their communicative interaction, differentiate objects, express their attitude or assessment.

Most often, the scholars focus on learning grammatical means of negation in the sentence structure. (Ladusaw, 1992; Ruzlcka, 1999; Haegeman, 1995; Horn, 2001; Swart, 2010; Penka, 2015). These means are supposed to be the leading representatives of negation due to their universality of usage and homogeneity of the negative meaning. Grammatical negators are compact, convenient, stylistically neutral, relevant in various communicative situations: in formal speech and informal communication.

Awareness of the fact that “the absolute symmetry definable between affirmative and negative propositions in logic is not reflected by a comparable symmetry in language structure and language use” (Horn, 2001, p. XIII) provokes the linguists to find the nongrammatical and nonverbal means of negation. It is proved that the assertive expressions of a particular structure can fulfill the negative function conventionally. (Horn, 2001; Ding, 2011; Mnatsyan, 2017). Sentences can be semantically negative due to the presence of some lexical components (adverbials, quantifiers, particles, conjunctions, etc.) or due to particular word order and even intonation. Negation, which is transmitted without the special negators, is called implicit. (Ding, 2011;
Muslah, 2014; Mnatsyan, 2017; Xiang, Grove & Giannakidou, 2014). The means of implicit negation include lexemes that contain the semantic component of repeal, idioms, and sentences constructed in a certain way.

Scholars are unanimous that the implicit negation is more difficult to percept; it depends on the situation and is pragmatically predetermined and nonhomogeneous. The participants of the communication should have shared knowledge and sufficient communicative skills to identify it. Despite their non-universality, nongrammatical means of negation in the touch deserve the captious study because of an essential role of indirect communication in the people’s life. A metaphor that has not yet been described as a means of negation deserves a particular study, as it may well express a negative meaning.

On the contrary to the well-known term negative metaphor, which means “both established metaphor that has artificially been made negative (Her mind wasn’t wandering), …, and novel metaphor, created in a negative context” (Sheehan, 2005, p. 4) or means the metaphor associated with an unpleasant or undesired emotional state (Sakamoto, & Utsumi, 2014), we use the term metaphors with implicit negation, as the negation is only indicated semantically.

The metaphor analysis is based on the theory of conceptual metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), according to which metaphors do not only denote something but also, in some cases, interpret the suggested in a definite way. The language metaphors with implicit negation are interesting not only as expressive means but also as the accumulation of the negative meaning. The determination of the source and target domains of such metaphors allow comparing the logic of the mental and symbolic representation of the negation in the modern English and Ukrainian languages.

It is worth mentioning the researchers’ attempt (Oversteegen, & Schilperoord, 2014) to identify images that imply negation. The authors argue that specific embodiments may convey negative content. Metaphor, as well as images, embodies the negative meaning that the receiver must feel, capture. Both photos and metaphors are constructed so that it is not difficult to capture the negative sense, but even exciting and fascinating.

On the one hand, the scientists determine that “the images different cultures create can be extremely diverse” (Kövecses 2010a, p. 198), which is quite logical considering that the traditions of the transmitting of the information from the one conceptual space to the other (or mixing spaces) related to the culture (mythological, religious, political, historical and other terminologies) of the definite nation. On the other hand, the crosscultural studies of the metaphors are the reasons for conclusions that there are equal or standard means of the conceptualization of the meaning in different languages (Durán-Escribano & Cuadrado-Esclapez, 2017) and even universal means (Holovenko, 2013) or “near-universal or potentially universal” (Kövecses, 2010a, p. 217) conceptual metaphors. Undoubtedly, the definition of universal metaphors is possible only based on the comparative approach in the language study.

Methodology
The investigation is grounded on the descriptive method (for the presentation of the results), the process of the classification (for the distinguishing of the different kinds of the metaphors with the negative meaning), the analysis of the dictionary definitions (for the determining the implicit
negation), the conceptual analysis (for the identification of the source and target domains of such metaphors), the practice of contextual analysis (to confirm the objecting function of the metaphors in the dialogues and texts), the process of questioning (to identify the problems of the usage). The way of comparison is applied in the paper to determine the specificity of metaphor creating in different languages.

The research material includes metaphors, which do not conclude the formal negation but which have a negative meaning (objectionable content) as there are always grammar negators in their explication, f. e.:

- empty words – ‘words that are not sincere’;
- dead end – ‘a situation that has no hope of making progress’;
- rubbish – ‘something worthless or not true’;
- somebody’s brain has turned to mush – ‘somebody cannot think clearly’;
- myth – ‘a commonly believed but not true idea’;
- blind alley – ‘a situation or method that is not effective or will not produce results’.

The metaphors with implicit negation are sorted out (Longman, 2005) and (Ukrainskyi tlumachnyi slovnyk, 2016). An additional search for metaphors with implicit negation in the English and Ukrainian media discourse made it possible to identify occasional metaphors with negative meanings not recorded in dictionaries.

The specifics of the translation and study of metaphors with implicit negation have been studied based on a survey of students of the second (magister) level of education at the Kyiv National Linguistic University, who learn English and Ukrainian as a profile language and therefore are active bilinguals. The analysis of the problems of translation and lack of knowledge revealed in the students’ answers allowed to substantiate the principles of a more practical study of metaphors of unrelated languages in higher educational institutions.

**Results**

**Basic concepts verbalized by metaphors with implicit negation**

Studying the origin of negation in metaphor, it is necessary to proceed from the point that the cognitive framework of the metaphor is in the interpretation of the notion of one sphere in terms of the other (Kövecses, 2010b). It is human nature to transfer the names of one conceptual sphere to the zone of another based on a specific external or functional similarity of objects. The mapping allows a speaker to interpret the object of the nomination more vividly, to highlight some of its features.

Based on the analysis of the cognitive structure of the metaphor, we have distinguished targeted concepts (their verbalization is related to the negation) and initial domains. Their mapping provides the formation of negative meanings.

According to our observations, the metaphorical negation is connected to the verbalization of the nine basic concepts: **UNTRUTH, INVALIDITY, FAILURE, INEFFECTICIOUSACY, RELUCTANCE, UNCERTAINTY, USELESSNESS, INACTION, ABSENCE OF PROSPECT**.
The concept of **UNTRUTH** is realized with the metaphors, which transfer the negative meaning ’it is **not** the truth’. There are some source domains of this concept in the Ukrainian and English languages. Firstly, it is the **myth** as the genre name:

*The knowledge economy is a myth* (Spicer, 2016);

*Why ‘eating for two’ during pregnancy is a myth* (Gregory, 2020);

Це **міф** – що Крим і Донбас гірші за інші регіони України (Kazarin, 2018).

Myths are metaphorically called beliefs that are quite common in society, but in connection with new information, the author wants to refute them, to prove their falsity. The logic of mapping: the sign of the unreliability of the myth as a literary genre is transferred to the characterization of an idea to undermine the credibility of it.

The second source domain is the name of the physical phenomenon, **mirage**, that metaphorically transfer the objecting meaning ’desirable but still **not** real:

*Why the American dream is just a **mirage*** (Browne, 2012);

*Obama’s ‘unity government’ plan in Iraq is just a **mirage*** (Diehl, 2014);

Податок на виведений капітал – поки що лише **міраж** у пустелі (Shevchuk, 2017)

Logic of this metaphor: the falsity of seen is transferred onto the fallacy of the estimated phenomenon.

The concept of **INVALIDITY** is verbalized into the metaphor with negative meaning: ‘the fact of **not** being valid’. The source domain of this concept is ’physical features’, in particular emptiness, incompleteness, f. e.: in English – **empty words, empty promises, empty hopes, empty shells**, in Ukrainian – порожні обіцянки, пусті слова, пустий звук. The logic of mapping: the absence of physical content is transferred to the lack of substantiation of speech:

*Empty Promises. What Will Brexit Really Mean for Nurses and the British National Health Service?* (McKee, 2018);

*Empty labour laws show France is impossible to reform* (McPartland, 2016)

Бомбосховища Києва: **пусті обіцянки**? (Sosnova, 2014).

Metaphorical reinterpretation of emptiness is very popular. The absence of physical content is transferred also to the lack of reason, money and feelings, etc. f. e.: in English – **empty-headed, empty flattery, empty pockets, empty platitudes**, Ukrainian – пустий лоб, пустодзвін, пустомеля, порожнє серце, порожня душа.

The concept of **FAILURE** comprehends the metaphors with the negative meanings of ’something did **not** happen’, ’somebody was **not** lucky’. The frustration of failure is associated with the disgrace of the fall, disappointment of falling (typical orientational metaphor). This concept is realized by the nouns **fall, downfall** and the verbs **fall, fall short, fall apart, flop**, in the Ukrainian language – by the nouns **провал, падіння** and the verbs **провалити, завалити**, f. e.:

*The great **fall** of China’s economy* (Ho, 2020)
Nicaragua’s democracy is falling apart (Raderstorf, 2018);
Черговий провал ‘Слуги народу’: чому людям Коломойського не вдалося захопити Києво-Святошинську райраду (Liubomyrska, 2019).

The association of failure with downward movement also serves as a basis for idioms: down-and-out, be at the bottom of the barrel, be/get bogged down.

If the downward movement is considered a symbol of failure, regression, inefficiency, then the nomination bottom metaphorically means complete collapse, the lowest point of deterioration:

Expect global economy to fully bottom out by May (Ahya, 2020)
US economy at ‘rock bottom’ (Barkin, 2020).

Recently, the failure in the Ukrainian language is characterized with the cant term прокол, which means ‘puncture’ but metaphorically signifies failure. It is also a metaphoric formation (physical damage means the collapse of expectations that is transferred to the social man’s activity), f. e.: Ключовий прокол уряду Гончарука – непідписання програми з МВФ (Yatseniuk, 2020) and metaphoric lexemes промах, промахнутися, схибити, f. e.: Президент промахнувся. (Krasinsky, 2018). The logic of mapping: the failure of shooting is transferred to the unsuccessful human actions.

The concept of INEFFICACIOUSACY relates to the expression of the negative meaning ‘something does not work as it should’. Source domain of the concept is ‘disabilities’ (adverbials leaky, lame, notched, chipped, pitted, the verb to limp, Ukrainian кульгавий, дірявий, щербатий, надкушений, гнилий). The names of the physical defects of the object, particularly the violation of its integrity, are transferred to the improper functional state of public institutions. Metaphorical transference is quite motivated because an incomplete object cannot fully function. With the help of such metaphors, those social phenomena that do not fully correspond to the planned purpose are ridiculed, f. e.:

Leaky politics: the false promise of transparency (Fluck, & McCarthy, 2016);  
‘Downbeat’: BMO’s guide to Canada’s lame economy, the loonie and interest rates (Babad, 2019);  
Brazil’s economy limps along in first quarter (Schipani, 2018);  
Як наповнити ‘діряву’ казну? (Bohuslavska, 2013);  
Щербата…совість? (Hurepko, 2017);  
Гнила держава (Hobta, 2015).

Concept RELUCTANCE is about the metaphorical expression of the negative meaning ‘does not want to notice’. The source domain of this concept is ‘physical disabilities’ – the same in the both investigated language: in English to be blind, blindness, turn a deaf ear to something and in Ukrainian: сліпий сліпота, глухий, глухота, f. e.:

Political blindness (Snider, 2016);  
It’s turned a deaf ear to union complaints (Pasquale, 2013);  
Політична доцільність і політична сліпота (Hrynevytskyi, 2007);
The logic of metaphors is quite clear: the image of physical inferiority was quite adequate for expressing social inaction.

The concept of **UNCERTAINTY** is verbalized into the metaphors with objecting meaning: ‘something **uncertain** or **inexplicable**’. Native speakers in both languages associate something hidden, obscure with the darkness, it complicates the perception. Accordingly to the source domain of the concept ‘physical abilities’ (English *in the dark*, *muddy*, *murky* and Ukrainian *темний*, *темрява*, *темнота*, *пітьма*, *мутний*, *каламуть*, *туман*), f. e.:

- *Public kept in dark* over ‘corrupt conduct’ inquiry (McKay, 2020);
- *The murky politics of NRC* (Thakuria, 2019);
- *For clarity in Syria’s muddy politics* (Prashad, 2014);
- *Темне питання УКБ. Чому дорожчає новий міст у Франківську* (Surovska, 2018);
- *’Мутна справа’ про 11 мільярдів кубометрів газу* (Lavreniuk, 2009).

The logic of mapping: the visual obscurity of the object is transmitted into the impossibility of its perception.

Something incomprehensible is described using the metaphorical secondary nomination *mush*. Features of unattractiveness, viscosity, lack of form carry over to social phenomena that are not credible:

- *Tony Blair has branded Theresa May’s Brexit plan a ‘mush’* (Honeycombe-Foster, 2020);
- *Don’t let EU reform plans turn to mush* (Watt & Mason, 2015).

In the Ukrainian language, there is a similar metaphor to denote something confusing, incomprehensible, disordered – *каша*, f. e.:

- *Тому тепер в головах носіїв нашої культури — повна каша* (Kolyba, 2020).

Dishes, the names used to describe incomprehensible phenomena in English and Ukrainian metaphorically, are similar in structure, appearance, but not identical.

Concept **USELESSNESS** correlates with the estimated negative structures: ‘something, that is **not** important, useless, regardless’, ‘someone is **not** capable of anything’. First and foremost, this concept is verbalized with the term *zero* borrowed from mathematics. The figure’s name, which means the absence of quantity, became the universal designation of that which does not have any value:

- *Tom Vadakkan, Congress loyalist for decades with zero political experience*... (Vadakkan, 2019);
The second source domain of this concept is 'subject field', mainly the names of the low-cost things: garbage, rubbish, trash, junk, crap, Ukrainian сміття, мотлох, непотріб, гріш, f. e.:

Michelle Obama says Queen told her that royal protocol is 'rubbish' (Guy, 2018); Coronavirus tipping sovereign rating balance into junk (Jones, 2020); Зі шкіл викинуть політичний мотлох? (Dorotych, 2015); Мстивий бездушний президент – політичне сміття (Hrytcenko, 2017).

The logic of mapping: the low price of the items is transferred to a short assessment of the individuals, phenomena.

The concept of INACTION is verbalized into the metaphor with negative meaning: 'something does not function'. The source domain of this concept is 'physical conditions with a limited activity', f. e. paralysis, palsy, torpor, lethargy, hibernation, Ukrainian параліч, ступор, летаргія, колапс. For example:

Political paralysis grips the UK (Riley, 2018); Lethargy in Lebanon (Teller, 2016); Parliament is in hibernation mode until August (Matthewson, 2020); Національний 'параліч' (Losiev, 2010); 25 років у ступорі: чи здатна Україна на технологічні експерименти (Nekrasov, 2017).

The logic of mapping: physical inactivity is transferred into the social passivity.

Concept ABSENCE OF PROSPECT is about the symbolic realization of the negative meaning 'something, which does not have chances to succeed and develop'. There are several source domains of this concept: 1. The name of the physical indication dead forms the base of the concept ABSENCE OF PROSPECT (FUTILITY): dead duck, deadlock, deadwood. 2. In both languages for the reinterpretation, chess terms (stalemate, nam, патова ситуація) are used, f. e.:

For-profit home-care company locked in stalemate with workers (Noorsumar, 2019);

У Зеленського з Єрмаком патова ситуація (Bila, 2020).

In both languages, the source domain 'spatial concepts related to movement limit' is rather productive: English deadlock, blind alley, cul-de-sac, Ukrainian тупик, глухий кут:

Political Deadlock in Israel (Freid, 2019); Sloppy politics lead Italy into a blind alley (Marangio, 2018); Мінські переговори зайшли у глухий кут (Kalynovskij, 2020); Перспектива України – тупик чи процвітання? (Ilychok, 2017).

The logic of metaphorical mapping is to express the features of limited movement, which is transferred from the subject area to the conditions of social activity.

The image of physical restriction of movement was the basis for many idioms that characterize a problematic situation in which a person is deprived of the opportunity to act, f. e.: be (caught) between a rock and a hard place, have your back to /against the wall, all tied up. The motivational indication of the symbolic use is the image of the immobilized person who can not
move. This incredibly sensory experience helps to verbalize the lack of chances in the other spheres of human activity.

In the Ukrainian language, the interpretation of the futility is based on the rethinking of the conceptual correlations, which nominate the closed capacities or their parts (труба, торба, крышка, гаплик):

Кримським портам – ’гаплик’ (Klymenko, 2020);
Депутати знищують Нацбанк. Економіка полетить в трубу (Fursa, 2020).

The motivational indication of the symbolic use is the image of the closed space, where you can not move. This incredibly sensory experience helps to verbalize the lack of chances in the other spheres of human activity.

As we have seen, the metaphorical expression of the objecting meaning is directed to the verbalization of concepts, most of the evaluative type, which denotes the social and cognitive activity. The source domain base is more often the physical indications, phenomena, activities, and rare objects, abstractive notions, interfering with the definite disabilities or faculties.

Problems of translating metaphors with implicit negation
As part of our study, we conducted a survey of students of the second (magister) level of education at the Kyiv National Linguistic University, who study English and Ukrainian as a profile language, and therefore are active bilinguals. Students were given the ten simple sentences containing metaphors with implicit negation. The translated sentences should have the imagery and the gist of the original. Only 25 percent of the participants completed the task, 50% – translated more than half of the sentences, and 25% could reproduce less than half of the task. It was difficult for some of the students to choose the English equivalent, and that’s why the Ukrainian variant with the metaphorical negation was transformed with the grammar negation, e.g.:

Українська економіка в тупику – Ukrainian economy has no possibilities for development;
Він глухий до моїх прохань – He doesn’t react to my requests.

Also, students should express the negative meanings of hopelessness, obscurity, unreasonableness, discrepancy, absence in Ukrainian and English. Unfortunately, only 15% of the students coped with this task, 25% of the participants in a poll successfully chose metaphors of their native language and less than a half of English; 45 % recollect only some metaphors from both languages, 15% were not able to remember either Ukrainian or English metaphorical collocations. In the comments to the survey, the respondents explained that in their speech, they use grammatical constructions with similar meanings, not to be mistaken.

Despite the fact, our investigation proved very similar models of the metaphorical expression of the negative meanings in the Ukrainian and English languages, by the results of the survey among the magister students who study Ukrainian and English and they are active bilinguals, it is clarified that using metaphors with implicit negation in their speech causes some difficulties.
The difficulties of translating metaphors are related to the problem of preserving their imagery. It is the inner image that provides the expressiveness, the semantic power of the metaphor. Unfortunately, their imagery is not always maintained when translating metaphors. Not very confident and stylistically skilled speakers often resort to explicatory translation, which allows understanding of the essence of the metaphor, but its imagery is lost. The specificity of the explicatory translation of metaphors with a negative meaning is to interpret their meaning with a negative statement. Such a translation can be aimed at simplifying speech when imagery is not very important, but it is more essential to convey negation to the listener.

Much more valuable is the translation of metaphors while preserving their inner image. Sentences with metaphors translated in this way do not lose their communicative and pragmatic expressiveness. However, there are several ways to maintain the imagery of the metaphor in translation. The first one provides the reproduction of the same image in the target language. This procedure is employed if in the source language and the language of translation metaphors have common or similar cognitive structures. They are based on the same logic of the thinking of speakers. According to our observations, metaphors with a negative meaning indicating the absence, hopelessness, failure, improper state in different languages are often constructed similarly, based on the same associations. This allows translating metaphors quite easily and quickly without violating their imagery.

Often the metaphorical expression of negation in Ukrainian and English is based on the same conceptual model, but its verbalization is slightly different. For example, in both languages, the negative meaning of ‘to not talk about something’ in idioms is interpreted as physical manipulation of the tongue, which prevents its functioning, and hence the dissemination of information. However, in English idioms, this manipulation involves closing the mouth and holding the tongue (keep your mouth shut, hold your tongue), and in Ukrainian – indicates the location of the tongue behind the teeth (тримати язик за зубами). Thus, the same conceptual model is realized by partial equivalents.

The third way of translating a metaphor involves replacing the image in the source language with a standard target language image. This way of translation corresponds to the cognitive theory of metaphor, according to which conceptual models of metaphors are culturally specific (Al-Hasnawi, 2007; Bojović, 2014). Metaphors of each language reflect the worldview of its speakers, their stereotypes about the universe, moral values, and psychological characteristics.

Undoubtedly, the translator must ensure that the speakers of the target language fully grasp the essence of the metaphor. Therefore, in the case of cultures that are different in terms of worldview, when translating metaphors, it is more appropriate to choose the image of the target language. This will promote a better perception of metaphors and provide a vivid, symbolic, convincing translation. However, it requires the translator to make a more significant effort and to have the perfect command of both languages.

To prove the thesis, we provide some examples.
The negative meanings ‘somebody was not lucky’, ‘someone has not achieved what is desired’ in English and Ukrainian can be expressed by conceptually similar idioms: came back with empty pockets, came back empty-handed – повернутися з порожніми руками. However, in the Ukrainian language, these meanings can be realized by very colorful idioms, which are difficult to reproduce in English due to the presence of non-equivalent vocabulary, f. e.: піймати облизя, дістати одкоша, облизати макогона. These idioms formed based on ancient Ukrainian ritual acts of refusal to the groom. They are more colorful and emotional than the English phrase to get nothing for one’s pains (trouble).

The negative meaning of ‘unknown when, most likely, never’ is presented in English using idioms when pigs fly or when Hell freezes over, but in Ukrainian events that are unlikely to happen are marked як рак свисне ‘when cancer whistles’, коли виросте трава на помості ‘when the grass grows on the dais’, як на доні волосся проросте ‘when hair grows on the palm’, як на камені пшениця вродить ‘when on a stone wheat bears’, на турецький великдень ‘at Turkish Easter’, як свиня на небо гляне ‘when the pig looks at the sky’, як сова світ уздрить ‘when an owl the world will see’. In both languages, the impossibility of something is depicted through visual images of impossible situations, but they are entirely various.

Undoubtedly, when choosing a way to translate a metaphor with implicit negation (explicative translation, tracing, selection of full or partial equivalent), the translator must take into account the specifics of the text, its stylistic features, purpose, as well as requests and reading experience of the target audience.

**Discussion**

The factual material analysis proves that metaphors are widely used as the means of negation in oral dialogical speech. The cues with such metaphors easily correlate with negative sentences, f. e.:

*Is this book interesting? – Literally trash! (the book is not interesting);*

*Does brother help you? – He has turned a blind eye to my requests (he does not react).*

To start a discussion, it is necessary to point out that metaphor can substitute the grammatically negative construction, can functionally correlate with it but not identically. Against the background of the other means of expressing negation, the metaphor is characterized by some features due to its particular cognitive structure and imagery.

Firstly, on the contrary to the grammar means of negation, the metaphor realizes not only the homogeneous negative meaning but also the more comprehensive meaning complex, which is based on the negative proposition. The metaphor negation is more diffusive, less strict, and its perception varies due to the different communicative situations and communicators. The sentence *It’s just empty words can be interpreted as 1) speech is not persuasive; 2) speech is hardly believed 3) it is needless to speak more. The sentences I feel the torpor can be understood as 1) I have no energy; 2) I am unable to do anything; 3) I don’t want to do anything.*

Secondly, the metaphor provides a spectacular, slightly pictorial expression of negation due to the visual or sensory image, which serves as an internal form of the metaphor, f. e.: *Ukrainian economy is at a dead-end* (visual image, which means: *Ukrainian economy is not developing*. To express the negation speakers usually use well-known, conventional metaphors, it helps the
recipients understand the objecting meaning. At the same time, these metaphors are still not defaced and make possible better perception of a message.

Third, metaphor is a complex pragmatic tool. With its help, the speaker not only denies but also realizes specific pragmatic goals: to ridicule something, to rise above something/someone, to convince the interlocutor, to encourage reflection, to reveal his eloquence, and so on.

Fourth, metaphor is an uncategorical but quite convincing negative means because it is based on certain stereotypes of native speakers. To embody some abstract content, in particular the denial of something, speakers do not use any prototype images, but those that are associated with this content based on collective communicative experience.

Metaphors with implicit negative meaning are used not only in oral dialogic speech but also in media. Researchers note the important role of conceptual metaphors in journalistic texts, calling them “a tangible element of persuasion and influence on readers because they are a guide in the perception of reality” (Khudoliy, 2018, p. 182). Such metaphors offer readers a particular interpretation of the described events or phenomena. Their correlation with negative propositions allows not only to emphasize the impropriety of something, and to do it casually, unobtrusively. For example, the headline Leaky politics: the false promise of transparency (Fluck, & McCarthy, 2016) indicates that politics in the country is not of the proper level, not complete, but the author does not state this directly, but only hints, encouraging the reader to draw the appropriate conclusion. Thus, the metaphor differs from the negative sentences also by its interactive nature: to derive a negative meaning from it, it must be ‘read’. The most powerful are considered to be unconventional, occasional metaphors, which allow for a particularly original formation of negative content. Occasional metaphors are more difficult for the perception. Still, semantically they are more profound, provocative to a greater extent, and researchers think such metaphors influence the readers positively, as they “serve as a small puzzle that provides pleasure when solved” (Boeynaems, Burgers, Konijn, & Steen 2017, p. 2862).

The cross-linguistic study of the metaphors with implicit negation proved that their metaphorical expression ensures the verbalization of the identical concepts, with the help of the mostly the same source domains (there are only some differences in their quantity and linguistic arrangement). Ukrainian and English are fundamentally different in the expression of grammar negation (the first is mononegative, the second is multinegative (Paslavska 2005), but there are very similar models in the sphere of symbolic negation.

The teaching of native and foreign languages demands more attention to the means of imagery, which significantly diversify and express the speech. Experts note that “in the situation of the educational bilingualism, the symbolic potential of the foreign word influences the easiness of remembering and the strength of its assimilation, and it is one of the determinant factors of language proficiency” (Lyla 2016, p. 126).

In the Ukrainian higher educational institutions, the discrete study of the languages is prevailing over the comparative analysis. However, such a phenomenon as metaphors should be investigated based on the material taken from different languages. The parallel analysis of metaphors facilitates the students to compare them in different languages, and prevents the emergence of gaps in students’ knowledge, clarifies the specifics of languages.
Unfortunately, students often must remember metaphors as already formed lexical units. It will be more efficient to analyze the structure of the metaphors in terms of cognitive linguistics, which allows understanding the logic of their formation.

In comparative analysis of the metaphors (in samples of several languages), it is very essential to begin with the similar metaphorical transfers and their background to emphasize the peculiarities of the particular language. Semantically close but not the similar metaphors deserve attention.

Improvement of communicative skills is inextricably related to the general educational level of students. It is essential to expand their information space so that they can understand the role of metaphors in different communication situations: in artistic speech, in public, professional discourse, in informal communication, in advertising slogans, in television programs, in newspaper titles, in scientific publications, and others.

Also, teachers should pay more attention to the communicative practice of usage while translating the metaphors. They should facilitate students in the independent search and creating the new one. Such an approach will foster the development of the professional and general competencies of the students, their creativity, and the ability to comprehend and produce the new piece of information in particular.

The use of visual methods can help to study metaphors, as it forms the sensual image by itself. It is easier to remember the symbolic objecting meanings, which are backed up with definite images. Negative meanings of inconsistencies, inaccuracies in media cartoons, and memes are conveyed through the vision of physically damaged objects. The negative meaning of impossibility, prohibitions are realized through the vision of dead ends, partitions, crossed objects. Thus, the visual embodiment of the negative meaning is quite universal for different linguistic cultures and is based on the same mental interpretations as the metaphors with implicit negation.

Conclusions
By the aims of the work to prove the ability of metaphors to serve as a means of expression of negation and to identify the common and divergent parameters of the cognitive-figurative realization of negation in English and Ukrainian, the following conclusions are made:

The metaphor is a capacious cognitive-imaginative construction, which performs the objecting function in the media. Still, from specialized grammatical means it differs in the emotional and associative background, dependence on the context, and vast opportunities of the interpretation.

As we have seen, the metaphorical expression of the objecting meaning is directed to the verbalization of concepts, mostly of the evaluative type, which denotes the social and cognitive activity. The initial domain base is more often the physical indications, phenomena, activities, and rare objects, abstractive notions, interfering with the definite disabilities or faults. To express the negative meanings, speakers use a broad domain base. It covers the names of phenomena, actions, rare objects, abstract concepts, which describe some boundaries, injuries, death, incompleteness, obscurity.

In English and Ukrainian, we found the same cognitive models of symbolic interpretation of negative meanings contrary to the grammatical formation of the negation. In both languages, hopelessness is represented as a physical restriction, non-response as the inability to hear, failure
as emptiness in hands or pockets, valuelessness as garbage, incomprehensibility as something dark, muddy, etc.

The choice of the way of translating metaphors with implicit negation depends on the translator’s priorities and his stylistic preferences. Descriptive translation provides more emphasis on negative content. Tracing is appropriate for dead, universal metaphors with a negative meaning. The selection of the equivalent helps to preserve the imagery, expressiveness, and maximum proximity of the translation to the receivers.

The perspective of investigation is in the differentiation of the models of the metaphors with the objecting meanings in the other languages to confirm their possible universality and variance.

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Challenges of Teaching and Learning Business English in Ukrainian Universities

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Abstract
The English has been widely used and expanded with the globalization of the business world, notably ESP is considered a part of it. This study aims to seek out the challenges of teaching and learning Business English in Ukrainian universities. Considerable experience as Business English teachers at several Ukrainian universities and ongoing contact with colleagues in the professional community of ESP teachers, provides an opportunity to affirm that the results we found in the empirical study are typical for most Ukrainian universities. This assumption was also supported in the discussions with the ESP teachers from different regions of Ukraine during the British Council's “English for Universities” project (2015-2018). Data collection was done by conducting a questionnaire survey for the ESP practitioners that had the issues in teaching ESP course at the Faculty of Economics, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. The findings revealed the challenges that ESP practitioners face, particularly: difference in students’ language competence, course content selection, lack of motivation, in-class hours etc. and possible solutions in overcoming the constraints in teaching. The study suggests that Business English practitioners should develop and improve practical tools for evaluation and certification of results following the requirements and further improvements should be implemented in the methodology and organization of ESP teaching, the content of the course, the course design, the development of course-books and supplementary teaching materials for each specialty.

Keywords: Business English, ESP challenges, ESP teaching and learning, the role of ESP practitioner, Ukrainian Universities

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Introduction

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) teachers have something in common with general foreign language teachers. Almost every second teacher teaching ESP course has concerns about what they are teaching, whether English for economics or teaching economics in English. Teaching ESP aims to develop students’ skills of professional communication in English depending on the proficient area. Such teaching should be connected to students’ particular specialization. Accordingly, the ESP includes specialized programs that are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of work or technology (Bolitho & West, 2017). ESP is a mode to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners. Much of the work done by ESP practitioner deals with designing appropriate courses for various groups of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1996). In its turn, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) introduced the extended definition of ESP. It provides the absolute and the variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics denote that ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners; makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre. The variable characteristics represent that ESP may be related to or designed for particular disciplines; may use a different methodology from that of General English; is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level or in a professional work situation; is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students; most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems.

The content analysis of the related literature showed that ESP teaching is based on six elements that are significantly important constituents for a successful and effective teaching process. Needs analysis is the first and the most essential element to be focused on education in ESP contexts as it offers excellent help for the teacher to identify the skills, the competencies that need to be developed, and the objectives to attain. One more critical element in teaching ESP is a methodology that represents the essential things, which are the course material and syllabus. Correct syllabus design should have a link between the real world needs needed and the student’s ability to the effective use of language. They are considered to be the necessary components that constitute the successful syllabus design.

The next important element in teaching ESP is the course design. According to the recent studies in the field of ESP (Belcher, 2012; Bocanegra-Valle, 2010; Hyland, 2006), the ESP practitioner should remember the three types of course design; language-centered course design, skills-centered course design and learning-centered approach, and that the only notion that determines the type used in a particular ESP course is learners’ needs and course objectives. Material selection is another element that should be chosen very carefully for the ESP course to meet the needs of the learners and facilitate and accomplish the teaching/learning process. Authenticity and modernity in textbooks give tremendous input and sufficient output for teachers and learners. The evaluation is a continuous process in teaching the ESP and useful for the teaching process.

Reforms in the education system of Ukraine in the framework of its participation in the Bologna process set new requirements for the study of foreign languages. This contributed to the development of the “Concept of Teaching Foreign Languages” (2009) in the universities of Ukraine. The purpose of the Concept is to create the system of teaching foreign languages to meet the international standards and modern needs as well as providing students with access to practical language skills (The Concept of Teaching Foreign Languages at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, 2009). Given, the
main focus of our research is Business English as a part of the ESP course with a wide range of study programs: Marketing, Finance, Commerce, Management, Economic Cybernetics, etc. at the faculty of Economics, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. In this course, students learn English for specific purposes (Business English) and its essential goal here is to train a professional to be able to use English as the leading communication means in communicating with foreign partners in the professional field, and everyday situations. Teaching and learning ESP at the faculty is said to be specialty-oriented as it is submitted to the professional needs of the students. Students of the Faculty of Economics from different study programs are taught by specially tailored programs depending on their study program. Specially tailored teaching materials, unique methods of teaching depending on students’ future jobs are developed and applied by ESP practitioners.

Thus, the purpose of our study is to identify the main challenges faced by Ukrainian teachers of Business English in their daily work and outline ways to overcome them at the organizational, semantic and methodological levels. The objectives of the study are: to determine the features of teaching Business English as an ESP in universities at the theoretical level; identification of the main obstacles to effective teaching in Ukrainian universities by conducting questioner survey of Business English teachers at Faculty of Economics at the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv; interpretation of survey results; verification of ways to overcome the identified challenges, taking into account the forward-thinking foreign experience.

Literature Review
The concept of “communication” differs from one specialty to another, depending on the kind of human activity, and this idea is maintained in Kennedy and Bolitho’s (1991). According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), ESP is defined to fit the specific needs of the student and makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves. ESP is focused on the language activities regarding grammar, vocabulary, register, study skills, discourse and genre (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). It has also been highlighted that ESP can use, in a specific teaching environment, a different methodology from that of General English.

ESP should be also understood as an approach to teaching. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's purpose for learning. Besides, it is an approach that aims to meet the needs of particular learners. ESP includes specialized programs designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of work. In practice, much of the work the ESP practitioner does deal with designing courses for various groups of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1996). This is primarily due to the increased motivation among students to learn ESP, notably the low level or a lack of motivation is considered in the works of researchers as a significant obstacle to mastering any type of foreign language. Thus, Oxford (1994), Schmidt (1996), Scarcella (1992) and Shearin (1994) in their numerous studies have shown that motivation plays a significant role in attaining second or foreign language proficiency. Moreover, motivation has been verified to be an essential factor for defining the success of second or foreign language accomplishment.

Business English is one of the forms of the language used for a Specific Purpose. Business English is not the same as research or political English. In times of globalization, Business English is becoming increasingly important as multinational companies need their personnel to be multilingual.
The final aim of any Business English Course is to ensure its learners to communicate with others in a business environment effectively, whether that communication is in the face to face meetings, correspondence, presentations, or other situations. Accordingly, a Business English Language Course includes topics such as Business English in reading, writing letters and resumes, business phrases, or terms of sale, advertising, and marketing aspect. As with other ESP courses, Business English includes a specific language corpus and focuses on particular types of communication in a specific context. Notably, Business English is different from other kinds of ESP owing to specific content, and general content (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

We agree with leading researchers in ESP teaching and learning who believe that the ESP resources play a vital role in ESP and they are considerably debated in the literature of the subject. На думку Belcher (2012), an ESP practitioner can choose either to tailor materials or to use commercial materials published by other ESP specialists. Hyland (2006) states that materials are “the interface between teaching and learning, or the points at which the course needs, objectives and syllabuses are made tangible to both learners and teachers”. Accurate selected materials promote and support course design and is an important element of ESP teaching practice. They include not only published course books but also Internet-mediated resources, visual aids (Hyland, 2006). Such strategies as modifying materials, tailoring activities, deleting irrelevant content are the options recommended for adapting the resources to the needs of the learners (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010).

**Methods**

The main idea of the research was to gather from respondents as much data as possible to define the challenges that teachers come across in the ESP courses in English for Economics and come up with the solutions. As the research tools the authors choose observation, literature analysis, a questionnaire provision, and data analysis.

**Research questions**

The current study examines teachers’ answers to challenges in teaching Business English at the Faculty of Economics. Two questions guided the analysis of the survey: (1) what challenges did ESP practitioners face in teaching Business English for economists? and (2) what would they improve or change in teaching Business English at the Faculty?

**Site**

The site for this project was a Department for English at the Faculty of Economics at the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv with twenty-two ESP practitioners. Most of them took part in the project “English for Universities” guided by the British Council.

**Participants**

Twenty-two teachers of the Department for English at the Faculty of Economics volunteered to participate in the teacher survey.

**Procedures**

The ESP practitioners were sent out a questionnaire in Google forms with the questions and with suggested answers. Anonymous completed questionnaires and the received results were analyzed.
Data collection
The ESP practitioners’ answers were collected and saved in the Google forms. These twenty-two forms and the accompanying comments samples formed the data set for subsequent analysis.

Findings
The following findings are based on the Business English practitioners’ answers and define the challenges and possible improvements in teaching Business English at the Faculty.

Figure one demonstrates that almost all ESP practitioners face differences in students’ language competence (95%). 91% of ESP practitioners claimed to have issues with classroom management of large classes. It was satisfying to know that only 78% of teachers have problems with students’ motivation. Nevertheless, 87% have significant difficulties with a lack of contact hours that can lead to a challenging situation for both teachers and students in the classroom and influence the final result in acquiring a decent language level.

![Figure 1. ESP practitioners answer about Business English teaching challenges](image)

Only 77% of the respondents answered that they need teacher training. This can be explained by the fact that most of the practitioners had already attended the courses for ESP teachers provided by the British Council in Ukraine. It can be seen from Figure one that 84% of the respondents have a lack of cooperation with subject teachers in designing course content. As practitioners teach Business English of different majors and can be effectively solved by consulting the subject specialists of the faculty.

Course Content Selection
One of the main ESP features is that a course is defined to meet the specific needs of the learners and should involve professional language (terms) and content. Every five years the English department chooses an updated version of the main course-book of major publishing houses for all other study programs of the faculty. But it is still not clear whether this course meets the needs of the students of the different professional fields or not. Should it give a general induction in business topics? The main issue here is that there is not a unique Business course books to meet the needs of every study program. For example, is it necessary for students of the marketing program to drill the course mostly based on management issues and the same problem with the students of the finance program? How relevant is that for them and whether it meets their needs? Should each teacher use supplementary material to provide sufficient subject content depending on students’ specialty? In the majority of cases ESP
teachers are not experts in the students’ professional fields. And the subject of teachers’ involvement in the course design is highly significant here. The lack of close cooperation and coordination between the designers of the study programs and content lecturers is a problem that still exists. The main issue in ESP teaching is to master language and subject matter. Teachers find themselves having to teach with texts whose content they know little or nothing. Besides, the ESP teacher is frequently the syllabus designer and is in charge for the teaching material and evaluation.

On the other hand, the fundamental problem designing a topic syllabus is that the ESP syllabus designer is not a specialist in (marketing, management, finance).

Consequently, he/she is not capable to pick up which topics to include in the syllabus to provide the required terms. It is incredibly challenging for the English teacher to arrange matters in the most suitable order. The ESP teacher is not a course specialist; this can lead to misinterpretation. If a case has already been discussed in the main course, this motivates the learners and gives them confidence to communicate or discuss on the topic. Not being a specialist in a specific area, the ESP teacher cannot decide how to tailor information in terms of the subject topics. According to Kennedy and Bolitho (1984), ESP teachers do not need to learn a specialist subject understanding. They should be aware of the following: a positive attitude towards the ESP content; knowledge of the fundamental principles of the subject area; an awareness of how much they probably already know.

Nevertheless, some teachers can obtain a sufficient understanding of a subject to teach confidently from the subject-specific texts. But almost every ESP teacher will understand that the knowledge of a business course has barriers, and closer cooperation with the subject teacher or perhaps developing a team-teaching program is a solution here.

The Difference in Student’s Language Competence

The students’ level of language knowledge is essential as teachers nowadays face the challenge of working with multilevel classrooms or “mixed-ability” classes. In the ESP course, the students should have an intermediate levels of general English. Teachers have to deal with mixed-ability groups in terms of level language competence. Some students have an intermediate level of English; others – have an elementary level of English. The first group needs to improve their general English and is upset by drilling complex theoretical content of Business English. The group who feels confident has a much more powerful motivation for studying ESP. Though, if some of them do not have a good command of general English, they will spend time studying grammar, revising tenses (Davis, 1993). How can an ESP teacher deal with the group of students of different language levels? Having students with different language levels from A2 and level C1 is impossible to reach the expected level of Business English at the final exam? These controversial issues cannot be resolved only by teachers of the department. Should the students of level A1-A2 be enrolled at the university?

English is a vital tool for international communication, and a high level of English proficiency among graduates will allow them to fully and effectively participate in professional and academic life. The target level of English language proficiency among school graduates according to the current foreign language curricula is not lower than B1, still in reality, a significant number of school graduates, especially from rural areas, do not reach this level. Accordingly, students with different levels of English proficiency enter universities. This leads to the fact that weaker students cannot
acquire the required level of language training needed at the end of the university, they have difficulty using English-language resources, restrictions on international academic mobility, the inability to study courses in English. Simultaneously, students with a higher group, due to the mixed level of language competence of students and the orientation of teaching to the weaker student, lose the level of English language proficiency and at the end of their study, have a lower level compared to the level of admission. Elimination of these problems requires a level of language competence among students not lower than B1. They are setting a requirement for English at level B1 for access to the bachelor's program in the universities.

Compulsory “screening” EIT in English is essential for all applicants to establish the rank of language proficiency. Detection of a level below B1 does not deprive the entrant of the right to participate in the competition for admission to higher education in the normal mode. Such entrants before the beginning of the school year must take language intensive to achieve level B1. The control of achievement B1 takes place in a year, during the next introductory campaign. In case of failure, the student is expelled.

Language intensity is needed to overcome “language inequality” after secondary education, particularly between urban and rural entrants, and to provide access to higher education to academically able young people who have not had the opportunity to obtain language education at the appropriate level. According to research, the required number of hours of training to move to one language level is 150-180 hours (6 ECTS credits). Accordingly, entrants of level A2 need language intensity 1 month, and level A1 - for two months. It is proposed to create two-level courses of language intensives: for full-time study and distance learning at the choice of the entrant. Language intensives are provided by higher education institutions funded from the state budget (based on linguistic faculties).

Lack of Motivation

The different English level affects the students’ motivation. It demotivates both students with the elementary level and those with the upper-intermediate level. 78% ESP practitioners in university complain about a lack of student motivation in their classrooms and give several reasons for this. One of the reasons stated is a class with mixed abilities levels of general English the students; large sizes of groups, inappropriate syllabus designs, attendance systems, misdirected objectives of the students, lack of teachers’ feedback, and some other reasons like students’ unwillingness to speak and communicate because of different students’ language level. Davis (1993) describes the subject-specific approach as something which motivates students to learn as it is based on students’ specific needs for the future career. There are several solutions given by the Ukrainian teachers to eliminate this issue and they are: good lesson planning, bringing about a variety in classroom activities, negotiating, and describing the importance of the English language, giving individual consultation to the students and conducting pair work activities instead of group work activities. Such activities as arranging small group discussions before getting down to the real exchange of ideas could be helpful, for it will provide the students with more confidence and security.

In-class Hours

The study shows that one of the critical issues the 87% of ESP practitioners face at the Faculty of Economics is a lack of contact hours to get efficiency in teaching ESP. It is generally accepted that the...
primary goal of teaching ESP is to develop professionally-oriented communicative competence to meet the needs of the students. The Concept of Studying English in Universities was designed to indicate the overall purpose of ESP teaching and learning (Concept, 2009) with the task to train students to communicate effectively in their future careers. Distribution of classroom hours is an essential factor in developing professional foreign language competence at a decent level. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2020), each student of has to achieve level B2 language proficiency. To reach the educational qualification of “Bachelor,” a student needs 7.5 ECTS credits and 270 classroom hours without individual work. Consequently, to get B2+, C1 level of language proficiency for the educational qualification of “Master,” students need 200-250 academic hours (CEFR, 2020). In Ukrainian Universities, the situation with the distribution of classroom hours for mastering ESP is not perfect.

The number of in-class hours has been regulated by the Concept of teaching foreign languages in the universities of Ukraine, and according to this document, students are provided with 5 ECTS credits for studying ESP. It should be noted that the ESP course that advances students to their profession is trained during the 1st and 2nd years of study. The limited amount of English classes in the universities only worsens the outcomes of teaching ESP to develop communicative skills and obtain the desired result and the level B2 of language proficiency. At the faculty, we face the problem with a scarcity of in-class hours or contact hours as it amounts to 5 ECTS credits during the first year of study that is 292 hours with individual work and only 136 hours in-class hours.

Integrating the European standards of the ESP teaching in universities, we deal with obstacles like a lack of classroom hours to reach the B2 level of language proficiency. English language courses must be compulsory in each year of the program. At least 10% of the total number of hours/credits for students must be allocated to English language courses. At the bachelor’s level, regular English courses will focus on the ESP rather than General English (EGP). English language courses for bachelors will allow them to reach level B2 after graduation. The steps that could help to improve the situation with a lack of hours could be the following: every student should have the same amount of English classes devoted to ESP course to develop English communication skills and competences as well as to reach the target level B2. Develop and improve useful tools for evaluation and certification of results under the CEFR requirements.

Classroom Size
There are several reasons like lack of funds, saving time, lack of teaching faculty that force the administrators to combine several classes into one large group. The effects it brings, other than ineffective teaching, are lack of proper student evaluation, teacher’s inability to conduct activities in the class properly and a lack of students’ motivation. ESP practitioners have developed different strategies to deal with the issue of large-sized classes like asking for an extension in time duration, dividing large classes into smaller sections and arranging separate classes for them, taking help from the more intelligent students of the courses in evaluation and group work activities, taking work home, giving feedback by grouping similar issues together and assigning pair or group work activities.

Teacher Training
To motivate the ESP practitioners to be able to manage their teaching concerns with ESP, emphasis should be switched to investigating the practical training courses delivered to ESP practitioners.
aim of any ESP program is to assess the variety of English language that the ESP learner requires, the purpose of the language required, and how specific the language is. These stated objectives will help the teacher to make necessary decisions such as determining the teaching methodology, choose materials and classes (tasks or activities) that are partly important for improving the language skills required by these diverse students. Everything that is needed is to state the aims mentioned above by considering the educator as the learner. When thoroughly analyzing these three areas, the result would be the implementation of a teacher-training course focused only on the "teacher needs."

The question as to how to get more people in ESP teaching is quite an issue nowadays. An ESP practitioner suggested that this objective can be achieved by providing teacher training programs, by offering ESP courses in the institute and making them attractive. Arranging workshops and seminars are a waste of time and money since no theory is taught in them. In overcoming the issues with ESP teaching, the following steps should be done: improvement of the methodology and organization of ESP teaching, the content of the courses, the course design, the development of handbooks, and supplementary materials for each specialty; to provide training for ESP practitioners.

To overcome the stated issues British Council in Ukraine organized the project “English for Universities” from 2015 to 2018, in which thirty-two Ukrainian universities took part. The project that enhanced the role of ESP teacher had the goal to improve the quality of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching in higher education institutions across the country. The project had a significant impact on the teachers who were trained as they adopted more needs-driven, student-centered and interactive approaches to their work. At the same time, Heads of Foreign Language departments consistently highlighted the changes in syllabus, materials, teaching and assessment stimulated by the project. Current ESP students said they were motivated to learn and found ESP classes useful (Borg, 2019).

Conclusions
This research aimed to reveal challenges that ESP teachers face, their attitudes towards learning ESP and the solutions to the stated issues. Students of the first and second years of study and teachers of the Faculty of Economics at the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv were the object of the research and observation. All the interviewed teachers were the participants of the teaching process in the Business English course. Based on the literature research, and our basic hypothesis for challenges of teachers in ESP course, we created a survey questionnaire to interview ESP teachers of the Faculty of Economics, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv in order better to understand, what challenges did ESP practitioners face in teaching Business English for economists? and what would they improve or change in teaching Business English at the Faculty?

The results of the study highlighted that compared with EGP teaching, ESP teaching typically presents far more difficulties. Mainly focusing on specific learner needs, concentrating more on the communicative language and needs of the students, trying to obtain a range of professional skills and essential job-related functions, and ESP is still a considerable challenge.

A detailed study of related literature, personal observations, data collected provides us with some challenges ESP practitioners face in our context, and we have offered possible solutions to overcome the barriers in teaching Business English at the Faculty of Economics at the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. Teaching ESP means that a teacher focuses on the material to content students’
subject field or knowledge, which should be run meeting the needs analysis. First, it is related to the course content selection. Second, it is concerned with the difference in a students’ language competence. Third – the lack of students’ motivation. Fourth – a lack of in-class hours and duration of the course. The fifth is the size of classes and finally is the importance of ESP practitioner training.

The first thing that needs to be considered is the need analysis. By having precise need analysis, the course designer will be able to design a suitable course intended for the special learners’ needs. The second is by improving the teaching methodology and providing general English courses first before taking ESP. Finally, it is suggested that ESP teachers should have closer cooperation with the subject lecturer, perhaps developing a team-teaching program. It sets a requirement for English at level B1 for admission to the bachelor's program in the universities. There is a need of compulsory "screening" to identify the level of language proficiency for all applicants. Language intensity is needed to overcome “language inequality” after secondary education, particularly between urban and rural entrants, and to provide access to higher education to academically able young people who have not had the opportunity to obtain language education at the appropriate level. The steps that could help to improve the situation with a lack of hours could be the following: every student should have the same amount of English classes devoted to the ESP course to develop all the necessary English communication skills and competences as well as to reach the target level B2; teachers should develop and improve practical tools for evaluation and certification of results under the CEFR requirements. Improvement of the methodology and organization issues of ESP teaching, the content of the course, the course design, the development of coursebooks for each specialty and to provide regular training for ESP practitioners are the main recommendations that the authors could provide due to the results of the study interpretation, specific literature analysis and own practice reflection.

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References


The Model of Educational Environment for Prospective Ukrainian ESL Teachers within Competency-Based Education

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Abstract
Ukrainian Universities today encourage the principles of competency-based education in higher education, but the study of literature generally seems to discourage this process in a more theoretical way. The research reported here is a part of a more extensive doctoral study that aims to examine the process of competency-based education of English as Second Language teachers in Ukraine. This paper seeks to answer the following questions: could one apply the principles of competency-based education to create an appropriate educational environment for prospective English as Second Language teachers; would it improve the way to design the programs for their professional training and advance the language teaching process in Ukrainian Universities? This article reports on an investigation associated with the implementation of a pedagogical experiment that proves the effectiveness of the specially modeled educational environment created to design the training programs for prospective English as second language teachers within competency-based education at Taras Shevchenko National University and Donbas State Pedagogical University. This paper contains the comparative analysis of two Philology Master students groups to discover whether the traditional educational environment or competency-based one produces a better educational effect on the language teaching process. This study employs a mixed-method resulting in qualitative and quantitative data. The paper concludes by presenting recommendations for Ukrainian Universities, which major in training prospective English as Second Language teachers. Moreover, future research related to applying this educational model for students in different grades is still a potential area to be studied further.

Keywords: competency-based education, designing training programs, educational environment, higher education, language teaching, prospective English as Second Language teachers, Ukrainian Universities

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Introduction

The current state of the community and the focus on competency-based approach in the process of professional education in high school require reconsideration and improvement of vocational training considering the needs of the current labor market. Competency-based refers to an instructional system where students are given credit for performing to a predetermined level of proficiency under specified conditions (Bloom, 1973). They fear that teaching facts and techniques provide students with information that quickly became obsolete (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

Competency-based education (CBE) is an educational model in which there is a clear, measurable definition of mastery, procedures, and tools for tracking that mastery. Students progress at their own pace, based on what they can show that they know (Collie, Shapka & Perry, 2012). According to Evans and Vander (2018), the competency-based system should support learning that intends to be a more accurate measure of what a student knows and can do in the future. It implies that lecturers should work collaboratively in an environment that is both personalized and student-centered.

According to Boyer and Bucklew (2019), learning or educational environment now seems to have poor alignment to competency-based methodology. Moreover, to follow the progressive educational movement, education should focus less on a traditional-based learning environment to one that is more student-centered and prepare a student for their professional role in society.

Analysis of research and publications on this issue proves that the development of multiple competencies specific to the professional activities of prospective English as Second Language (ESL) teachers is achievable within the appropriate educational environment. Bloom (1964) described the educational or learning environment concept as the conditions, external stimuli, and forces that may be physical, social, as well as intellectual forces that challenge the individual and influence students learning outcomes. The learning environment is an interactive network of forces within the teaching and learning activities that influence students learning outcomes. Branekova (2010) and Kolarova (2011) emphasize that the environment that enables the personality to be professional will be more effective if it focuses on the students themselves, on their educational needs, and consequently should be student-centered. This paper aims to investigate the effectiveness of the modeled educational environment based on the principles of CBE of ESL teachers in Ukraine. The researchers hope is that novice, as well as proposed instructions, could become a reference tool to which any researcher may apply when designing an educational environment for any specialty within the higher educational institution.

Literature Review

CBE is the primary trend in curriculum reform in the field of higher education. Nowadays, the literature review presents a broad polysemy of this term. Some scholars supporting the idea of excellence in education explain it as “a system of instructions where students advance to higher levels of learning when they demonstrate mastery of concepts and skills – regardless of time, place, or pace” (CBE: State Policy Communications Toolkit). It means that CBE “should be directed at providing students with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable them to recognize and solve problems in their domain of study or future work, i.e., authentic tasks” (Keen, 1992).
It was highlighted by O’Sullivan and Burce (2014) that within the CBE learning measures rather than time. They state that “students progress by demonstrating their competence, which means they prove that they have mastered the knowledge and skills (called competencies) required for a particular course, regardless of how long it takes” (p.2). It implies that students “progress at their own pace, rather than at a pace dictated by semesters or credit hours” (p.2).

Moreover, the chosen teaching strategies should match the domain of learning. For example, the researchers recommend that the psychomotor domain should demonstrate and perform a given knowledge or skill, propose a variety of models or simulative tasks where students can have wide practice, arrange direct supervision, create a valid and reliable assessment tool (O’Sullivan & Burce, 2014). Within the affective domain, the researchers suggest to review the material in the context of its educational and personal value for students; suggest the tasks that stimulate self-reflection (O’Sullivan & Burce, 2014). The cognitive domain of CBE requires a high level of critical thinking through discovery-based or problem-based learning, stimulates life-long learning, teamwork, and encourages to create and follow individualized learning plans (O’Sullivan & Burce, 2014). Supporting this scientific stream, researchers all over the world implement the principles of CBE into the educational process, adopting, improving, or modifying teaching and learning techniques. According to Curry and Docherty (2017), those principles should be preferably applied to the educational environment.

While analyzing academic literature, the researchers propose a range of polysemantic terms as: “educational environment,” “environment for learning,” “learning environment,” “learning engaging environments,” “interactive environment,” “virtual environment,” etc. The variety of definitions is predetermined by the perspective of a specific pedagogical system, and most authors emphasize the relationship between subjects and educational interaction (Branekova, 2010). Kolarova (2011) defines the university educational environment as “a real system of macro and micro conditions, which cumulatively present living, financial, material, organizational, social and personal options for satisfying the needs of pedagogical subjects in the educational reality” (p. 73). Genn (2001) proposes that the students experiences of the learning environment have been “related to their achievements, satisfaction, and success”. (p. 339). A motivating learning environment fosters deep self-directed learning in the student and, subsequently, good medical practice in the physician (Veerapen & McAleer, 2010). For that reason, the teaching staff is the most influential participants, apart from the students themselves, in the learning environment. They guide their students to learning opportunities, and they serve as students most consistent link between the educational and workplace demands of the learning environment (Dunn & Hansford, 1996).

**Method**

To plan an educational environment based on the CBE for Prospective Ukrainian ESL Teachers, the researchers used modeling and pedagogical experiment as an empirical method to achieve the goal of the given research. The model of the educational environment for prospective ESL teachers within CBE was implemented into the educational process of Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University and Donbas State Pedagogical University for the undergraduate students (majoring in Philology). The university foreign language teaching staff, as well as Philological department students, participated in the experiment during 2019-2020.
The research included five primary stages: planning the whole research within the CBE principles for prospective Ukrainian ESL Teachers → modeling the educational environment for prospective Ukrainian ESL teachers within CBE → implementing this model into the educational environment of two Ukrainian universities → analyzing the effectiveness of this implementation → concluding.

Participants and Instrumentation

This research involves 98 Master students of Taras Shevchenko National University (Starobilsk, Ukraine) and Donbas State Pedagogical University (Sloviansk, Ukraine) major in Philology and qualified further as ESL teachers.

At the beginning, the researchers surveyed the Master students understanding of their personal, educational needs and their professional plans for the future in 2019. The results of the survey show that students are concerned about their future professional development because they do not understand how to use theoretical knowledge in a future professional environment, i.e., only 35% of respondents feel confident enough to work ESL teachers after their graduation (the first criterion). A significant number of prospective teachers (68%) do not understand how to use their potential to achieve professional goals (the second criterion). Finally, 56% of prospective teachers have no idea how to plan their future professional development and be motivated to further self-realization in a professional environment (the third criterion).

Thus, the results of the survey point out the need to review the conditions of the professional training of students. That is why the researchers modeled and implemented at Taras Shevchenko National University and Donbas State Pedagogical University a unique educational environment. According to above mentioned, the researchers understand the educational environment based on the principles of CBE is focused on the education of a proficient specialist, as a multi-structured, specially arranged educational space, that takes into account the stages of professional development and makes the potential of the applicant for higher education appropriate to the educational needs of ESL teachers.

Thus, the first level of the model is the macro-environment. In this level the students should gain relevant knowledge as to collaboration with various departments of state institutions that regulate the educational process and the process of professional training at the state level (in this paper it is the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine); non-governmental institutions involved in vocational training of ESL teachers (for example, the British Council, etc.); sites for distance self-education, focused on prospective ESL teachers training (EdEra online education studio, Future Learn, Coursera); international programs and grants for prospective ESL teachers (Fulbright Foreign Language Teaching Assistant Program, ERASMUS +, etc.).

At the second level, within the middle-environment, the researchers have organized cooperation with related institutes and institutions within the region that carry out educational activities and promote professional training and self-realization in the educational environment. They include local authorities of educational institutions; the bases for practical training of prospective ESL teachers which cooperate with universities mentioned above (schools, colleges); libraries of different levels (Window on America, Access, Regional Training Center (RTC) in partnership with IREX, etc.), which provide the professional training of prospective ESL teachers.
The last level is the micro-environment, which offers complete interaction of Master students and teaching staff within the institution of higher education that provides professional training (institutes, faculties, departments). The micro-environment level involves three stages that coincide with the logic of the professional development of the individual (adaptation, professional transformation, and integration).

The researchers understand adaptation as an environment for the dynamic adjustment of ESL teachers in the local higher education institution. Since the adjustment is a process, it involves the total interaction of all participants in the educational process. To implement such a stage is possible at the expense of content; focus on the development of specialized competence in students; cooperation and collaboration of all participants of the educational process. The first criterion for the adaptation environment is the informational improvement of Master students ideas about the future professional activity of ESL teachers. It is possible to achieve by improving one’s resources and personal knowledge, skills, and abilities to function within quasi-professional events. The second criterion is self-awareness includes thinking oneself within the framework of future professional action and motivation to develop necessary competencies in the process of vocational training. The third is a change in self-attitude where students should regard themselves as prospective specialists with a focus on self-developing their skills within the individual working plans.

The second stage is a professional transformation, where the new mechanisms of professional behavior help to develop skills to find internal resources for the improvement and development of underdeveloped skills, which may need some correction. The functioning of such an environment should comply with the following principles. Firstly, the teaching staff should draw up personalized working plans to develop specialized competence. Those plans should be clear to all participants in the educational process. Secondly, the process of professional transformation itself should involve constant facilitation and mentor with detailed, comprehensive, and constructive feedback. Thirdly, the tasks for students should be creative and inclusive, with quasi-professional assignments encouraging to apply the acquired professional experience.

The next component of the environment is the integration stage. This stage is a set of content-related and organizational factors that allow prospective ESL teachers to integrate into a quasi-professional climate of an institution of higher education to effectively perform future professional activities at the last stage of their vocational training. Therefore, there is a need to organize the stage of complete integration of prospective ESL teachers into their future professional environment.

This stage includes the following conditions. First, there are plenty of activities initiating professional interaction of all participants of the educational process within the department or institute. In this context, students should be encouraged and involved as much as possible into work with junior students, as well as into an internal work of the department of the institution. Second, the involvement of prospective ESL teachers should provide an opportunity for their self-expression and creativity.

To plan the educational environment, the researchers used the model called MUSIC suggested by Jones (2009). This model allows influencing the level of learning motivation of...
prospective ESL teachers during their training at the university. The name of the model is the acronym, including (1) eMpowerment, (2) Usefulness, (3) Success, (4) Interest, (5) Caring (Jones, 2009). The model helps in teaching academic disciplines according to the components of MUSIC. Consequently, the researchers adapted the model to the specifics of their educational model.

Thus, under eMpowerment, the scholar understands that the students have extended powers so that they have the opportunity to self-control the process of their professional development (Jones, 2009). Therefore, the focus of ESL teachers training is on the series of activities that allow every student to adapt the educational material to their own pace of life and modify it to their educational goals. It implies that the content of each training course should be somewhat fluctuating and adaptable to change. It can also be supplemented by the information that future professionals perceive as essential for their future professional activities considering their educational goals. Thus, they will not be passive participants of training courses but will become co-participants and co-responsible developers together with their teachers.

The second component is Usefulness, which the author understands as the confidence of the course developer. Students understand the importance of educational material for their future professional development (Jones, 2009). In our context, students must be aware of why they study this particular theoretical or practical material and use it for their professional purposes. Therefore, teachers involved in creating an educational environment should focus on this issue and incorporate theoretical content into a quasi-professional context, visualize this knowledge in the process of practical tasks completing, and encourage students to active teaching activity during practical classes.

The researchers applied the marketing strategies ”The Golden Circle” suggested by Sinek (2011). In this context, the researchers suggest that any topic from the curriculum starts with the question of WHY?. It can help the university teachers recognize what competencies, knowledge, skills, and abilities students need to be competitive in the labor market. Why do they need to study the material? How necessary is this theoretical knowledge for a future professional career? The second question - HOW - should explain how students can achieve their professional goals. What are the most effective methods and technologies for them to become a proficient specialist? The last question - WHAT – answers what skills and abilities they must have to be successful and efficient teachers in the market of educational services. To implement the idea is possible during orientation classes before each discipline. In our opinion, this can be done most effectively with the help of training and game technologies.

The third element of the MUSIC model is Success. The author of the research interprets the component as students confidence that if they focus all their effort on their studies, they will succeed (Jones, 2009). The scholar believes that the training course must be supported by detailed instructions so that every student has the opportunity to succeed following them. Therefore, to create an educational environment, prospective teachers must clearly understand the requirements and expectations for the theoretical material. Additionally, the practical tasks should vary so that everyone can show their creativity at a personal level. In our opinion, creative assignments provide the best chance to realize the potential. Thorough and sound comments should follow practical tasks. It is vital to understand that the remarks as "you have done everything wrong…; rewrite it;
many mistakes…” cannot be judged as comprehensive. The comments should illustrate the level of students professional growth, explain in detail what they exactly need to correct or study, or research, and why. To do this, teachers who plan to create such an educational environment must comprehensively help students. They should not be just authoritarian examiners, but rather mentors willing to explain and teach.

The fourth component of the model is Interest. This component implies an understanding that the material chosen for professional training is exciting and will promote interest in future professionals (Jones, 2009). Interest in this context has two variations. On the one hand, it is a situational interest that equates to curiosity and has a temporary prolongation. On the other, personal or individual interest is specific and long-lasting (Schraw & Lehman, 2001). The task of professional training is to transform situational interest into an individual for further self-development (Jones, 2009). Hidi and Renningeer (2006) suggested a four-phase model of individual interest development, which the researchers adapted to the objectives of their model.

In the first phase, which includes triggered situational interest, it is essential to arouse physiological interest in students, demonstrating them quasi-professional settings and materials in different formats (audio or video). In this phase, future teachers will be able to compare the requirements to the profession and their level of professional development and lay the foundation for further self-development from the standpoint of greater interest. The second phase - maintained situational interest - proves the stability and better involvement of students in professional training. Within this phase, prospective teachers clearly understand the significance of each practical task, and actively participate in various quasi-professional tasks, testing their skills in different possible situations.

In the first two phases, it is necessary to plan situations arousing emotional interest and to plan assignments for the training courses considering professional and life experience. This trigger provides an opportunity for self-expression using personal behavioral stereotypes and tendencies.

The third phase - emerging individual interest - involves physiological state and is the initial stage of steady personal interest. In the context of professional training in this phase, future specialists have their ideas about quasi-professional tasks. Master students ask many questions about educational processes and look for options to develop their pedagogical style. The fourth phase - well-developed individual interest - includes physiological, long-term, and steady interest. Within the professional training, this interest is expressed in self-improvement and self-development, focus on lifelong learning, characterized by deep internal involvement in the task completing process.

In these two phases, prospective ESL teachers need to be given much self-control over their professional development. In the process of completing quasi-professional actions, it is vital to emphasize the dynamics of their professional development and encourage further self-development and self-improvement, demonstrating comprehensive support specific to the fifth component of the MUSUC model - Caring (Jones, 2009).
The author understands this component not only as simple attention during professional training but also as personal care (respect students private life, know their living or health conditions) (Jones, 2009). Thus, in the focus of professional training of prospective ESL teachers, it is essential to create an educational environment that would promote friendly relations between future professionals and university teaching staff. Students should feel parental mentoring and guardianship.

Data Analysis and Results

After implementing the suggested educational environment into the educational process, the researchers obtained results that prove its effectiveness in the process of professional training of prospective ESL teachers. Thus, 112 Master students have participated in the survey in 2020. According to the first criterion (readiness for professional activity), 78% of respondents showed their willingness; according to the second criterion (ability to use potential), 83% of respondents demonstrated it. According to the third criterion (ability to plan future professional growth), 79% of respondents showed positive results. Figure 1 represents the results of the analysis.

Discussion

The present paper provided the researchers with a clear picture of implementing the model of Educational Environment for Prospective Ukrainian ESL Teachers within CBE. The survey of Master students before implementing the model showed their negative attitudes towards many aspects of their professional training when getting the degree of ESL Teachers. Their responses clearly showed that they were unaware of and ignored some courses they thought did not match their learning outcomes. After having implemented the model, ESL teachers had found a variety of opportunities for pedagogical creativity and self-development in the professional educational environment, since everyone had their personal experience, personal qualities and cognitive abilities, character, cognitive style, etc. Consequently, the environment the researchers have developed and implemented, on the one hand, promoted self-development and self-actualization, and on the other - stimulated self-improvement and professional advancement of each participant of the pedagogical system.

The model provides the educational multi-structured environment, which is focused on the education of a proficient specialist. The specially arranged educational space, which is implemented within the educational model, considers the stages of professional development and...
triggers the potential of prospective ESL teachers. The obtained results prove the effectiveness of the suggested educational environment, which can be adapted for different purposes of professional training and preparation of specialists in various fields. As for recommendations, the researchers suggest, firstly, to consider every possibility to influence the personality of the students to develop their skills and reveal their potential for further self-development and self-improvement. Secondly, the institution of higher education should provide a perfect educational environment in the context of professional training of prospective ESL teachers. Finally, the teaching staff must be creative, self-critical, and willing to apply the model of educational environment that proved to be successful and efficient in the process of prospective ESL teachers training in Ukraine.

Conclusion

The given research proved that Ukrainian universities still face problems preparing the ESL teachers, though the CBE is very trendy. The literature review oriented researchers to model an educational environment based on the competency-based principles for Prospective Ukrainian ESL Teachers. The model was further implemented in two Ukrainian universities and encouraged positive changes in the education of Master students within a year and a half of the experiment.

However, the present study has some limitations that should be researched further. Firstly, only Master students getting the ESL teacher’s degree participated in the experiment. The same model can be applied to other levels of professional training. Secondly, it is reasonable and still vital to involve other Ukrainian universities in the experiment to provide more clear mapping and validity of the results. However, this research has raised the concern for educators to rethink the way the ESL teachers should be trained within the competency-based educational principles and has emphasized on searching for serious changes in the whole educational system of Ukraine.

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The Impact of Reflective Practice Questionnaires on Tertiary Language Education

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Abstract
The article deals with the impact of reflective practice questionnaires on Language for Specific Purposes teaching and learning at the tertiary education level. Reflection was recognized as an essential factor for improving teaching quality and students’ motivation to develop their skills in both native and target languages. To convey this idea, there was conducted a multistage survey to identify students’ language awareness and learning abilities, to examine their reflection on the course design and teacher’s performance, as well as to monitor their progress throughout the course. There was described a survey procedure with the samples of questionnaires to be used. The obtained findings allowed assessing the process of enhancing the quality of teaching and achieving learning outcomes by students. The authors suggested some practical techniques to help teachers apply meaningful strategies and guide their students through reflective learning by making them active participants in constructing knowledge and educational experiences.

Keywords: assessment, language education, quality, questionnaire, reflection

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Introduction
In the modern era of tough educational competition, higher education institutions strive to meet all the necessary standards and guidelines to ensure the highest quality and respond to growing expectations for higher education. Current academic guidelines envisage a more student-centered approach to learning and teaching, developing flexible learning paths and new forms of delivery and assessing educational provision (ESG, 2015). For this purpose, the interaction between teachers and students is needed to adjust diverse students’ abilities and their changing needs to the existing educational program to create “a supportive and effective learning environment for students” (ESG, 2015, p. 16). Therefore, in the constant search for the most efficient ways of providing successful teacher–course–student relationship, enhancing the overall effectiveness of instruction and achieving learning outcomes by students, most educators appeal to reflection or reflective practices to assess academic performance quality.

In tertiary education institutions, academic excellence demands creating the opportunities “to gain high-level language and cross-cultural communication proficiency that will serve them both professionally and personally in the global environment of the twenty-first century” (Long, 2017, p. 1). Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is an interdisciplinary field providing many of the student-centered, multidisciplinary curricular design elements and plays a crucial role in developing generic competences. LSP courses and programs offer students applied knowledge related to not only professional domains, but they also develop field-related communicative competence, critical thinking skills, and cognitive capacities. Hence, these courses may become such constructive environments, in which reflective practices become an effective technique to help instructors apply meaningful strategies and guide their students through reflective language learning.

Literature review
The human capacity for high-order critical thinking and our ability to make connections between thoughts and ideas are often referred to as reflection (Denton, 2011). Though there are discrepancies in its definition, researchers mostly agree on its main characteristics: persistent, active, and conscious consideration of the form of knowledge and recent experiences, and engaging learners with educational practices (Dewey, 2004); a meaning-making process that moves a learner from one experience into the next with a deep understanding of its relationships with and connections to other experiences and ideas; constant interaction and continuity (Rodgers, 2002); an analysis of experience or self-analysis, which activates learning and strengthens personal and professional efficiency (Bubnys, 2010); an essential practice in developing criticality and lifelong learning, which must be embedded in providing meaningful and productive teaching throughout the curricula (Bharuthram, 2018). Reflection is considered to facilitate academic mastery, foster critical thinking, and meaningful demonstration of learning, and contribute to personal growth and civic engagement (Ash, 2001). When considering the ways of becoming a reflective teacher, Brookfield (2017) identified reflection as one of the main practical tools that help align teaching with desired student outcomes, see teaching practice from new perspectives, engage learners via multiple teaching formats and model students’ critical thinking abilities. Reflections represent a process of considering one’s practice before, during, and after concrete activities: preparation and planning of teaching, its performance, guidance and course, classroom climate, evaluation of students’ progress (Maksimovic, 2018), and thus constant improvements. Moreover,
reflection forms a habit of continual learning from own experiences, framing, and reframing problems within broader perspectives (Kayapinar, 2016, p. 1672) aimed at taking action and making a difference in education.

Thus, reflection is regarded as a valuable activity for both teachers and students, which is based on metacognition or critical awareness and subsequent reconstruction of educational experiences implying interaction of all its participants that promotes “the desire to contribute to the larger good” (Rodgers, 2002, p. 847). In the realm of teaching, reflection implies promoting depth of understanding by applying a broad range of instructional approaches and conducting a thorough exploration of the impact of teacher’s actions and search for solutions to overcome the identified gaps and weaknesses. The completeness of the teacher’s own ability to design, observe, pay attention, perceive, and adjust their instruction would be disputable and almost improbable without systematic reflection on their professionalism and experience. In this case, both students and teachers share the responsibility for achieving learning outcomes, generating solutions, and developing short-term and long-term educational strategies. The process of reflection is believed to enhance one’s ability to think independently but in parallel to learning about teaching and learning (Newby, 2007), and to become “a core aspect of student-centered evaluation processes in higher education” (Iglesias et al., 2020). In response to reflection and collaborating with others, teachers explore and experiment with methodologies to make the most of their mission.

**Reflection in language teaching and learning**

Language, being the most useful medium of communication, allows people to express their thoughts and ideas in written and oral form. Language learning is claimed to be the process of constructing knowledge and skills which demands continuous restructurings, advances, retreats, and vacillations according to the student’s internal possessing of the information obtained (Usó-Juan, Ruiz-Madrid, 2007). It is the process which is highly dependent on prior linguistic knowledge, mental activities, and capabilities of elaborating, inferencing, and socially affective performance. These, among other reasons, spurred the need to identify the starting point in language learning and to understand better the factors that facilitate exploring motivation, readiness, and capacity for language learning experiences.

Bárcena et al. (2014) claim that LSP courses traditionally involve collaboration and interaction, innovation, and flexibility. Thus, reflective practices in language teaching-learning methodologies should be used to “rethink issues such as the relationship between learning and acquisition; the role of and types of previous knowledge; the relevance of communicative approaches; the relationship between language and cultures, and the role of self-assessment” (Usó-Juan, Ruiz-Madrid, 2007, p. 3). As a result, the teacher becomes a designer of not only teaching-learning situations favoring language acquisition but also language learning strategies for continuous progressing. Being engaged in sustained reflective practices, language practitioners are becoming committed to initiating change and integrating innovation into education (Cirocki, 2019).

The scope of our research embraces reflective practices in both native and target language courses in higher education institutions. The courses of Ukrainian for Specific Purposes (USP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in universities of Ukraine are mostly taught to students in
their junior years of university studies. They are aimed at fostering not only course target
competences, but also developing or contributing significantly to generic competences. They
create a “qualitative portfolio” (Kallioinen, 2010, p. 59) for further training and development of
professional competences. This is the reflection competence that can be used by students to
evaluate their learning and formulate a personal development plan; identify development
challenges and problems; assume a role in a group or team and learn to acquire and analyze
information systematically (Kallioinen, 2010). Thus, language courses can provide the basis for
developing reflective practices and enhancing quality assurance of reflective teaching and
learning.

Kayapinar (2016) considers reflective observation to be aimed at discussing “immediate
feedback on specific successful student engagement or confusing and problematic situations in the
classroom environment” (p. 1677). Identifying weaknesses and creating effective strategies to
improve teaching and shaping the activities are those skills that can be enhanced with the help of
reflective practices (Maksimovic, 2018). A prevailing communicative approach to learning
languages, context-based performance, meaning-focused interaction, and reflecting upon a
language seem to create an effective learning environment for reflective practices. Student
evaluations can be collected regularly, giving teachers opportunities to make real-time adjustments
to their teaching. Teachers learn about their students from feedback questionnaires “to build an
understanding of the needs of the student and plan for future work accordingly, the teacher is also
able to identify a student with specific learning difficulties, ascertain the nature of support they
need and put in place appropriate strategies and programs to enable them to cope with the particular
difficulties they are encountering” (Saefurohman & Balinas, 2016, p. 90). Quesada (2011) also
claims that reflective inquiry brings flexibility in instructional settings by helping teachers
examine successes and failures in a constructive environment and promote self-awareness and
knowledge through personal experience.

**Methods**
The subject of our research is a multistage survey procedure of using reflective practice
questionnaires to increase language teaching quality and enhance student engagement in quality
assurance. The research tasks are: (1) to examine students’ reflections as a changing factor of the
teaching performance and the ESP and USP courses content; (2) to suggest different forms of
reflective practices for students to evaluate their progress and teaching quality within the ESP and
USP courses; (3) to assess the implications of student feedback literacy for teaching and course
design.

Hundred Bachelor students majoring in Law (52 in USP course and 48 in ESP course) in
their junior years of university studies agreed on participation in the survey conducted during the
academic year 2018–2019. There was decided to combine the English (foreign) and Ukrainian
(native) languages for specific purposes although the goals, objectives, methods, and approaches
to their study are different because both these courses are targeted at achieving the same learning
outcome – to be able to create effective field-specific communication in native and target (foreign)
languages. The ESP course is preceded by the course of English as a Foreign Language and USP
during the first year of study at the university.

Technology-enabled approaches to feedback are believed to be more welcomed by students because they facilitate “timely and convenient sharing of comments” (Carless, 2018, p. 1317). We decided to collect primary data via free online surveys (Google forms) or open online polls on Telegram. These E-learning techniques enabled obtaining different data directly from the target group, eliminating interview bias, and providing anonymity for respondents.

Reflective teaching can generate written products that can be used for formative and summative assessment of student learning in an accessible way for both students and instructors (Ash, 2001). To develop effective feedback cycles and provide all-round implications of reflective practices, the survey procedure consisted of three stages embracing entry survey (language awareness and language style questionnaire); ongoing feedback processes conducted using messaging services on smartphones; self-assessment test; and a summative questionnaire (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Survey procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage</strong></td>
<td><strong>Questionnaire type</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Stage 1 | Quest. 1: Language awareness and language style questionnaire  
Quest. 2: Ongoing formative assessment |
| Stage 2 | Quest. 3: Ongoing formative assessment  
Quest. 4: Ongoing formative assessment |
| Stage 3 | Quest. 5: Self-assessment questionnaire  
Quest. 6: Summative questionnaire |

The survey data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods to answer the research questions. Descriptive analyses, including frequencies, percentages, and means, were used to summarize the distribution of the qualitative data.

Entry surveys provided additional information from the students that the teacher then used to improve the course content and teaching methods, ensuring student motivation and active engagement. Taking into consideration the students’ perspective and their learning style became a useful tool to find the factors that contributed to efficacious language learning.

Ongoing formative assessment, which had more to do with interactive, dynamic, and consistent feedback, was mostly used to monitor learners’ progress, identify the ways to help learners develop their abilities and achieve their goals, as well as eliminate the possible barriers on the way to their goals, and examine what changes the teacher needs to make. It involved such tools as short online in-lesson polls and self-evaluations with closed-response questions.

Summative reflective assessment practices were used to capture the whole picture of student’s progress and growth. They demonstrated the insights into the efficiency of the used methods and techniques, materials, and structure, followed by the overall course rating. The information provided by students’ responses becomes feedback only when students act on it to
improve work or learning strategies closely consistent with social constructivist learning theories (Carless, 2018). It helped recognize the implications of using this theory in practice and identify the reflective elements essential for teaching quality improvement (see Table 2).

Table 2 *Summative questionnaire*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 1</td>
<td>Teacher-specific: teaching methods, practices, clarity, and engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>The teacher used class time effectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>The teacher encouraged student participation in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>The teacher presented the course material in a clear manner that facilitated understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>The teaching methods were effective and aided in my learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>The teacher stimulated my interest in the subject matter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>The online course platform was updated, clear, and easy to work with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>The teacher created a welcoming and encouraging learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 2</td>
<td>Course materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>The classes, readings and assignments complemented each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>The instructional materials (i.e., handouts, multimedia, software) increased my knowledge and skills in the subject matter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>The course workload and requirements were appropriate for the course level and facilitated my learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>The tests/assignments accurately assessed what I learned during this course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>The course followed the syllabus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>The course environment was a welcoming place to express my ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 3</td>
<td>Student engagement and involvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>I attended the classes regularly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>I consistently prepared for classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>In this course, I was challenged to learn more than I expected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 4</td>
<td>Course structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>This course increased my interest in this field of study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>This course gave me the confidence to do more advanced work on the subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>My learning was fairly assessed (e.g., through oral and written tasks, tests, projects, and other graded work).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>The grading practices were fair and clearly defined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>This course was challenging.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 5</td>
<td>Student learning and course learning outcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>This course helped me develop intellectual capacity and critical thinking skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>My ability to identify, voice, and solve problems has increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>I am capable of using language-learning strategies to further individual progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>This course helped me further develop my writing ability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>The course improved my verbal communication skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>The course increased my ability to cooperate and work in teams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>The course increased my intercultural knowledge and language awareness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 6</td>
<td>Overall rating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>I would highly recommend this teacher to other students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>This course had a high educational impact.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>This course was useful to progress toward my degree.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Results and Discussion**

Our survey started with the entry questionnaire to define “the point of departure for the students’ learning” (Veine et al., 2020, p. 155).

Table 3 shows the results of the entry questionnaire that was taken by students-participants before the ESP and USP courses started. The questionnaire provided information about students’ self-assessment of their language awareness and their learning styles. The answers given did not present any significant discrepancies between students’ attitudes to studying native and target languages, except for Q2, Q5, Q6.

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Q9, Q13, and Q15. The answers to Q2 showed that students realized the potential of the English language knowledge that made them stand out. Responses to Q5 and Q6 revealed the students’ higher ability to express their opinions and ideas in Ukrainian than in English. Responding to Q9, they similarly found their Ukrainian language knowledge sufficient for a future successful career, which was proved by Q15 when they agreed on the possibility to work autonomously, which couldn’t be the case with the target language. The obtained answers to Q13 also presented the students’ higher ability to rely on listening rather than reading skills in Ukrainian, whereas the listening skills in English had to be improved.

Table 3. Results of language awareness and learning style questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Group of students</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Results, % agree</th>
<th>not sure</th>
<th>disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 1 I enjoy learning languages.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 2 My language proficiency makes me look more educated for people around me.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 3 I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning languages.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 4 When I am in my language class, I’m eager to volunteer answers as much as possible.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 5 I can easily express myself or explain something.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 6 I can clearly formulate opinions and discuss problems.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 7 I am ready to interact, communicate, and work in a team.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 8 I do not feel anxious when I speak in public.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 9 My language skills are sufficient for a successful career.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10 I remember things better when discussing them with somebody.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11 I remember something better when writing it down.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12 I learn better with visual images.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13 I prefer to learn by listening to the teacher rather than reading a text.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14 I need a lot of repetition and practice to remember things.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 I can develop my language skills autonomously.</td>
<td>USP st.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP st.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the results from Table 3 helped language teachers realize what group of students
they had to work with, as well as collect data on what teaching techniques to apply to reach each student and make the educational process more exciting and appealing.

Table 4 shows statistically significant differences in the data describing students’ perception of the teaching/learning processes collected in three steps: at the beginning (AS1), in the middle (AS2), and at the end (AS3) of the term. This ongoing evaluation revealed the tendency of improving the design of ESP and USP courses through the prism of students’ perception. Thus, the responses to Q1–Q4 demonstrated the shift to the increase of positive evaluation of the discussed items with each step, having the best results in the last one. Similarly did the answers to Q5, but the increase by 1% of the too-slow-pace option showed the difficulty in establishing the pace of learning within heterogeneous USP and ESP groups. However, this increase was minimal when compared to other data and didn’t deteriorate the overall positive dynamics of students’ satisfaction with the offered mode of teaching.

Table 4. Results of ongoing formative assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q No.</th>
<th>Group of students</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Assessment step</th>
<th>Results, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>too big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS1</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>AS2</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AS3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 offers the results of the self-assessment questionnaire, which we find obligatory in today’s language education. It allowed students to evaluate their advances in learning languages and distinguish
their gaps and weaknesses. The questionnaire was offered to students at the end of the USP and ESP courses. Their responses showed that the students progressed in learning both disciplines with no significant discrepancies between learners’ answers, except for Q4, where ESP students still lacked the necessary abilities to discuss and debate field-related topics.

Table 5. Results of self-assessment questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Group of students</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Results, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I find it easy to operate the field-specific vocabulary.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can read field-related texts for general information.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can read field-related texts for specific information.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can discuss and debate field-related topics.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can find and process field-related information from specialist literature.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can paraphrase, generalize, and summarize information.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can extract and interpret information from graphs.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can make presentations on field-related topics.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can write field-related documentation and reports.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can deal with business correspondence.</td>
<td>USP students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESP students</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data was generalized within each set of questions presented in Table 2 to analyze the summative questionnaire results. Table 6 shows the mean values of the results that revealed students’ responses. They supported the positive dynamics of students’ perception of the process of teaching and learning languages at the tertiary educational level. Thus, the group-relevant methods of teaching, the pace of learning, and the possibility for students to actively participate in designing the course turned them (students) from mere recipients of transmitted knowledge into...
active constructors of their learning environment with a deep understanding of what was learned, how it was taught, and what results were to be achieved. Thus, the students positively evaluated the course and most of them responded with the “agree”-option.

Table 6. Summative questionnaire results

| Question | Group of students | Number of students | Results, % | | |
|----------|-------------------|-------------------|------------|---|---|---|
| Q1       | Teacher-specific: teaching methods, practices, clarity and engagement | USP students | 52 | agree | 92 | 5 | 3 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 | not sure | 93 | 3 | 4 |
| Q2       | Course materials   | USP students | 52 | disagree | 87 | 3 | 10 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 |            | 86 | 5 | 9 |
| Q3       | Student engagement and involvement | USP students | 52 | agree | 82 | 11 | 7 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 | not sure | 84 | 7 | 9 |
| Q4       | Course structure   | USP students | 52 | agree | 80 | 15 | 5 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 | not sure | 84 | 12 | 4 |
| Q5       | Student learning and course learning outcome | USP students | 52 | disagree | 91 | 5 | 4 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 |            | 93 | 4 | 3 |
| Q6       | Overall rating     | USP students | 52 | disagree | 88 | 8 | 4 |
|          |                    | ESP students | 48 |            | 89 | 7 | 4 |

Though feedback processes in higher education are commonly misunderstood, difficult to carry out effectively, and do not fulfill their aspiration of significantly influencing student learning (Boud and Molloy, 2013; Evans, 2013), we found student ratings a vital source of evidence of teaching effectiveness and learners’ performance. Students were highly involved in reshaping the educational process through their engagement in reflective practices, which strengthened their reflective literacy. They showed positive motivational beliefs. They were encouraged to identify what good performance and goals were as well as to provide quality information about their learning. Based on findings, persistent efforts were made to develop and update the learning materials and the course syllabus, to support students’ learning and assessment through reflection. Though textbooks have always been seen as a static and relatively inflexible means of learning support, student feedback reflected students’ interests. It encouraged teachers to look for contexts and examples beyond the textbook to make learning more relevant and meaningful according to students’ cognitive and emotional growth.

Conclusions
It can be argued that students are mere education service consumers. However, from the standpoint of student-centered and constructivism approaches, students are active builders of their knowledge basing on their own experience. The process under study enabled providing the opportunities to engage students in constructing their learning environment via participating in the survey at different stages of studying ESP and USP according to the offered survey procedure.

Reflective practice questionnaires via E-forms enable educators to monitor students’ progress quickly and cheaply, to collect reliable and essential information on improving the course content, teaching methods, and pace of learning. Assessment procedures can provide a continuous picture of the learner’s ongoing progress and become a valuable tool for self-assessment. The questionnaires and polls can be used as formative and summative evaluation, implying both regular corrections to continuous teaching practices.
and making strategic decisions about introducing changes to the course syllabus essentials.

Based on the obtained results, students reflecting on their own and teacher’s activities became highly motivated in studying ESP and USP. They could develop critical thinking on their language learning and evaluate their performance. Teachers could collect effective feedback that was used to help shape the teaching and modernize the content. Thus, such a collaborative and reflective environment provided the opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance, i.e., to identify missing students’ language skills and find optimal ways to improve teacher’s performance by tailoring content and methods used.

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References


Teaching Anti-Utopian/Dystopian Fiction in RFL/EFL Classroom as Intercultural Awareness Raising Tool

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Abstract
The article sets out to explore and substantiate the effectiveness of using anti-Utopian and dystopian fiction in teaching intercultural communication. It is based on the lasting experience of teaching Russian and English languages and cultures to students from many European, Asian, and African countries trained as Russian and English philologists at the Kyiv National Linguistic University. Intercultural literacy is one of the conditions sine qua non for successful communications and career in the rapidly globalizing world. Intercultural awareness in the Foreign Language Classroom can be raised by incorporating literary texts written in target languages into the curriculum. In addition to being instrumental for acquiring linguistic prowess, they can also play a substantial part in fostering (inter)cultural competences in non-native speakers. The two texts by contemporary Russian and British writers (Tatiana Tolstaya’s *The Slynx* and Jeannette Winterson’s *The Stone Gods*) were selected as case studies due to their artistry in addressing familiar and relevant human concerns, while containing specific cultural codes to be deciphered and understood by the international students. It was established that the success of the teaching/learning process relies on the interactive dialogic qualities inherent in the texts under study and enabling comparative, interdisciplinary, and cross-cultural approaches to them, thus contributing to the formation of full-fledged intercultural speakers. As demonstrated by the article, current dystopian fiction may serve as an efficient tool in enhancing intercultural competence in international students.

Keywords: anti-Utopia, dystopia, intercultural awareness, linguistic and intercultural competences, literature in foreign language learning

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I. Introduction.

Recent decades have seen a pronounced shift of focus in Foreign Language Learning (FLL) from the acquisition of merely linguistic skills and competences to a broader objective of gaining intercultural prowess. As Gonzalez Rodriguez and Puyal put it, “the linguistic aspect of language learning has been played down in favor of an intercultural competence framework where learners can acquire skills that enable them to explore cultural complexity and enhance cultural understanding” (Gonzalez Rodriguez & Puyal, 2012, p.105). Currently, the Kyiv National Linguistic University provides training in what is traditionally referred to as Russian and English Philology to the students from twenty-six countries with diverse backgrounds and cultures. Since philology serves in Ukraine as an umbrella term for language and literature studies, literature-based courses (Literary Studies Today, Theory of Literature, Contemporary Russian and British Fiction) complement standard language teaching academic disciplines. In conducting these courses, we rely on the comparative approach encouraging the students to transcend cultural boundaries, enhancing their awareness of inevitable limitations in their native culture-bound worldview, and exposing them to intercultural experiences. These dynamics, in their turn, facilitate the students’ adaptation in a non-native environment. Multi-vector literary flows delineate border zones where students become more open and responsive to foreign aesthetic and moral values and co-opt them into one meta cultural space without rejecting the standards of their native cultures.

Among literary genres selected for the syllabi, Russian and British anti-Utopian and dystopian fiction figures prominently featuring (often apocalyptic) visions of the future and, therefore, presenting particular interest for young learners. In addition to classical texts in these genres authored by Yevgeny Zamyatin, George Orwell, and Aldous Huxley, the students can delve into more up-to-date (un)desirable futures imagined by late 20th – early 21st centuries British and Russian / Ukrainian writers.

The article sets out to explore the educational possibilities inherent in the works by two contemporary Russian and English writers – The Slynx by Tatiana Tolstaya and The Stone Gods by Jeannette Winterson to foster foreign learners’ intercultural competence (ICC). The choice is due to the shift of focus in the utopian and dystopian fiction. Though the problem of “individual versus totalitarian regimes” that had previously dominated the genre has not, unfortunately, lost its relevance, the turn of the 21st century spotlighted other global concerns. These include environmental and anthropogenic problems, biogenic engineering, cloning, space conquest as a new frontier, increasingly fluid gender roles, and (the future now become fearsome reality) world-scale pandemics. The current utopian and dystopian writings often tackle these and other urgent global matters. The selected texts address many of them in culturally specific ways offering a vast and fertile interpretative field for intercultural explorations.

2. Theoretical Background of the Research

2.1. Intercultural Awareness through Literature

In this article, “culture” is understood not as once prevalent “capital C” concept implying “high culture” (Th. Carlyle’s “body of arts and learning” or Matthew Arnold’s “the best which has been thought and said in the world”), but rather in its broader anthropological meaning as “sum total of behavior patterns, arts, values, beliefs, institutions, and other products of work and thought characteristic of a people and socially transmitted” (Vann Woodward, 1998, p. 55), as well as...
customs, mores, and manners. Moreover, we tend to agree with Piller (2017) that “for intercultural communication studies, to be meaningful in an increasingly interconnected world <…>, they need to eschew a priori definition of culture” (Piller, 2017, p.7). Instead, “culture and cultural difference should be made relevant by and to the participants as something that is created and recreated through text or talk” (Piller, 2017, p. 7).

The need for intercultural training derives from the current state of our rapidly globalizing world, presupposing enhanced mobility of national/ethnic groups and individuals, integrated economies, and intensive planet-wide electronic communications. To prevent “encounters between civilizations” from turning into (already happening) “clashes of civilizations” (Samuel Huntington), it is necessary to equip diverse human contingents with practical intercultural experiences. According to Alred et al. (2003), it is through them that people born and socialized into specific groups and assuming their values and conventions to be “natural” and universal, may start questioning them and thus become more flexible and empowered to deal with contemporary realities. Various aspects of this problem are discussed in Sercu (2005), Fenner (2006), Byram (2008). Thus, the ultimate product of foreign language teaching should be an “intercultural speaker”, that is, “the language learner who also acquires knowledge and skills of cultural mediation or interpretation and not just a linguistic competence modeled on a native speaker” (Alred et al., 2003, p.2). Foreign language learners should be trained as “‘critical’ intercultural beings capable of actively engaging in a dialogue that transcends boundaries – real and imagined” (Dasli & Diaz, 2018, p. XI). The problem gets increasingly pressing since, according to Stadler (2020), the complicated and unpredictable nature of current global interactions makes intercultural encounters more prone to conflict. Despite active discussion on how to accomplish this goal, “educators are still looking for effective techniques and approaches that allow language teachers in the 21st century to teach culture in ways that promote authentic communication” (Dema & Moeller, 2012, p. 78).

National literature representing “the personal voice of a culture” (Fenner, 2001, p. 16) is widely recognized as one of the best vehicles for transmitting specific cultural patterns, including both cognitive and affective components, the latter conducive for the better appropriation of the former. Narančić-Kovač and Kaltenbacher have every reason to claim that “teaching literature in the foreign language context best supports intercultural awareness”, while also performing other user-beneficial functions, such as promoting “learners’ problem-solving strategies, creativity, and their critical thinking and reading skills”(2006, p. 84). Bassnett and Grundy (1993), Clandfield (2004), and other researchers articulated similar views. Thus, “literature largely changes the context and the scope of FLL; it redefines foreign language teaching, shifts its focus towards new goals, and makes it more relevant in terms of the complex needs of contemporary learners as participants in global communication”(Narančić-Kovač & Kaltenbacher, 2006, p. 78). Company et al. (2019) make a convincing case for including literary texts in the EFL curriculum as essential in the development of ICC because they are “samples of authentic language in use; introduce voices from different cultural backgrounds; contribute to raising cultural awareness; promote discussion and positioning” (Company et al., 2019, p.55).
2.2. Anti-Utopias and Dystopias

Our students coming from different cultural backgrounds are subject and susceptible to the exterior and interior transformations caused, among other factors operating in our “liquid modernity” (Bauman), by non-stop elaboration and upgrading of electronic technologies. The digital era nurtures in society, including students, new psychological and reflective misgivings regarding an unpredictable future. Therefore, alarmism has been steadily moving center stage in sociology and psychology, philosophy and literary studies.

Fiction and film generically respond to this situation in anti-Utopias and dystopias centered on modeling the future and provoking in readers/viewers brainstormsts necessary to avoid its catastrophic scenarios. In the educational context, their principal function may be defined as orienting younger generations towards seeking solutions for contemporary planet-scale problems and making the world more co-habitable for diverse cultural traditions.

Consensus has not yet been reached about the boundaries between the genres, with some scholars tending to conflate them (see, for example, Hoda, 1990). In his seminal study, though, G.S. Morson emphasizes the difference between them, asking the question of whether the author debunks the myth of the paradise to come as hostile to an individual (anti-Utopia), or denounces today’s hell projected and aggravated into the future (dystopia) (Morson, 1981, pp. 115-141). Some scholars stress the potential of dystopia as the “extrapolation from the present that involved warning” (Sargent, 1994, p. 8), implying “that a choice and, therefore hope, are still possible” (Sargent, 1994, p. 26). Booker (1994) and Moylan (2000) also draw a demarcation line between the genres. A contemporary scholar specifies dystopias on the following grounds:

“a) they do not presuppose or effect a total rejection of the Utopian impulse <…> as such; b) their criticisms are emphatically subjective, i.e., explicitly marked as originating from the position of a concretely situated subject <…>; c) they are overwhelmingly narrative, rather than argumentative, in nature, <…>; d) their orientation is politically and ideologically ambiguous, precisely for that reason” (Balasopoulus, 2011, p. 63).

As critical to dystopian vision, Moylan accentuates the narrative zooming on one of the subjects of anti-human social environment projected into the future with the storyline developing around the “alienated protagonist as she or he begins to recognize the situation for what it really is and thus to trace the relationship between individual experience and the operation of the entire system” (Moylan, 2000, p. XIII; Afakan, 2017). It makes sense to identify the novels by Tolstaya and Winterson as dystopias as they possess typical genre characteristics modified in each case by national traditions and individual quirks.

Living in a pandemic makes dystopias even more relevant for many readers as instruments of coping with this horrifying experience. Such kind of books, Zielinski (2020) argues, “featuring bleak futures, where people are forced to grapple with new devastating realities wrought by climate change, biowarfare, pandemics, totalitarian governments or technology”, can provide some relief to the readers finding themselves in similar, even though less dire, circumstances.
2.3. *Post-Humanism*

A substantial corpus of present-day anti-Utopian and dystopian fiction incorporates ideas put forward by Post-Humanism, a relatively novel cross-disciplinary trend in the humanities. Steve Nichols made an early attempt to delineate its contours in his *Post-Human Movement Manifesto* (1988). Nichols urged humans to take a new evolutionary step through relinquishing their programmed anthropocentric “regime of operation” as incapable of meeting modern challenges (Nichols, 1988). The following years saw the rapid development of Post-Humanist thought (Hayles (1999), Badmington (2000), Haraway (2008), Wolfe (2010), and others), with Pepperell proclaiming the present to be “The Post-Human Condition” (Pepperell, 1995). The principal tenet of this mindset is the need for reconsidering ever more complicated relations between the humans and nature and/or technology, giving up their Renaissance-engendered self-aggrandizing as unacceptable and obsolete “species-ism” (Wolfe, 2010, p. XIV).

3. Methods of Research

Relying upon comparative analysis of British and Russian literary texts and their screen versions, where available, an attempt is made to fashion a learning platform operating under global pandemic conditions. Significantly, anti-Utopian and dystopian films facilitate students’ comprehension of the original texts read not in their native, but in foreign languages – English or Russian – activating various perception channels and resulting in a more integrated learning effect. Interdisciplinary approaches coupled with cross-disciplinary and trans-disciplinary elements (see, particularly, Ausburg, 2006) secure the better acquisition of the material (see Figure 1).

We share the proposition that commonly useful activities in using literature in language classrooms are “mostly based on the dialogic nature of a literary text” (Narančić-Kovač & Kaltenbacher, 2006, p. 86). Open-ended questions and interactive practices are, in this respect, the best way for the teacher to accomplish educational goals.

![Interpretative approaches in comparative analysis of fiction](image-url)
4. Discussion.

4.1. Literary and social contexts


4.2. “The Slynx” as a Grotesque Dystopian Compendium of Russian Literary Culture

Tatiana Tolstaya, best known worldwide for her caustic essays and short stories, amazed her fans by writing a dystopia. Besides its genre, her novel *The Slynx* is also unusual in its unique archaized language reminiscent of the old Russian chronicles, and in relying upon the narrative strategies imitating the conventions of skaz (a traditional Russian form of oral narrative). The “brave new world” depicted in *The Slynx* emerged from a global nuclear explosion exterminating nearly the whole population (at least, that is what old legends say). The humans born over the next couple of centuries suffer from all kinds of mutations (“Consequences”) that might assume the shape of fish scale and gills, or a coxcomb, or a tail with claws. These creatures/people inhabit the city once referred to as Moscow. Tolstaya treats transformations caused in human physical appearance and psyche by the long-term consequences of a large-scale nuclear explosion in a detailed and scary manner, endowing her novel with “horror” and Gothic overtones.

The characters seem to inhabit two realities at once. On the one hand, their minds still bear the reverberations of the lost Russian civilization with its arts and literature, its universities and intelligentsia kept alive through occasional surviving texts distorted in the course of continuous faulty rewriting. Meanwhile, original printed books of the past are under a strict ban since the authorities believe they could trigger mental revival and turn unseemly creatures into human rebels. On the other hand, the people are scared by the new horrifying reality. The site of former Moscow is taken by the town of Fedor-Kuzmichsk, surrounded by dense woods and marshes, the home of unfathomable and terrifying Slynx embodying all subconscious Freudian anxieties: “If you wander into the forest, it jumps on your neck from behind: hop! It grabs your spine in its teeth – crunch – and picks out the big vein with its claw – and breaks it. All the reason runs right out of you. If you come back, you're never the same again <…> (Tolstaya, 2003, p. 4).

The writer places her characters into the world of Russian folktales (*The Bun* (Gingerbread Man), *Riaba the Hen, The Turnip*) and of Pushkin’s *Lukomorye* (meadow on the seashore, the fairy-tale locus described in the prologue to his poem *Ruslan and Lyudmila*) speckling her text with numerous verse quotes from Pushkin, Lermontov, Blok, Tsvetayeva, Okudzhava…. But the Blast has turned Pushkin’s fairy-tale topos into a different kind of place altogether portrayed with ironic
pessimism. With “green oak-tree” gone, there is no longer a “learned cat” walking around on a chain, and, consequently, the grey mice had bred in enormous qualities, becoming the staple food and the main currency for the mutants. Mice and Slynx are the two pillars on which their new lifestyle rests.

It is the text’s rich, albeit parody-like and ironic, intertextuality that makes it a good read for advanced level Russian language learners. In her striving to remind the readers about the gorgeous cultural epochs, now extinct, Tolstaya saturates her story with references, direct quotations, and allusions making it an inexhaustible treasure-trove of Russian cultural matrices. In the defamiliarized context, international students can revisit familiar texts through a different (dystopic) prism and thus embrace them in a new light. In the novel, however, lofty poetic stanzas alternate in the protagonist’s mind with his primitive thoughts and desires. Nevertheless, following the humane traditions of classical Russian literature, Benedikt’s final soliloquy almost wholly consisting of famous classical citations (Pushkin, Nekrasov, Pasternak…) arouses sympathy and commiseration:

"I only wanted books – nothing more – only books, only words, it was never anything but words! <…> What is in my name for you? Why does the wind spin in the gully? <…>? What do you want, old man? <…> Grab the inks and cry! Open the dungeon wide! I'm here! I'm innocent! I'm with you!!" (Tolstaya, 2003, p.111).

Thus, drawing upon literary and folklore imagery, the writer interweaves threads of various cultural codes – from fairy tales oral rhetoric through detailed realistic/naturalistic descriptions to impressive apocalyptic visions – into her intertext.

Still, Tolstaya’s grotesque world is not hopeless: even though the society had reversed far back, the humans eventually start regenerating. The main spiritual treasure of any civilization – the texts – had made it into the dark times. It is the attitude towards them that would determine the path to be taken by humankind: further degeneration and mutation, or revival and return to the fold of culture. It is by no accident that the book chapters bear the letter names from the Old Russian alphabet as if to assert the importance of literacy for human survival as a species.

4.3. Fighting Species Stereotypes in Jeanette Winterson’s dystopia “The Stone Gods”

Unlike Tolstaya’s sophisticated cultural lingo, Winterson’s dystopic novel is written in relatively simple English, enabling EFL learners to focus on its contents. The writer embraces the fundamental postulates of Ecofeminism – a strand in Post-Humanism identifying societal practices of ruthless exploitation of women and the environment by patriarchal systems and postulating unique relations between these two traditional objects of domination. Besides, specific female physiology and the distribution of gender roles in (post)industrial societies contribute to mystifying their kinship. In her much-anthologized 1985 essay, Cyborg Manifesto, Haraway supplements women and nature with technology. She uses the term “cyborg” to describe a new symbiotic entity resulting from the combination of the human and the technological, as a metaphor for a liberation strategy. For her, cyborg symbolizes the violation of three essential boundaries: between the animal and the human; between the animal-human and the machine; and, finally, between physical
and non-physical (Haraway, 1991, p. 152). Thus, the cyborg myth has considerable potential as an instrument for re-conceptualization and redistribution of power relations in society.

It is from this position that a cyborg character is used in The Stone Gods. As in other Winterson’s books, her multilayered text presents a fanciful mish-mash of chronotopes; the reality of late capitalist society dons fantastic masks, and feminist issues are treated in an unexpectedly grotesque vein. Present-day flaws are masterfully projected into an imagined future. The planet Orbus is divided into zones of influence between the Central Power (i.e., Western technocracies), the Eastern Caliphate, and the SinoMosco Pact (the names are telling enough). The planet’s natural resources are depleted, and the Central Power’s high-tech civilization is planning mass migration to a newly discovered Blue Planet (easily recognizable as our own Earth in prehistoric times). The author makes no attempts to conceal her dystopia’s generic continuity concerning famous models by Huxley, Orwell, and Zamyatin, evident in how she depicts total control exercised by society over individuals and its merciless disposal of free-thinkers. Concomitantly, the focus on technicalization and robotization of life brings to their logical conclusion alarming trends of our times.

On the one hand, following the dystopian formulaic conventions, the female journalist Billy Crusoe (the story’ first-person narrator) is an anti-conformist not fitting into the framework of hedonistic mechanized society consequently provoking suspicion, mistrust, and persecution on its part. Her “male” first and second names are meaningful, hinting at her “manly” characteristics and her future replaying of DeFoe’s Robinson’s destiny in the epoch of space conquests ending up on an uninhabited planet. She lives in a natural sanctuary, on an authentic ancient farm surrounded not by robots but by living animals and plants. She also declines eternal youth and beauty enjoyed by everyone on Orbus thanks to genetic engineering, and she even assists rebellious exiles. Thus, the readers are introduced to the ecofeminist motif of the alliance between woman and nature against the oppressive system in which masculinity equals mechanization. It is soon joined, however, by the third ingredient – technology, in the figure of a gorgeous cyborg Spike, a unique female Robo Sapiens. With her mission accomplished, the robot is to be dismantled. Billy, however, falls in love with Spike and assists the cyborg in her flight from the lab. The rest of the action abounds in adventures typical of popular fiction but with a tragic ending.

Of particular interest for readers in a learning environment is how the author addresses philosophical and anthropological issues, such as the porosity of boundaries between humans and the human-made, between the flesh and the metal. Students are encouraged to trace the production of this effect by focusing on recurrent text parallels between the “living” and the “mechanical”. For example, when Spike is subject to data draining, “she looks like she’s giving blood. I suppose she is – the data she stores is her life’s blood, and when it’s gone, so is she” (Winterson, 2009, p.27). The story of the relationship between Billy and Spike, two females belonging to different species and dying on the snow-swept Blue Planet, translates theoretical Post-Humanist speculations into the realm of emotions and imagery. Winterson impels the young readers to apply the cyborg metaphor for a better understanding of the complicated relations between human beings and the rest of the world and to think afresh about what Donna Haraway nicknamed “a nasty developmental infection called love”, without which any human future would feel dystopian.
5. Conclusion

The comparative study of Russian and British dystopian novels in the RFL/EFL classroom helps raise the international students’ awareness of the genre’s premonitory warning nature and the alarming consequences for human civilization ensuing from information overloads, accelerated life pace, anthropogenic disasters, and radical social and ecotechnogenic transformations. By exposing foreign language learners to the disturbing visions of the future generated in various cultural contexts, it is possible to alert them to distinctive differences without breeding hostility towards them, but, on the contrary, confirming the belief in the fundamental unity of humankind.

The juxtaposition of dystopic protagonists from various cultures encourages the students to construct their typology as bearers of humanistic ethical values opposing the techno-consumer civilization of the 21st century and its ideological and mythological structures. The writers’ tragic world view typical of the transition era prompts the students to seek spiritual and moral mainstays to support them in a new and challenging stage of history. In their culturally shaped depictions of the painful transition to Post-Human dimensions, contemporary authors offer socio-humanitarian paradigms vital for our future cohabitation on the planet Earth. Therefore, they are a must for international language and culture student entities entrusted with a mission to carry them on to their communities.

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Digital Narrative as A Method of Emergency Distance Learning

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Abstract
The article deals with digital narrative, which is introduced as a method of emergency distance learning. In the paper, the results of the interviews of the first and second year students of O.M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv concerning the quick transition to the entirely online teaching mode are presented, the advantages and disadvantages of the emergency distance learning are analysed with the reference to the Ukrainian cultural context. It is emphasized that the modern form of blended learning can be the most effective mode of training if it combines traditional face-to-face classes with online forms of educational communication, which can be easily transformed into emergency distance learning with the entirely remote access. The article constitutes digital narrative as one of the forms of transformation of traditional education into the emergency distance learning. The algorithm for implementing the digital narrative technology in teaching English and Ukrainian as foreign languages is presented. In the article, the discussion components that can be problematic for using digital narrative technology in the process of emergency distance learning are pointed out. In conclusion, the authors resume that the technology of digital narrative as a form of emergency distance learning proved its efficiency in the study of languages both in the face-to-face classes and in the emergency distance learning mode, it has a strong transformational power and can be used for teaching various academic disciplines.

Keywords: algorithm, digital narrative, emergency distant learning, foreign languages teaching

Introduction
The challenges for traditional education, which have arisen recently due to the spread of the coronavirus epidemic, have made for the necessity of radical changes of the forms, methods and conditions in the organization of the academic process at modern universities. Many educators have quickly shifted their courses to the online format, and they are seeking the ways of effectively integrating technology into their classes and keeping students engaged. Certainly, the commitment to classical face-to-face education for both teachers and students is explained primarily by the desire to stay in the comfort zone, avoiding additional factors (consistency of technical communication channels’ operation, limit of time, etc.) which is characterized by a certain level of unpredictability. However, no matter how much we want to remain in the educational space that is clear to all the subjects of study, the external conditions make it necessary to find new communication channels that allow us to implement the learning process in isolation.

If we consider distance learning as a panacea for the replacement of traditional education, we must pay attention to the risks of reducing its quality, which arises in the processes of distance learning and teaching. Long-term testing with constant adjustment of the algorithms of the distance learning platforms in order to ensure their quality performance should be taken into account. In this aspect, we note the planned use of distance learning including such platforms as Moodle, Google classroom and more. In fact, before the pandemic, these platforms were frequently used as a means of complementary training to traditional learning, subject (disciplinary) products that were downloaded into them, had been carefully planned for a long time, developed and tested in each element critical for the effectiveness: content, forms of control, evaluation algorithms, timing results, etc. These operating procedures are typical for a course development in the distance-learning format. In particular, the researchers focus on the advantages distance-learning has in different situations both in class and outside the school (Bakia & Means & Murphy, 2014), the pedagogical design that requires decisions on specific procedures and rules on every step of the process (Jakes & Brennan & 2005; Jacobsen, 2001), the interactivity of this mode of teaching that makes students play an active role of problem solvers (Simonok & Zelinska, 2017), a radical pedagogical shift in on-line teaching from teacher-centered approaches to multi-dimensional models of teaching (Natarajan, 2005), etc.

An emergency transfer of the educational process into entirely distance learning in spring of 2020 brought a challenging situation for the developers of distance services as it raised the problem of simultaneous quality assurance of teaching all the courses at the school or university, checking the students’ involvement and performance, as well as reporting on the quality of the educational results (in the form of examinations and final tests). It should be noted that scholars have already responded to the problem of rapid transfer to learning on online platforms, given this process the name of emergency distance learning (Chun-Ming Hun & Gwo-Jen Hwang & Iwen Huang, 2012). According to the authors, emergency remote teaching (ERT) is a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to the crisis circumstances. It involves the use of fully remote teaching solutions for instruction or education that would otherwise be delivered face-to-face or as blended or hybrid courses and that will return to that format once the crisis or emergency has abated. The primary objective in these circumstances is not to re-create a new educational system but rather to provide temporary access to instruction and instructional
supports in a manner that is quick to set up and is reliably available during an emergency or crisis (Chun-Ming Hun et al., 2012).

Three months, which were spent in the quarantine by Ukrainian teachers and students have provided an opportunity to reflect on distance learning conducted in an emergency format, in particular, to understand the challenges to education that can be renewed systematically with the emergencies that can arise.

To get the opinions of the students as for their experience of studying, the first and second year students majoring in "Philology" at O.M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv have been interviewed about the advantages and disadvantages of the emergency distance learning.

Among the advantages which we ranked according to the frequencies of mentioning the following aspects were referred to:

- Saving time and money on travel to the university (64%);
- Ability to listen to the lecture in recording at any convenient time (54%);
- Presentation of all lectures in a slide show mode, which allows receiving professionally systematized educational information accessible for reception (33.5%);
- Choice of convenient time and pace to prepare for classes (28%);
- Development of computer fluency (13.5%);
- Development of the skills to systematize educational material (in the process of creating presentations) so that it can be perceived logically by a group of peer students (3%).

The disadvantages of organizing and implementing emergency distance learning according to the respondents were the following:

- A large number (compared to face-to-face training) of independent individual work (66%);
- Instability of the Internet connection, and / or the personal computers are not modernized enough to use the platforms for distance learning offered by the university (44%);
- Lack of live communication with the teachers, classmates, lack of opportunity to work in groups in real mode (simultaneous disputing of urgent issues, having discussions, etc.) (40%);
- Insufficiently developed time management skills (it is difficult to organize one's own time for learning) and factors that distract from concentrating on educational material (35%);
- The temptation to use Internet resources in the process of tests writing, which interferes with correct evaluation of the student’s knowledge and skills (28%);
- Continuous work with a computer in the online regime brings fatigue (26%);
- Inability to use traditional learning infrastructure: library resources, counseling centers, technical support, public communication areas (20%), etc.

Naturally, among the benefits of distance learning, the students who belong to the “digitally native” generation pointed out that no time is wasted in going to and from the university. Besides, a possibility to spare funds is marked, which is important for many families in the country nowadays. According to the respondents, distance education is an option that allows to stay in the comfort of their homes. Additionally, the students can learn at their own pace as different people have their different learning styles and tempo. Modern Ukrainian students also appreciate the opportunity to develop their digital fluency while working with computer programs. On the other
side, it has been registered that distance education limits social interaction and requires the use of complex technology as well as stable Internet connection that can be problematic in the distant parts of the region. Primarily, the students of the university miss the communication with their peers and teachers, feel negatively about the lack of immediate feedback from their instructors they enjoy in face-to-face interaction, they feel socially isolated without contacts with their peers and the learning environment. As the results of the research prove, lack of interaction belongs to the most remarkable problems of distance learning and teaching, therefore, the educators should look for the most suitable mode of teaching and learning keeping in mind possible situations of emergency and make a search for the applicable forms of training.

Thus, the students have confirmed our assumption that the modern form of blended learning can be the most effective mode of teaching and learning in the Ukrainian context nowadays. It allows combining traditional face-to-face classes with the distance learning forms of training and, if necessary, can be easily transformed into the emergency distance learning having entirely remote access. At the same time, scholars agree: it is a challenging task for both developers of distance learning platforms and teachers-methodologists to choose the most effective methods, tools, techniques for creation and implementation of blended learning courses and instructing teachers for using these tools in their teaching environment (Bassili, 2008; British Council, 2013). Consequently, the problem of determining the methodological principles of teaching that allow achieving positive educational results most comfortably in cases of emergency transferring into its distance form as well as specification of the most suitable technologies of training issues the challenge to scientific discussions.

**Method**

One of the forms of traditional learning that can be effectively transformed into the emergency distance learning is digital narrative (storytelling) (creating a story using digital technology). The discussion on the name of this technology of teaching, presented in the work of N. Bondarenko (2019), allows to use it as a temporary term based on the original name in English, which literally means “telling stories”. However, over time, the unrenderable term has been replaced by a more international and understandable for use in the professional environment “digital narrative”, where the word “narrative” means a self-created story about several related events, and the definition of “digital” indicates the technological relevance of such a story, which is created using Internet technologies. In addition, the extensive interpenetration of different branches of science into the digital narrative should be noted, namely, sociology, journalism, media, advertising, PR-communication, linguistics, psychology, theater (in particular, directing), etc.

Classic storytelling is used in journalism in order to attract wide audience to a specific problem presented or the publication (channel) as a whole. According to media and advertisers, effective storytelling is created on the basis of an exciting and / or useful content (theme / plot), effective visualization (photo shoots, ambient video, illustrations, infographics), a challenging title (an apt quotation or number), distribution of text insets (repetition of particularly intriguing quotations from the text in highlighted font), the presence of “social buttons” that remain in sight during page scrolling (Istrate, 2009).
The advantages of digital narrative as a method of emergency distance learning as well as blended learning are its versatility and interactivity, which is critical for the psychological relief for the students being in isolation taking into account that Ukrainian students are used to live in the tradition of collectivism and team communication. Thus, when creating digital narrative products, their authors work as a team (which implies the need for interaction). However, the need for live communication is not so acute due to the fact that everyone has their own role in the teamwork: plot creation, interviewing people, text creation, text recording and presentation, working with picture and sound in the video, etc.

Digital narrative combines traditional narration with visuals and soundtracks while using new computer technologies to edit and share the story. The implementation of digital narrative makes students conduct extensive research on the topics they have chosen, create or find appropriate visuals and images to convey targeted ideas, as well as the best media for the presentation. Students can discuss controversial matters of the public and academic life, issues of democratic development, professional ethics, remarkable events, etc.

The key task of the digital narrative is writing a script, editing and peer editing it that contributes greatly to creative writing skills development. A digital story can combine some features of advertising (central idea, short structures, means for catching attention, visuals) and narration that involves the audience directly. At the stage of the digital narrative planning, the students are instructed to answer the following questions: How to prepare and organize information? How to catch and keep attention of the listeners? How to present the main points one by one in a logical order, giving absolutely clear marks when moving to a new point? How to leave the audience with a coherent summary of all the information covered? How to focus on speaking clearly and slowly, and loudly enough? How to combine the script with the visuals where a complex idea can be communicated by a single image?

The stage of adding images to the story development involves cultivating visual literacy that is the competency to make meaning from what we see and create images that convey implicit and explicit messages to others. The interpretation of visuals involves analyzing, provides opportunities for student interaction, challenges learners to express their feelings and develop their communicative competence as well.

During the hours spent editing videos, students have to decide which image is the best, when to add voice-overs, etc. These activities enable students to improve their computer fluency, create progressively more exciting and engaging videos. In the process of a story development, a teacher can encourage collaboration, when students assist each other discussing the results, peer-editing and practicing their social skills. Thus, focus is put not only on the cognitive but the social aspect of teaching.

Evaluating the scientific and methodological achievements of the scholars in using digital narrative technology, in particular, to support students’ motivation (Alismail, 2015), to solve various educational tasks (Bondarenko, 2019), to develop digital storytelling projects for the final evaluation of the students’ progress (Brenner, 2014) and understanding of the curricular content (Robin, 2016), to enhance communicative abilities and integrate digital narrative into a variety of
educational activities (Hodges & Moore & Lockee, 2020; Obukhov, 2019) as well as our own experience of its implementation for teaching students during the quarantine period, the algorithm for implementing this technology in teaching English and Ukrainian as foreign languages is determined, which can be easily transformed for using in any academic discipline (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Algorithm for implementing technology in teaching of foreign languages

The presentation of a digital story consists of an introduction, a main body (which presents the story), a conclusion, and discussion. The narration of the script adds to students’ self-confidence and improves public speaking skills. While presenting the results of their time consuming work, the students learn not only from their own digital narrative productions, but also from the peers’ stories. As a feedback of each presentation, the students should be encouraged to ask questions to complete the missing information, generate ideas, question on particular elements involved in the creative process, and summarize what they learned from the digital story experience. The creative use of the technology is perhaps the most exciting aspect of digital narration (Sadik, 2008).
Results
It has been argued that the technology of digital narrative as a technology of emergency distance learning proved its efficiency in the study of languages. We conducted an experiment on the use of this technology for teaching English at O.M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv, Yaroslav Mudryi National Law University and the Department of Language Training of Foreign Students of Kharkiv National Automobile and Road University. To create a digital narrative, law students, philologists and managers chose topics related to their everyday life and study in the time of quarantine, the history of the city and the university, as well as the issue of academic integrity, highlighting its importance for the modern scientific discourse and correlation with such professionally important aspect as intellectual property rights. The particular attention in creating digital narratives was focused on the following aspects:

1. When studying the content of the concepts of “digital narrative”, “plot”, “script”, “interview”, the students were encouraged to communicate online (not only work independently with the Internet or other resources), where they sematicized their own vision of the concepts’ content;
2. The discussion on the problems of academic integrity included the acquisition of such practical skills as using the rules of correct referencing and citation in the text, types and examples of plagiarism and self-plagiarism, court appeals on particular topics, etc.;
3. The distribution of the students’ roles and responsibilities for the work in small groups while creating the story was initiated by students and performed according to their individual aptitudes and skills, namely, the team members were responsible for plot development, scriptwriting, direction, sound, cinematography, and editing as well as an interviewer, a story presenter, actors, etc. were appointed.

Following are the elements of the students’ creative work presented in the format of a digital narrative (screenshots of video products presented here):
The technology of digital narrative was also effectively used for language training of international students both in the face-to-face classes and in the regime of emergency distant learning. Such teaching is implemented by the Department of Language Training, Pedagogy and Psychology of O.M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv. Since the main approaches to teaching the language of the host country in educating international students are functional and communicative, in practical classes on language training digital narrative technology is used systematically and not only for the development of the communicative skills. For example, at the stage of learning new vocabulary, the game technology "Snowball" is used, which correlates with the digital narrative. The student is asked to tell something about himself/herself. The first participant starts the game, the second repeats what the first said, adding new information. The third participant repeats the stories of the first two speakers and adds additional information. The game continues until it is the turn of the first participant to repeat all the information collected in a story and finish the game. As the result, the students get a very meaningful story imaging the group as a team.

Students also get a task to write a story on a free topic, using, for example, at least 20 verbs or adjectives or create a common story as a group, where all known synonyms for the new word will be used. As an alternative idea, students are offered thematic series of words on the topics: "My first meeting with the city/university", "What will I tell my friend/parents about my university", "Expectations-reality", etc., which should be logically connected in a story. Stories based on slide shows with photos of the students or videos taken in different learning situations are of special interest.

It should be noted that the main task the students are involved into is the process of creating the content of digital narratives. However, the visual component complement any story, and over time creative students become interested in learning new digital narrative technologies as well as improving their computer fluency, broadening the inventory of the programs and plugins used for developing digital narratives. Students accompany their stories with photos, drawings, illustrations, infographics, and use special computer programs to create presentations. Moreover, digital narration became the impetus for some international students to create a YouTube channel (https://youtu.be/uYFZ7We557Y, https://youtu.be/bOTT3wtoYIM).

In the process of studying the language of the host country by international students, we defined the following advantages of the technology: improvement of communicative skills; positive impact on the emotional, motivational, cognitive sphere of students; unifying function (stories serve as a tool for the development of collective culture, common community identity); utilitarian function (the easiest way to convey the content of a task or project to others); advocacy (as a tool to persuade students and inspire them with new complex projects, initiative, etc.).

Conclusion
The problem of using digital narrative technology in the process of emergency distance learning contains certain discussion elements.

First of all, the organization of the interactive part of the students' activities, namely, conducting interviews, video recordings, live discussions can be problematic as in the conditions of quarantine
isolation it is not always possible to implement face-to-face communication. In addition, certain locations (important for filming) may be closed to visitors.

Secondly, digital narrative products presentation for discussion in the online communication (remote) regime can reduce the quality of the debate effectiveness and, consequently, reflection. It can be explained by the fact that personal gadgets of some students are not always sufficiently adapted for various collective activities, which reduces the possibility of involving every student in the discussion. It should be added that not all students’ gadgets can even download products presented by other members of the group, and therefore, this situation dramatically reduces the effectiveness of the technology using, and consequently, the quality of teaching in general.

Thirdly, different levels of creative abilities of the students themselves should be taken into account, which affects the quality of the entire final product of the digital narrative developed by a group. Thus, the activity of the whole team depends on the team members’ performance, and if the student who is responsible for the script is not creative enough, the result of the teamwork may be uncompetitive in comparison with the projects of other teams. At the same time, we should note that the overall result of using digital narrative technology, which allows to compare in the process of reflection the results of different projects developed by mini-groups, should be positive in any case, as each student realizes the value of his/her own input into the team product. Therefore, the students realize the need to improve their specific individual competencies.

Fourthly, the problem for teamwork organizing for creating digital narratives may be caused by the lack of students’ specific technological skills, including those that allow them to work in relevant programs, namely, Davinci resolve and Adobe premiere (used for video editing) as well as a required set of plugins: Magic bullet looks (for video coloring), Pluraleyes 4 (for converging of several cameras by overlaying audio tracks), Film impact (for video transition), etc.

Generally, the use of digital narrative as a technology that allows to diversify teaching during the period of extremely distance learning, requires the attention of methodologists, teachers, scholars to research the problems and specify the prospects. Practical applications prove that the technology possesses a strong transformational power, i.e. an adaptation force, and can be used: for various modes of teaching (traditional, blended learning, emergency distant learning); for such forms of teaching as supervised and individual; for various forms of educational interaction (teacher-student, peer-peer, small group); for varied content and structure in a wide range of academic disciplines; for different types of technical equipment and spectrum of programs; for the students having different levels of subject content knowledge, computer literacy, communicative skills and belong to various cultures; for development of both cognitive and social skills with a focus on a particular repertoire.

Realizing the fact that extreme isolation can be repeated in the technologically and ecologically unstable modern society, researching new forms of educational activities suitable for using in emergency distance learning, as well as their testing and improvement will allow to find a quality replacement for the face-to-face learning in case of emergency, improve the psychological state of the students in the situation of quarantine, maintain interest in educational activities.
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Interdisciplinary Approach to Modeling in Teaching English for Specific Purposes in the Ukrainian Context

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Abstract
The article highlights exploiting modeling in the interdisciplinary educational process at a modern technical university in Ukraine. The focus of the study is to consider the interdisciplinary approach to modeling in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to develop technical students’ strategic competence as the cognitive ability to intervene in solving various problems. The methodology involves the complex of complementary methods: analysis of psychological and pedagogical sources on the issue under study; the observation of the educational process, and monographic practice (interpreting the results obtained in a coherent, logical perspective); generalization and systematization of the collaboration between the Faculty of Chemical Engineering and the Faculty of Linguistics of the National Technical University of Ukraine "Igor Sikorsky Kyiv Polytechnic Institute" (after this officially abbreviated name – Igor Sikorsky KPI) on implementing the model of interdisciplinary interaction to develop students’ strategic competence through producing secondary sci-tech texts in the course of preparing their qualifying papers. The suggested interdisciplinary model covers three stages of realization: initial stage (activates knowledge in the subject area transferred to the foreign language environment), cognitive-communicative stage (activates the cognitive processes to develop the levels of thinking within the framework of Bloom’s taxonomy), and communicative-productive stage (develops communicative strategies for writing abstracts of patent documents in English).

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes, interdisciplinary approach, modeling, strategic competence, technical students.

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Introduction

Nowadays, developing modern approaches to foreign language teaching driven by challenges of the third-millennium society has already undergone a procedure called the fourth industrial revolution. The essence of this fourth procedure lies in the technology fusion, blurring the boundaries between the physical, digital, and biological spheres, developing artificial intelligence and the virtual economy (Bartodziej, 2017; Davis & Schwab, 2018). Thus, state-of-the-art technologies, breakthrough ways of production, and modernized educational standards (for instance, the comprehensive introduction of the competence approach to the educational process) have changed the methods of teaching ESP dramatically. As the professional world of the XXI century is interdisciplinary, the teaching in higher education must consider the interdisciplinary approach, thereby addressing the needs of contemporary students.

Additionally, as communities are becoming more culturally diverse, social relationships are getting more dependent on the ability to interact successfully with people from various cultures whose values and patterns of behavior may differ from one’s cultural practices. And today’s increased globalization is a forcing demand for an internationally competent workforce – future specialists will be working for international companies, competing in a growing global talent pool, and facing increasing challenges. Foreign language acquisition contributes to communicating and interacting in multilingual communities. Moreover, a graduate of a technical university should deal with international scientific and technical literature, which is mostly in English. In this regard, the development of strategic competence in the preparation of innovatively active specialists in different technical fields in mastering a foreign language for specific purposes (English in our case) is among high-priority tasks in modern technical universities.

However, forming technical students’ strategic competence in creating secondary texts of patent documentation has not been brought into a particular focus. At the same time, it is worth noting that Ukrainian engineers are obliged to patent inventions for launching into mass production and, consequently, to profit from their professional activities at the international market, which requires developing skills of processing patent documents in English.

Therefore, the problem under study is to educate Ukrainian future engineering specialists to effectively perform their professional tasks related to the use of English as a foreign language, while creating secondary sci-tech texts for experts around the world.

The purpose of the article is to cover the specifics of the interdisciplinary approach to modeling in teaching ESP to develop the strategic competence of students in the settings of a technical university in Ukraine.

Methodology

The study employs a set of complementary methods (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2013), which are as follows: analysis of psychological and pedagogical sources on the issue under study; the observation of the educational process; monographic practice (interpreting the results obtained in a coherent, logical perspective); generalization and systematization of the collaborative practice of the Faculty of Chemical Engineering and the Faculty of Linguistics of Igor Sikorsky KPI on implementing the model of interdisciplinary interaction to develop students’ strategic competence.
The theory of cultivating the communities of practice (Wenger, McDermott & Synder, 2002) underpins the present study, providing an understanding of interdisciplinary modeling in teaching ESP from a sociocultural scope. It reflects the view that a process of sociocultural learning occurs when people with a common interest in a particular subject area collaborate over a certain period sharing knowledge, and determining solutions.

Additionally, the research exploits the theory of interdisciplinary studies (Barry, Born & Weszkalnys, 2008; Boix Mansilla, 2005; Newell, 2011). According to this theory, the knowledge and modes of thinking from two or more relevant disciplines are integrated into a comprehensive unity "to produce a cognitive advancement – for example, explaining a phenomenon, solving a problem, creating a product, or raising a new question – in ways that would have been unlikely through single disciplinary means" (Boix Mansilla, 2005, p. 14).

Theoretical backgrounds

Nowadays, at a technical university of the research type (like Igor Sikorsky KPI), an adequate response to the challenges of modern globalized society is supposed to be given through the interdisciplinary collaborative practice of university departments. Such a task requires implementing a favorable interdisciplinary education environment, which embraces interdisciplinary collaboration via co-teaching in English and curriculum integration of knowledge areas, providing cross-curricular topics, issues, or ideas. Thereby, the four main dimensions of the interdisciplinary education environment (Beane, 1997), giving the grounds for successful developing students’ strategic competence on a broad scale, are as follows:

1) integration of experience accumulated by both humanity and by the person, which altogether helps any student to understand and solve problems in all spheres of life;
2) social integration (based on the study of ways of solving personal and social issues);
3) integration of knowledge and multi-sectoral experience from different spheres of life;
4) integration of curriculum design (based on the cross-curricular topics, themes, issues, or big ideas that contribute to content and language integrated learning, where students learn a subject and a second language (in our case, it is English) the same time.

We argue that in terms of interdisciplinary teaching, it is advisable to focus on its procedural aspect that entails such a powerful teaching method as modelling.

Modeling as scientific knowledge, representing the construction and operation of the system under study, has been widely used in technical and natural sciences, and more recently – in the pedagogical sphere. Modeling in teaching presupposes constructing an educational environment, and designing the outcomes of learning, providing steps for fulfilling didactic objectives (Joyce, Weil & Calhoun, 2017). This method is conducive to developing highly tuned and more varied learning contexts, modifying other methods of teaching and instructional techniques to better meet the needs of current students.

As noted by Joyce, Weil, and Calhoun (2017), quality modeling in teaching encompasses:
1) intended outcomes of learning; 2) structure and the sequence of steps to realize the model; 3) principles of organizing the educational process; 4) interactions between students and
instructor; 5) supporting pedagogical techniques for effective implementation of the model; 6) efficacy of the model transference to real life.

Traditionally, models of teaching have been designed according to classic philosophy, and educational psychology. Therefore, they are subdivided by the scholars (Driscoll, 2000; Elliott et al., 2000; Joyce, Weil & Calhoun, 2017) into:

– social (exploiting productive ways of interacting in social settings);
– information-processing (emphasizing the methods of learning specific information and of acquiring and organizing data, solving problems; enhancing intellectual development, as well as metacognitive abilities);
– personal (fostering self-cognition, self-esteem, self-efficacy, etc. in creating, directing, and structuring personal meaning);
– behavioral (concentrating on distinctive predetermined patterns of behavior);
– constructivist (focusing on students’ active construction of their knowledge based on the experience gained).

Considering the ways of presenting learning material in teaching ESP at technical universities, the models split into models of assimilating and accommodating knowledge (technological orientation), and discovering background (humanistic orientation). In our view, the interdisciplinary approach on a broad scale applies to the models of the latter type mentioned, and they deserve special attention in teaching ESP. Their main aim is to provide students with a deeper understanding of the modern world, one of the imperatives of the integrated unity of knowledge from different spheres.

Modeling in teaching ESP for technical students at Igor Sikorsky KPI

The interdisciplinary model is regarded as an innovative pedagogical tool of achieving a synergistic effect in teaching ESP to technical students (Olkhovaya et al., 2016). In our case, this model has been implemented through the interaction of foreign languages department with specialist ones, and, therefore, focuses on developing strategic competence of future engineering specialists in particular, and on enhancing the relationships between various domains of knowledge; the self and the world at large on the whole.

The analysis of recent linguistic and lingua didactic studies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Ellis, 2008; Gass & Seltinker, 2008) made it possible to clarify the essence of the strategic competence in foreign language acquisition. The competence under study includes a system of knowledge about productive and interpretive-receptive speech strategies, and the ability to make use of them through a set of verbal, and nonverbal tools. Forming individual strategic competence as an invariant core of communicative competence presupposes metacognitive processes (planning, execution, management, control, and reflection).

Turning to the interdisciplinary modeling in teaching ESP, we must mention simulation-based learning, the essence of which lies in modeling professional communication (Colella, 2000). Simulation, as a model of phenomena or activities that students learn through interaction, is considered the third pillar of science, which has not yet taken a firm place in technical universities. The purpose of simulations is to help students acquire knowledge through exploring, practicing, testing (Magana, 2017). Simulations, regarded as the models of quasi-professional
communication, are adequately organized through the collaborative interaction between the teachers of ESP and the academic staff of specialist departments of universities.

Let us consider the interdisciplinary collaboration between the Faculty of Chemical Engineering and the Faculty of Linguistics of Igor Sikorsky KPI to develop students' strategic competence in the course of preparing their qualifying papers on the particular technical issue in the sphere of engineering. It is important to emphasize that the analysis of students' needs in professionally oriented written communication during their final research proves the feasibility, and rationality of authentic English texts of patent documentation.

Designing qualifying projects presupposes a considerable amount of work with British and American patents, which differ in their structure and ways of presenting the material. Given this fact, the students should be able to appreciate the cultural diversity of patent documentation critically, and apply the acquired knowledge and skills to writing abstracts in English. Therefore, it is essential to model ways and methods of developing students' communicative strategies to process patents information. The teaching materials involve English texts of patent documents, prepared in collaboration with the academic staff of the Faculty of Chemical Engineering. We give priority to the texts of patent documents accompanied by extra lingual supports (tables, diagrams, figures, etc.). And students master different linguistic and extralinguistic features of the texts of patent descriptions. These features are as follows: broad coverage of English-speaking countries; generalization, isolation, and abstractness of presentation; logical presentation, and the accuracy of expression; evidence, objectivity, and saturation of factual information; genre-specific features (uniqueness, efficiency, authenticity and universality, structure, specifics of lexical and grammatical structure).

The didactic nature of the model in question is in the stepwise and consistent forming strategic competence in students. This model involves three stages of implementation: initial, cognitive-communicative, and communicative-productive. The initial stage activates knowledge in the subject area transferred to the foreign language environment (in this case, it is English). At the cognitive-communicative stage, we start the cognitive processes to develop the levels of thinking (under Bloom's taxonomy), and design the strategies for patent text processing. At the communicative-productive stage, which is the final in our model, we develop students' communicative strategies for writing abstracts of patent documents in English, taking into account the primary text (cognitive-communicative stage), and exploiting the formed language skills (initial stage).

We have developed a system of exercises aimed at mastering strategies of creating the secondary text of patent documentation for each stage. We provide some examples below.

**Example 1** (initial stage)

**Purpose:** to develop grammatical skills in producing the secondary text of patent documentation.

**Task:** Look through an extract from a background of the invention. Put the verbs in brackets into the correct tense form and make other changes (if necessary).

1. Replaceable wear liners often ________ (1 incorporate) into cone crushers to form the crushing surfaces. Cone crushers typically ________ (2 comprise) of an assembly that rotates about a
stationary shaft resulting in a gyratory motion, which ________(3 harness) to crush material as it ________(4 traverse) between crushing surfaces in the crushing chamber, where the replaceable wear liners are ________ (5 locate). ..........................

**Example 2** (cognitive-communicative stage)

**Purpose:** to develop strategies for understanding the text.

**Task:** Define which section of a patent application contains the following phrases.
- There are several prior art references directed towards powder classifying apparatuses and methods.
- These and other objects will become more apparent from the following detailed description when considered with the accompanying drawings.
- What we claim is a game device, comprising a handle and a head portion connected to the handle.
- It is an object of this invention to provide deflector means for substantially reducing the amount of coarse material carried by the gas stream from the grinding elements to the classifier.

**Example 3** (cognitive-communicative stage)

**Purpose:** to form in students a strategy of evaluating the primary text of patent information.

**Task:** Patent applications contain both descriptions and explanations. To distinguish them, group the sentences in those which describe and those which explain.
1. The apparatus operates as follows: a fan (1), a shaft (5), and a rotor (3) are driven at suitable speeds; the gaseous fluid is sucked through a duct (22).
2. It is a principal object of the present invention to provide an improved form of cyclone separator that effectively achieves higher particle separation efficiencies than can be performed by centrifugal separators previously known in the art.

**Example 4** (cognitive-communicative stage)

**Purpose:** to form in students a strategy of assigning information to the primary text of patent documentation.

**Task:** Read the patent sections *Background of the Invention* and *Summary of the Invention* and then: a) write the advantages and disadvantages of the prior art; b) give your evaluation of the patented chemical apparatus/machine/mechanism.

**Example 5** (communicative-productive stage)

**Purpose:** to form in students a strategy of information compression aimed at creating an abstract.

**Task:** Read the patent section "Detailed description of the invention" and make it less detailed, choosing three features of the chemical apparatus/machine/mechanism, and describing them in writing.

Consequently, exercises such as those mentioned above provide practice in the use of communicative strategies. Arguably, they effectively build personal resources, which will enable students to be more flexible in finding ways to convey information in real-life interactions. It is relevant to indicate that the ability to exploit the communicative strategies contributes to forming strategic competence of future specialists in science and technology. We argue that the formation of strategic competence in learning ESP should be considered one of the crucial aspects of training.
technical students. It is explained by the fact that students of technical universities must present the findings of their research work in a foreign language (in English in our case), and apply foreign language skills in the field of their specialty, in the production of secondary texts of patent documentation, in particular.

Conclusion

To sum up, we conclude that exploiting the model of interdisciplinary interaction enhances forming technical students’ strategic competence. It also contributes to making a more in-depth assessment of the acquired knowledge from both the specialist area and English to develop professional communication. We also note the importance of combining the expertise of the academic staff from linguistic and specialist departments in a technical university to provide successful interdisciplinary collaboration. From an instructional perspective, such simulation-based learning develops highly tuned and varied professional repertoires. On a broader scale, it creates practical instructional experiences.

In the context of the problem under study, the scope of further research envisages researching the epistemic relation between students as observers and simulation-based learning as a system. Thus, the ultimate analysis will focus on the reality that remains beyond the grasp of our model.

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References
Communicative Styles through the Prism of Intersubjectivity

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Abstract
The style people communicate has a significant impact on how they get the things they want, express needs, avoid conflicts, and make healthy intersubjective relationships. The success of communication is always the shared responsibilities of both communicators – the sender and the recipient. The article offers the theoretical assumptions and practical results of the research on the communicative correlation between the phenomenon of intersubjectivity, and the existence of the communication styles – assertive, aggressive, and submissive. The authors introduce a semiological approach to the paradigm of intersubjective processes, apply the conversation analysis to the material of English fictional discourse, and characterize the nonverbal profiles of the communication styles under investigation. The article aims at highlighting the specificity of intersubjectivity realization in different communicative styles according to the degree criterion and intensity features. The main findings of the research reveal the intersubjectivity as a communicative style forming principle, which differently actualizes the concept of "self and other" and manages the creation of the communicative climates (supportive or unsupportive) via verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the sender and the recipient who can or cannot demonstrate their intersubjective competence.

Keywords: Communicative style, conversation analysis, English discourse, intersubjectivity, intersubjective competence, semiological approach, verbal and nonverbal behaviors

Introduction

Communication can be defined as a continuous interactive process of expressing, interpreting, and negotiating messages, sharing communicative intentions, emotional attitudes, and social values. Communication is a complex multimodal phenomenon, which is never one-sided. Instead, it is always realized synergistically between people involved in the process of communication. The communication process is reflected in the amount and style of interaction in order for the sender to ensure that his/her messages have been received in the way they were intended, and for the recipient to ensure that he/she is interpreting the messages correctly. In this respect, many communication scholars (Gamble, 2012; Norton, 1983) highlight that any style of conversation results from joint, task-motivated efforts of participants to make sense of each other as subjects of the communicative event. Thus, the significance and the rationale of our study are to provide a new critical thinking framework to the communicative styles taxonomy guided by the pragmatics of intersubjectivity.

The concept of intersubjectivity has become of interest to communication researchers in recent years. It has been argued that making cognitive and pragmatic sense of discourse requires the intersubjective competence of how to use and interpret verbal and nonverbal behaviors of communicators. The same concerns the peculiarity of the communicative style (Gamble, 2012) of the discourse leading—the way of multisemiotic communicators' behavior built upon the opposition "to win : to loose", which has not yet been the object of a particular linguistic research.

This paper aims to consider the English communicative styles through the prism of intersubjectivity. The article outlines the theoretical approaches to intersubjectivity; investigates the communicative styles (assertive, aggressive, and submissive) as certain types of intersubjectivity actualization; differentiate between the nonverbal profiles of each communicative style, highlights the communicator's intersubjective competence for creating the necessary communicative climate.

Theoretical Background of the Research

Communicating or getting our message across is the concern of us all in our daily lives in any language we happen to use. Learning to be better communicators is important for us in our private and public activities (Rehling, 2004). Better communication means better understanding ourselves and others, less isolation from those around us, and more productive, happy lives.

A multidisciplinary interest in the study of language and communication evolves through urgent demands and challenges of time conditioned by modern social standards of human interaction (Levinson, 2013). Language in use is nowadays understood and thoroughly studied not only as a cognitive, psychological, philosophical, neurolinguistic creature but also as a social and intersubjective phenomenon. The process of human interaction is inherently intersubjective, comprising subjective components of assessment and attitude to create "a speaker’s imprint" in discourse (Finegan, 1995), aimed to be potentially shared by others (Nuyts, 2001). The phenomenon of intersubjectivity and the study of language as a form of social practice have
become topics not only for multidisciplinary research but for linguistics in particular (Shevchenko, 2010).

Philosophically, the problem of "other minds" as a central concern in studies of human consciousness and mind respectively reveals shared social experiences as phenomena that transcend human subjectivity per se and leads to the creation of dichotomy of "self and other", "personal and shared". While subjectivity is explained as the linguistic expression of the speaker's involvement, intersubjectivity is defined as the linguistic expression of the sender's (speaker's / writer's) attention to the recipient (the hearer / the reader) (Traugott, 2010). In other words, intersubjectivity as a phenomenological property inherent in the man as a social being may be characterized as the ability to share mental and emotional states of "others" (Martynyuk, 2020).

Meanwhile, there exist two recognized approaches to the topic of intersubjectivity in linguistics: cognitive and interactional. The cognitive approach focuses on the analysis of linguistic structures that provide for intersubjectivity, based on Edmund Husserl’s philosophy and Maurice Merleau-Ponty’s phenomenology of the human body (Merleau-Ponty, 1964). The interactional approach is based on conversational analysis and Alfred Schutz’s phenomenology of the social world (Schutz, 1967). The scholar claimed that intersubjectivity exists as a practical problem and a challenge for every case of communication. It should also be noted that both approaches highlight an essential notion of intersubjectively validated social reality as a sphere of language functioning and understanding that linguistic intersubjectivity is based on normativity in linguistic structures, language use, and everyday practices in social interaction (Etelamäki, 2016).

Based on the semiotic nature of language and discourse, it seems reasonable to introduce a new approach to the study of intersubjectivity-- a semiological one. Semiology has its philosophical basis in the Kantian dichotomy of mental (phenomenal) and nonmental (material) worlds, which corresponds to the classic European dichotomy of subjective and objective. The semiological approach can reveal how to induce identical or similar informational states in the minds and attitudes of the sender and the recipient via their different verbal and nonverbal signs of behavior in communication. The use of verbal and nonverbal semiotic resources for intersubjectivity in different discourse genres is influenced by human and contextual factors of communication. They form and shape up the process of communication, where "personal and shared responsibility" can be studied in terms of psychological stances and evaluations, social and cultural norms, communicative intentions, styles, and climates.

Intersubjectivity, as one of the central notions of social semiotics tends to expand the application in different discourse practices and domains. Discourse, in its turn, is understood as an interactional and intersubjective process of "mind interaction" aimed at constructing language signs and presented as a unique social reality (Martynyuk, 2009; Stepanov, 1998; Shevchenko, 2018). The semiological approach research principle of multimodal intercommunication "man vs. the world" presupposes consideration of problematic issues of verbal and nonverbal semiosis, including the problem of exteriorization of emotional states with the help of gestures, posture, mimics, facial signals, voice characteristics, etc. in different discourse practices, coming into the focus of attention of another subject.
Along with verbal means (words, sentences), we use voice, gestures, facial expression, and many other nonverbal means of communication to convey meaning to persons around us. An awareness of body language - the subtle messages given by postures, hand movements, eyes, smiles – is among the many avenues to improved communication. Communication researchers claim that in social interaction, individuals communicate far more nonverbally than we do verbally.

The discovery of the importance of nonverbal communication has transformed the study of human social behavior. Nonverbal signs appear to operate at three levels of communication. First, they define and condition the communication system. Secondly, nonverbal cues help to regulate the communication system. They signal referents, statuses, indicate who is to speak next, provide feedback about evaluations and feelings. Finally, nonverbal signs communicate contents and intentions in discourses.

Effective communication requires the use of verbal and nonverbal means to avoid a direct answer or to hide one's intent while appearing to be open and forthright. In both instances, an understanding of what is really happening, as opposed to what one would like to see happening, is the first step towards improved intersubjectivity of communication.

The success of a particular communication strategy depends on many factors such as the willingness of people to understand each other, the level of their intersubjective competence and language acquisition, the social and cultural backgrounds, and the choice of appropriate discourse behaviors of participants.

In the context of the intersubjective communicative act (Martynyuk, 2020), both verbal and nonverbal semiotic systems as interrelated perceptual stimuli refer to the same referential situation and activate conscious/unconscious, shared/different sensory-motor, affective, cognitive, and volitional structures of the subjects’ experience which are associated with the situation and determine the communicative meanings in the process of interpretation, resting on the intersubjective nature of human consciousness.

Amongst three models of communication, claimed by Schiffrin (1994), coding-encoding, cognitive, inferential, and the interactional, namely, the latter is entirely different from the previous in the interpretation of intersubjectivity. In the framework of the interactional model of communication, intersubjectivity is viewed as psychological and phenomenological experiencing common interests, actions, etc. and this "unity" is not permanent; it is considered as a part of "communicative work" aimed at its reproduction and maintenance in each new act of communication (Dubtsova, 2015). From the positions of the interactional model of communication, interpretation has become the main criterion of successful communication, taking into consideration the component of "shared knowledge", and the perceiver can output meanings that the speaker did not put into his message. Moreover, the interactional model of communication may answer the question of what is the driving force of a human's desire for the linguistic explication of his experience.
The importance of "intersubjective knowledge" is difficult to underestimate in the process of construing extra-linguistic reality in different discourse domains, genres, modes. "Shared knowledge" and "shared responsibility" together with various forms of their representation and actualization determine the choice of communicative styles, communicative climate, communicative outcomes, distancing or rapprochement as politeness strategies manifestations in discourse, etc.

To sum up, it is essential to underline the significance of the intersubjective aspect of communicative behavior both in verbal and nonverbal interaction since intersubjectivity is formed in the process of direct communication as a result of bodily-sensory and spiritual experience acquired in different discursive practices, creating and defining the features of this practice.

Methods
To achieve the aim of the research and accomplish its tasks, this study was conducted to assess the fundamental role of intersubjectivity actualization in the communicative style differentiation. Several methods of linguistic analysis were used namely, conversation, semiotic, contextual, and pragmatic analyses. The conversation analysis was used to provide a detailed description of turn-taking peculiarities, "repair" actions, sequences of actions that participants choose to address troubles of speaking, hearing, and understanding. The rest of the methods were used within the ideology of linguistic pragmatics. They concern about how saying something can count as doing something in terms of speech acts, emotions, and attitudes; how communicators produce and listen to the clues that allow for the intersubjective identification of whatever is meant to be doing.

Applied to English interaction, the semiotic analysis offers to reveal a set or inventory of nonverbal actions that is typically used in the aggressive, assertive, and submissive communicative styles. Levinson (2013) argues that the "front-loaded" information of voice pitch, gaze, gesture, and turn-initial tokens (such as "oh," "look," "well") can potentially tip off the recipient as to what is being intended and done intersubjectively.

The research material includes discursive fragments, singled out from modern English fictional conversational discourse, focusing on the designation of the characters’ nonverbal behaviors in everyday communicative situations. As an illustration, let us consider the following husband-wife dialog regarding the intersubjectivity of their communicative styles.

**WIFE:** You're late again. We'll never get to the theatre on time.
**HUSBAND:** I tried my best.
**WIFE:** (sarcastically) Sure, you tried your best. You always try your best, don't you? (shaking her finger) I'm not going to put up with this much longer.
**HUSBAND:** (raising his voice) You don't say! I happen to have been tied up at the office.
**WIFE:** My job is as demanding as yours, you know.
**HUSBAND:** (lowering his voice) Okay. Okay. I know you work hard too. I don't question that. Listen, I really did get stuck in a conference (putting his hand on her shoulder). Let's not blow this up. Come on. I'll tell you about it on the way to the theatre.
It is evident that the wife chooses the aggressive style of communication by letting her husband know with her words, voice, physical actions that she is upset and outraged. She doesn't care about her husband's excuses. So, the degree of her intersubjectivity here is low. On the contrary, the husband is choosing the submissive style by responding in a kind manner, using words, vocal cues, and gestures to explain his behavior and to show respect to his wife. Thus, the degree of his intersubjectivity in this communicative event is high. Both individuals' communicative styles are affected by the nature of the situation (they are late for the theater), by their attitudes (how they feel about what is occurring), and by their past experiences.

Results

We like thinking of communication as ideal, conflict-free cooperation. In reality, people enter every conversation with definite needs, interests, and aims for which they are ready "to fight". To achieve a required communicative result in a turn-taking process, people use different discourse strategies and tactics to create a necessary style of their communication: they make orders, give promises, ask for favors, extend invitations, flatter, blame, pleading, etc.

Norton (1983) explained the communicative style as the way one verbally and nonverbally interacts, transmitting direct and indirect meaning. According to Norton's Theory of Communicator Styles, nine styles are typically used in the communication process – dominant, dramatic, animated, relaxed, friendly, attentive, open, contentious, and impression leaving. Researchers developed that theory qualitatively and quantitatively (Rehling, 2004; Waldherr, 2011), and Gamble (2012) offered to reduce the number of styles to the following three types: aggressive, submissive, and assertive communicative styles. We fully support this comprehensive subdivision of styles, which we have reconsidered from the viewpoints of intersubjectivity. Our research findings are as follows.

The pragmatic intent of the aggressive style is to dominate. Aggressive people always want to win: they insist on standing up for their own rights while ignoring and violating the rights and interests of others. The aggressive person begins by attacking, thereby initiating conflicts. The following example may illustrate the above-mentioned statement, “Marielle looked up into his face. He was furious. His dark eyes were flashing and his mouth was set in a thin line of displeasure. “I’m lost. I, uh, got out to sort of stretch my legs for a moment and then ...” She faltered. “And then you damned near got run over!” he finished for her (H. Whitley). Here, the problem of "other minds" doesn't exist at all: the main concept of intersubjectivity "self and other" is violated as the communicative style is based on the opposition "winner-loser".

The assertive person intends to communicate in a confident, partnership, cooperative way, i.e., honestly, clearly, attentively, and friendly. The aim of the assertive person is to support other's beliefs and ideas without harming the recipient. Assertive people behave in a comfortable manner that attracts attention and respect by showing a strong, confident personality. For example, “It sounds like fun,” Marielle said. “Of course I’ll go.” Bandy's face creased with pleasure. “Miss Mari, I’d be honored,” he said gallantly. He took off his hat and, from the saddle, bowed with a flourish (H. Whitley). In the assertive style, the key...
concept of "self and other" is not violated; instead, it is favored as this communicative style is based on the opposition "winner – winner".

Submissive people are neither aggressive nor assertive in their discourse behavior. They are very shy, are ready to lose, and show the willingness to obey other people. “Are you okay? he asked. “You look a little feverish. “No, no,” she hastily replied, coming back to the present with a jolt. “I mean ...yes.” She laughed nervously. “I mean, no, I’m not feverish and yes, I’m okay” (H. Whitley). As this communicative style is based on the opposition "loser-winner", the key intersubjective concept of "self and other" is specifically violated under the influence of uncertainty and subordination of the character.

Consider how differently people demonstrate their communicative style by such nonverbal means as voice characteristics and body language (see Table one), increasing or decreasing the intensity if intersubjectivity in conversations:

Table 1. Nonverbal profiles of the communicative styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Aggressive Style</th>
<th>Submissive Style</th>
<th>Assertive Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voice qualities</strong></td>
<td>Shouting</td>
<td>quiet</td>
<td>Calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>loud</td>
<td>whining</td>
<td>friendly</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>high pitch</td>
<td>apologetic</td>
<td>persistent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unreasonable</td>
<td>hesitant</td>
<td>reasonable</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>threatening</td>
<td>nervous</td>
<td>clear and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Body language</strong></td>
<td>pointed fingers</td>
<td>hands together</td>
<td>good eye contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feet apart</td>
<td>moving feet</td>
<td>upright stance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>waving arms</td>
<td>looking away</td>
<td>open gestures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hands on hips</td>
<td>hand over mouth</td>
<td>(shows palms of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>chin is forward</td>
<td></td>
<td>hands)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>staring</td>
<td></td>
<td>relaxed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>standing too close</td>
<td></td>
<td>smiling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nodding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the material analysis, we came to a conclusion that the intersubjectivity is a communicative style forming principle. Intersubjectivity of negative or low degree completion corresponds to the aggressive style of communication; regular positive and intensive realization of intersubjectivity favors the formation of the assertive communicative style, while the weak, uncertain verbal and nonverbal realization of intersubjectivity is relevant to the submissive communicative style.

The combinations and sequences of these styles with different degrees of intersubjectivity realization can create two types of communicative climates based either on cooperation or competition. These climates are called the supportive and unsupportive (or defensive). Supportive climate is provided by such discourse actions as cooperation, encouragement, satisfaction. This is
 achieved by description, problem orientation, spontaneity, empathy, and equality expressed verbally and nonverbally. The unsupportive climate is based on defensive behavior, which occurs when a participant perceives or anticipates a threat. Defensive actions give rise to defensive means, such as the vocal, facial and postural cues that accompany words. We behave defensively when we perceive others are attacking our self-concept. The unsupportive climate is marked by the following behaviors: evaluation, control, strategy, neutrality, superiority, and certainty. The effectiveness and feedback of the relevant communicative climate creation are closely connected with the sender's and the recipient's intersubjective competence, which requires thorough investigation and assessment in discourse-analysis and communication studies.

Conclusion

With the research aim to consider the communicative styles through the prism of intersubjectivity, we applied the conversation analysis to the material of English fictional discourse. Due to this, we managed to characterize the nonverbal profiles of the communicate styles under investigation, discovered the specificity of intersubjectivity realization in different communicative styles according to the degree and intensity features. A low degree of intersubjectivity corresponds to the aggressive style of communication; positive and intensive realization of intersubjectivity favors the formation of the assertive communicative style; weak, uncertain verbal and nonverbal realization of intersubjectivity is relevant to the submissive communicative style. Thus, we may conclude that intersubjectivity is a communicative style forming principle, which differently actualizes the concept of "self and other" via the intersubjective competence of the sender and the recipient.

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References


Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering Texts: Structural, Semantic and Functional Peculiarities

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Abstract
This article aims to analyze, systematize, and unify compound term-nouns in electrical engineering by several classifications. The report's significance draws on the modern linguistic trends towards research on the structural, semantic, and functional peculiarities of compound terminological units. Moreover, it is relevant to study compound term-nouns as specific lexical content of English electrical engineering texts. The article's scientific novelty is in integrated and systematic research of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering because of semantics, stylistics, and lexicology. The study used a continuous sampling method and drew on a collection of English scientific and technical texts with 10296 pages. Compound term-nouns have been systematized according to their semantics. In electrical engineering, they consist of seven micro fields. According to the degree of abstraction, compound term-nouns have been classified into abstract and concrete. We revealed that in the texts on electrical engineering, abstract compound term-nouns dominate. Concerning the degree of stylistic features, we have arranged compound term-nouns into stylistically colored and stylistically neutral. As to usage frequency, we have researched that science textbook is the primary source of functioning compound term-nouns in electrical engineering. In respect to functional coloring, compound term-nouns have been classified into neologisms, obsolete vocabulary, archaisms, occasionalisms, and borrowings. We have found that in texts on electrical engineering borrowings, prevail. The results of the study have been summarized in the concluding section.

Keywords: classification, coloring, compound term-nouns, electrical engineering texts, terminological units
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Introduction

In recent decades technological progress has gained new rapid turns, resulting in devices that improve and facilitate human existence on Earth. Such inventions include various means of transport (e.g., electric cars, gyro scooters, electric unicycles), household appliances, and small devices (electric dryers, electronic cigarettes, hot rollers, e-books, smartwatches, etc.).

The latest technological advances have led to the formation of scientific and technical terminology, particularly in electrical engineering, including compound term-nouns to convey information accurately and concisely.


This article aims to analyze, systematize, and unify compound term-nouns in electrical engineering by several classifications. The report's significance draws on the modern linguistic trends towards research on the structural, semantic, and functional peculiarities of compound terminological units. Moreover, it is relevant to study compound term-nouns as specific lexical content of English electrical engineering texts. The article's scientific novelty is in integrated and systematic research of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering given semantics, stylistics, and lexicology.

Theoretical Background of the Research

The formation of compound term-nouns depends primarily on the need of society to name new concepts that arise from the active development of science and technology. As a result, people enriched English with compound term-nouns that denominate subjects, processes, or phenomena, and are formed not only by already existing, but also previously unknown concepts (Humovska, 2000; Kizil, 2016; Kryshkal, 2003; Litvinko, 2007; Nazarova, 2014; Rybachok, 2004). In the current study, we define a compound term-noun as a lexical unit formed by 1) combining two and more stems or independent words, 2) abbreviating terms of a specific word combination.
or sentence according to models already existing in the language. In scientific and technical texts, the compound term-noun correlates with a specific part of speech, acts as a corresponding sentence member, and provides scientific information to society (Akhmanova, 2013; Karaban, 2004; Vovchanska, 2014).

*From the semantic perspective,* an essential distinctive feature of compound term-nouns is that they belong to a terminological field. The notion of the terminological field was introduced by Reformatsky (1961), who stated that the term is the given terminology because the word loses its characteristics of the term. The term takes a strictly specific place in a matrix of a terminological field. Trier (2008) postulates that the terminological field appears as the paradigmatic unity of interrelated terms able to verbalize the same concept. Within the terminological field, terms are engaged in various paradigmatic relations based on their semantics. All terms that belong to the terminological field are, therefore, further divided into specific groups. Such groups are microfields or lexical-semantic groups, i.e., groups of words linked by a common concept.

According to Leychik's (2009) definition, every term, particularly compound term-nouns, is a lexical unit of language for special purposes, denoting concrete or abstract notion of the theory of a specific special field of knowledge or activity. Thus, *concerning the degree of abstraction*, all compound term-nouns are subcategorized into concrete and abstract.

Linguistics explains abstraction as a noun category that provides a denomination of intangible realities, i.e., something that cannot be perceived using one of the five senses (taste, touch, sight, hearing, smelling). Scientists consider the abstractional noun category because they take into account the morphological and grammatical indicators of the lexical unit (Alexeyeva, 2007; Kharytonov, 2008). Vorontsova (1960) also claims that abstraction is the noun category marked both morphologically and grammatically. Morphological markers of the category of abstraction are noun-building suffixes -ness, -ment, -(i)ty, -ance, -ence, -ship, -dom, -hood, -ism, -(r)y, -ic(s), -tion. The grammatical marker of the category of abstraction is the uncountability of abstract nouns.

Concerning above mentioned, the current study treats compound term-nouns in electrical engineering as abstract if they: 1) are not able to cause any visual images in human consciousness, 2) do not have a physical representation, 3) are characterized by a generalized meaning of quality, property, state or action, 4) refer to phenomena and concepts in electrical engineering. Scientists consider compound term-nouns in electrical engineering concrete if they denominate things, professions, instruments, devices, and parts.

Linguists regard terms as special words and a specific layer of vocabulary that differs from common words by several features, including accuracy, systematicity, informativeness, a
correlation between concept and meaning, stylistic neutrality (Batsevych, 2004; Bronnikova, 2009; Sydorenko, 2004; Symonenko, 2014). However, some contemporary linguists doubt of stylistic neutrality of terms, arguing that they are still characterized by expressiveness (Berezhna, 2016; Ischenko, 2010; Melnyk & Venhryniuk, 2016; Omelchenko & Vysochynskyi 2000). Thus, expressiveness is a criterion for the classification of compound term-nouns according to the degree of stylistic features. This approach divides compound term-nouns into stylistically colored and stylistically neutral.

Over the last five years, there has been heated debate on whether expressiveness is characteristic of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering, that triggered linguists to single out and analyze this feature from the linguistic, lexicological, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective (Dyakonov & Kyiak & Kudelko, 2000; Kochan, 2004; Kryzhanivs'ka & Symonenko, 1987).

Expressiveness is associated with the ability of a speaker to make their speech more expressive and influential. According to Kharchenko (1976), expressiveness is based on the inconsistency between specific language units and language standards; that is why this category is due to imagery, intensity, etc. Lukyanova (1996) states that expressiveness is both objective and subjective. On the one hand, it is objective because phenomena, actions, attributes, and states differ in qualitative and quantitative characteristics. On the other hand, it is subjective as these characteristics are singled out by the speaker, mediated by his cognitive and emotional perception, and applied to a specific standard scale.

As expressiveness is aimed at intensifying the phenomenon's attributes and facilitating information delivery to the recipient, it performs a pragmatic function. Ishchenko (2010) claims that expressiveness reflects the speaker's intention to persuade the recipient and encourage him to take action. The linguist defines expressiveness as a feature of stylistically colored (as opposed to stylistically neutral) language units characterized by imagery, emotional coloring, ability to express the inner state of the speaker, and influence the interlocutor.

Scientists actualize the pragmatic category of expressiveness in compound term-nouns of the English scientific and technical texts through metaphorical components in the structure of compound term-nouns used in particular communicative situations (Lazebna, 2010).

Kukharenko (2000) believes that "the expressiveness of the metaphor is promoted by the implicit simultaneous presence of images of both objects – the one that is named and the one that supplies its legal name" (p. 23). Metaphorical compound term-nouns are formed with common nouns that denominate subjects, phenomena, or processes. The transference of meaning stems from the subject or functional similarity. In the linguistic studies, metaphorical terms are classified from
the point of analogy that can stem from the similarity of external characteristics (size, shape, consistency, appearance) and functions (Black, 1993).

In the opinion of Ivina (2003), metaphor is often the only way to name specific objects, phenomena, or processes. In some cases, only metaphorical terms can reflect our understanding of the essence of those phenomena or subjects with no established name. Despite its conventionality, the assimilation of a new concept to other well-known and more understandable concepts is a typical way of creating new scientific and technical terms.

**Within the functional approach,** all compound term-nouns in electrical engineering can be systematized into three groups based on their functional coloring. Brandes (1983) defines functional coloring as specific territorial, temporal, social, professional, national, or emotional nuances in the lexical meaning. The first group includes neological, obsolete, and archaic compound term-nouns, i.e., terminological units whose lexical meaning reflects the timeframe of their coinage and functioning. The second group includes occasional compound term-nouns, i.e., terminological units whose lexical meaning contains some information about age, sex, education, occupation, social status of their users. The third group includes borrowed compound term-nouns, i.e., terminological units whose lexical meaning points at their genuine origin.

The scientific and technological revolution has brought the so-called "neological boom", i.e., many lexical units appeared to describe new objects, phenomena, and concepts, particularly in electrical engineering. These lexical units are referred to as neologisms. Christmas (2006) explains neologisms as newly coined terms, words, or phrases to denote a new reality in a particular field of science and technology. Babenko (2014) mentions that neologisms can develop in three main ways: 1) a lexical unit is built with the existing words or morphemes (lexical neologisms); 2) a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon (semantic neologisms); 3) a new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon (neologisms proper).

There comes a time when terms denoting various electrical engineering realities begin to lose their relevance in language and speech. Such terms are referred to as obsolete, i.e., language units that are no longer in active use and are being replaced with contemporary equivalents (Matiello, 2017).

Obsolete compound term-nouns later turn into archaisms. Kukharenko (2000) defines archaisms as "words, 1) denoting historical phenomena that are no more in use (these are historical words); 2) in the course of language history ousted by newer synonymic words" (p. 16).
The sublanguage of electrical engineering is usually enriched with occasionalisms that are coined with the language units that already exist in the scientific and technical literature. This coinage is a manifestation of constant and diverse lexical and semantic processes. In modern linguistics, occasionalisms are also referred to as "impromptu words", "author's neologisms", "poetic neologisms", "individual-stylistic neologisms", "contextual neologisms", "disposable neologisms", "meteor words", "homemade words" (Lopatin, 1977). Such a wide variety of definitions can be explained by the objective difficulties in distinguishing between occasionalisms and neologisms. However, the main difference between the two stems from their functioning, i.e., occasionalisms, in contrast to neologisms, are created and function outside the lexical system of language.

Borisova (2020) and Nykytchenko (2015) state that several key criteria set occasionalisms apart from neologisms. They are: 1) belonging to speech (occasionalisms are coined by speakers in a particular communicative situation, they do not exist in language and, unlike neologisms, are not registered by dictionaries); 2) creativity or non-reproducibility (occasionalisms, as opposed to neologisms, are not reproduced but re-created for each specific communicative act); 3) word-forming derivativeness (occasionalisms consist of at least two word-forming morphemes, i.e., derivation is their mandatory feature, while neologisms can be created using both word-building means and non-derivative words, for example, borrowings from other languages); 4) expressiveness (this feature stems from the occasionalisms' internal word-forming structure); 5) nominative optionality (occasionalisms are created for one-time use and do not refer to any fixed fragments of reality, unlike neologisms that are historically registered in the language); 6) synchronic-diachronic diffusivity (occasionalisms cannot be analyzed from this perspective as they are created for one-time use, are non-reproductive and, thus, quickly disappear); 7) individual belonging (it is impossible to identify who coined an occasionalism because speech is transient) (Borisova, 2020; Nykytchenko, 2015).

Concerning the abovementioned criteria, occasionalism is defined in the study as a language unit that is created for one-time use and characterized by expressiveness, word-forming derivativeness, and nominative optionality. Occasionalisms are an asset of speech; they are always expressive, created by a specific speaker, and coined concerning a particular communicative situation and goals. Occasionalisms are dependent on context outside that they are non-reproductive. Unlike neologisms, their main function is not nominative but characterizing. Their distinctive feature is a constant novelty (Mattiello, 2016).

The number of English newly formed words can also increase due to borrowings from classical languages, i.e., Greek and Latin, and French. A borrowing is understood as an element (word, morpheme, syntactic construction, etc.) that was imported from one language to another and took root in its vocabulary as a result of close linguistic contacts or due to the society's need for the most
accurate and precise denomination of a specific reality (Basovets & Khomenko & Tsvetkova, 2010).
The current study treats borrowed compound term-nouns as lexical units built with foreign language
stems or foreign term elements.

Methodology
In the current study, a combination of methods is used to analyze compound term-nouns in
electrical engineering texts. The analysis-synthesis method is used to collect and familiarize the
theoretical data about compound term-nouns and other linguistic phenomena related to the research
topic. Under the quantitative analysis, the study probes structural, semantic, and functional
characteristics of compound term-nouns. The review uses a continuous sampling method and draws
on a collection of English scientific and technical texts on electrical engineering of various genres
represented by scientific and educational (textbooks, manuals), scientific proper (scientific articles),
scientific reference (instructions), and technical contracts. The collection of texts understudy has
been randomly chosen from 15 textbooks (9725 pages), 15 scientific articles (160 pages), 15
contracts (70 pages), 15 instructions (341 pages) with a total of 10296 pages. The semantic analysis
is used to single out the main micro fields (lexical-semantic groups) of the compound term-nouns
functioning in the analyzed electrical engineering texts. The componential analysis is used to pick
out the integral and differential semes (components) in the semantic structure of the lexical meaning
of the analyzed compound term-nouns; it is also used to identify semantic relations between
particular components of the analyzed compound term-nouns. The word-formation analysis is used
to state the number and type of morphemes that make up the analyzed compound term-nouns. The
stylistic analysis is used to single out stylistically colored compound term-nouns functioning in the
analyzed electrical engineering texts. The functional analysis is used to study peculiarities of the
functioning of compound term-nouns in the texts on electrical engineering.

Findings and Discussion
The analysis was made on the data that included 2000 compound term-nouns collected with a
continuous sampling method from 15 textbooks, 15 scientific articles, 15 contracts, and 15
instructions.

Semantic Classification of Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering
The study's findings show that the terminological field in electrical engineering of the English
language has seven micro fields, either of which consists of compound term-nouns. These
terminological units are structurally different, still semantically and functionally united due to the
connection of subjects, phenomena, processes, and actions they denote.

Figure one presents seven micro fields that compound term-nouns in electrical engineering
belong to. Each of the micro fields is an open microsystem whose members bear relations with
each other.
Data uncovered that the semantic micro fields in electrical engineering include compound term-nouns that refer to: 1) names of devices and appliances (930; 46%), e.g., hardcard, motorbicycle, percussion-drill, radiomicrometer, phonocartograph; 2) names of parts of devices and tools (453; 23%), e.g., phonecamera, tap-switch; 3) names of processes, concepts, and phenomena (398; 20%), e.g., cut-off, energy-output, engine-flameout, microshort-defect; 4) names of objects and materials (98; 5%), e.g., terne-plate, ternesheet, glass-fibre, shield-wire; 5) names of systems and mechanisms (50, 2.5%), e.g., telesoftware; 6) names of units of measurement (40, 2%), e.g., kiloohm, megavolt, nanosecond; 7) names of professions (1.5%), e.g., programmer-engineer.

Research data reveal that compound term-nouns in electrical engineering are chiefly represented by two-component terminological units, e.g., carry-current, while three-, e.g., valve-in-head and four-component units, e.g., radioelectrocardiograph are less frequent. They are built with word-formation patterns, including word-composition, e.g., push-pull, stem-composition, e.g., automodem and conversion, e.g., cut-off. There are specific semantic relations between components of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering: 1) subordinative of which the components are the semantic center and can act as identification of another, e.g., antenna-converter; 2) coordinative where both components are semantically independent, e.g., transducer-amplifier.

From a lexical perspective, each component of compound term-nouns is extremely important. Let us consider the two-component terminological units in that the first component ‘robot’ is of generalized nature and refers to the functional characteristics of the depicted object. In contrast, the second component specifies the type of work performed by the object: robot-placer, robot-plane, robot-polisher, robot-rover, robot-satellite. The given examples illustrate that the first component forms a terminological field, while the second component specifies the meaning of the
entire term for functional purposes, thus narrowing the terminological field. In other words, the meaning of a compound term-noun is the sum of meanings of its components.

**Classification of Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering according to the Degree of Abstraction**

The study's findings show that abstract compound term-nouns in electrical engineering are built with specific derivative suffixes that denote the generalization of phenomena and concepts. These suffixes are: -ity (thermoelectricity); -ment (engine-displacement); -ance (transconductance); -tion (underconsumption).

Also, data uncovered that the most productive derivative suffixes used to coin concrete compound term-nouns in Modern English are: -er (rocket-launcher, pipe-cleaner); -or (fuse-isolator, microinjector).

Figure two illustrates the proportions of abstract and concrete compound term-nouns in electrical engineering texts.

![Figure 2. Classification of Compound Term-Nouns in Electrical Engineering according to the Degree of Abstraction: Quantitative Data](image)

As Figure two shows, the group of concrete compound term-nouns prevails (1583 units), while abstract compound term-nouns are less frequent (417 units).

**Classification of Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering according to the Degree of Stylistic Features**

Research data reveal that electrical engineering texts include both stylistically neutral and stylistically colored compound term-nouns. Stylistically neutral compound term-nouns of electrical engineering texts have no stylistic meaning and coloring, are used in any communicative situation, and are understandable for specialists of any scientific and production sphere. They are common terms that denominate processes, phenomena, and engineering professionals, e.g., antenna-coil. Stylistically colored compound term-nouns are terminological units with functional or expressive coloring in scientific and technical texts on electrical engineering.
Figure three presents the proportions of stylistically colored and stylistically neutral compound term-nouns in texts on electrical engineering.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3. Classification of Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering according to the Degree of Stylistic Features: Quantitative Data**

As Figure three reveals, stylistically colored compound term-nouns are infrequent in 69 (3,5%) electrical engineering texts.

Data show that stylistic coloring of the collected compound term-nouns is actualized through the metaphorical reinterpretation of one of their components, e.g., *tooth-voltage, butterfly-antenna, pig-tail, bottle-neck*. In the given examples, the underlined word components (*tooth, butterfly, pig, tail, bottle, neck*) render figurative (metaphorical) meaning. Each of the abovementioned components can function in the English language as an independent word and, therefore, has its direct meaning. It is the presence of this direct meaning that evokes associations (analogies) in the recipient's mind, helps to interpret the meaning of a new compound terminological unit, and creates the desirable pragmatic effect.

Metaphorical compound term-nouns are highly informative, relatively compact, economical, and easy-to-understand. Thus, their existence adds expression, vividness, and originality to the sub-language of electrical engineering and meets the communicative needs of the corresponding industry sector.

Thus, compound term-nouns in electrical engineering, their components, and common words have specific, pragmatic potential, i.e., a set of semantic layers that depend on the speaker, special communicative goals, and communicative situation. In other words, pragmatic potential depends on specific linguistic and extralinguistic factors. It has been specified that compound term-nouns in electrical engineering are characterized by expressiveness, even though it contradicts the general standardization and stylistic restraint of compound terminological units. In the modern sense,
however, expressiveness of compound term-nouns is an essential means of influencing the recipient.

**Classification of Compound Term-nouns according to the Degree of Frequency**

Recently there has been a dramatic increase in the number of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering due to the dynamic development of this industry. This research work used compound term-nouns collected from English scientific and technical texts on electrical engineering, including textbooks, articles, instructions, and contracts. After compound term-nouns had been collected, an attempt was made to classify these nouns by the usage frequency in the genres of scientific and technical literature. It should be mentioned, however, that the factual material sources were only one article, one contract, one textbook, and one instruction, i.e., only one text representing each genre of scientific and technical literature. Other texts of the same genre include common terminology that could hinder accurate quantitative analysis.

**Scientific Textbook**

The first factual material source was a scientific textbook with 287 pages (Bonamy, 2001). Applying continuous sampling method, 132 compound term-nouns (69%) were collected and further divided into four groups: 1) compound term-nouns built with borrowed stems of Greek and Latin origin as the initial element, e.g., turbocompressor, electromotor, electromagnetism; 2) compound derivatives built with word-forming suffixes such as -er (lawn-mover, body-scanner, chest-freezer), -ance (scratch-resistance); 3) compound term-nouns built with word-composition: grass-box, cut-blade, brake-pads, laser-display; 4) converted compound term-nouns where the verb followed by a preposition turns into a compound terminological unit, e.g., breakdown, breakthrough, cut-out, send-out, slide-down.

**Scientific Article**

The second factual material source was a scientific article full of terminological units in electrical engineering (Csanyi, 2018). Compound term-nouns are infrequent in scientific articles. This conclusion was drawn from the conducted analysis as a result of that 39 (20%) compound term-nouns were collected: backfire, flashover, out-hang, hand-crank.

**Maintenance Instruction Manual**

The third factual material source was a maintenance instruction manual for generators (FG Wilson Generator Set Operator & Maintenance Instruction Manual, 2019). As a result of the conducted analysis, 17 (9%) compound term-nouns in electrical engineering were collected: emergency-stop-button, shutoff (devices), electrolyte, thermostat, output, serviceability, pipework, forklift, base-frame, startup, shutdown, voltmeter, engine-handbook, set-point, overvoltage, battery-auto-chargers, troubleshooting.
Contract

The fourth factual material source was a 13-page bilingual Anglo-Russian contract (ND DATEX LLD, 2018). Only 3 (2%) compound term-nouns were collected. A characteristic feature of compound terminological units in this genre of scientific and technical literature is their multiple uses. A detailed analysis of the contract showed that the compound term-noun smartcard was used 55 times; moreover, once or twice in the same syntactic construction. Other examples of compound terminological units are fuel-card, and microchip used 18 and eight times, respectively.

Figure four illustrates the proportions of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering texts according to the degree of their usage frequency.

As Figure four shows, scientific textbooks are the most active source of functioning compound term-nouns in electrical engineering (69%), scientific articles (20%) are less active, instructions and contracts are the least active sources (9% and 2%, respectively).

Classification of Compound Term-nouns according to Functional Colouring

Neological Compound Term-nouns

Data uncover that neologisms are moderately used in modern electrical engineering texts (45 language units; 4.5%). They are represented by lexical neologisms (multi-cooker, steam-cooker, etc.); semantic neologisms (the word "record-player" developed the meanings "CD player," "video player," "MP3 player"); neologisms proper (mono-wheel, hydro-scooter, power-bank, etc.).

Obsolete Compound Term-nouns

Table one illustrates six obsolete compound term-nouns (0.6%) in electrical engineering that were collected in the course of the study.
Table 1. Obsolete Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering of Modern English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Obsolete compound term-noun</th>
<th>Contemporary equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>self-phone</td>
<td>telephone, smart-phone, iPhone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>printing press</td>
<td>computer, notebook, iPad; e-book, pocketbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>e-book</td>
<td>Pocketbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Millimicron</td>
<td>Nanometer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Gigahertz</td>
<td>Gigacycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Gigabit</td>
<td>Billibit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Archaic Compound Term-nouns

Since our study is focused on compound term-nouns in modern scientific and technical texts, the total number of collected archaisms is only 28 (2.7%), e.g., print-punch, radio-tube, telephonograph, video-card. The analyzed compound term-nouns in electrical engineering show that the degree of their obsolescence depends on the following factors: 1) place of a compound term-noun in the lexical system, 2) usage frequency of a compound term-noun; 3) the ability of a compound term-noun to be in line with scientific and technological progress.

Occasional Compound Term-nouns

Research data show that occasional compound term-nouns are infrequent in electrical engineering texts. Only eight occasional compound term-nouns (0.7%) were collected in the course of the study. They are: 1) book-reader – a versatile textbook for students that contains an entire school curriculum; 2) ultra-e-book/pocketbook/touch-pad – an extremely thin and compact computer, yet more functional than an ordinary one; 3) travel SIM – an upgraded SIM card that facilitates mobile communication abroad, giving users additional functions of account recharge in any part of the world; 4) smartcard – a plastic rather programmable card with large storage capacity used for storing information on portable devices; 5) scarab-cycle – a mode of transport that combines the functions of a motorcycle and is shaped like a scarab beetle; 6) sky-train – a capsule moving at the height of 6 meters on magnet ropes; although similar to a funicular, it is engineered for long-distance air travel; 7) dream-liner – a specially equipped super-fast aircraft that is comfortable to fly in; 8) jet-pack – a flying backpack that facilitates movement without weighing a schoolchild's shoulders down.

The abovementioned language units help to conclude that occasionalisms, particularly those that refer to technical innovations and function in scientific and technical literature, expand the conceptual structure of Modern English.

Borrowed Compound Term-nouns

The study results reveal that Modern English texts in electrical engineering contain many borrowed compound term-nouns (950 language units; 91.5%). Data show that new compound
Compound Term-nouns in Electrical Engineering Texts

Karachun, Haidenko & Borkovska

term-nouns are often formed with borrowed stems of Greek and Latin origin. In our opinion, this is because different language subsystems are imperfect and have no adequate word-formation means when it comes to the denomination of new realities. Many borrowed stems of Greek and Latin origin are frequently used to create new terminological units that can lead to structural, semantic and stylistic changes in these newly formed words. Common word-forming stems that compound-term nouns in electrical engineering are built with include: 1) stems of Latin origin that refer to the size (micro, macro, nano), quantity (multi, poly, mono, mega), method of receiving information (audio, video), control mode (radio, tele, auto, phono), physical phenomenon that underlies the principle of operation (electro, aero, thermo, photo, hydro, pneumo, turbo; e.g., electro-radiometer, radio-tube); 2) stems of French origin (antenna-array, machine-cast, battery-cable); 3) stems of Czech origin (robot-camera).

Figure five presents proportions of compound term-nouns in scientific and technical texts on electrical engineering according to functional coloring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Borrowings</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neologisms</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archaisms</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionalisms</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obsolete words</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5. Classification of Compound Term-nouns according to Functional Colouring: Quantitative Data

It is evident from Figure five that in the electrical engineering texts prevalent are borrowings (950; 91.5%), while neologism (45; 4.5%) and archaisms (28; 2.7%) are less frequent. Infrequent are occasional (8; 0.7%) and obsolete (6; 0.6%) compound term-nouns.

Conclusion

This study focused on structural, semantic, and functional characteristics of compound term-nouns in electrical engineering texts.

The findings of the study show that English compound term-nouns in electrical engineering comprise seven micro fields: 1) names of devices and appliances (930; 46%); 2) names of parts of devices and tools (453; 23%); 3) names of processes, concepts, and phenomena (398; 20%); 4) names of objects and materials (98; 5%); 5) names of systems and mechanisms (50, 2.5%); 6)
names of units of measurement (40, 2%); 7) names of professions (1.5%). Each of the micro-fields is an open microsystem whose members bear relations with each other.

Concerning the degree of abstraction, compound term-nouns in electrical engineering are represented by abstract and concrete. The quantitative analysis results illustrate that the first group of nouns prevails (1583; 79%).

Concerning the degree of stylistic features, compound term-nouns are arranged into two groups, i.e., stylistically colored (69; 3.5%) and stylistically neutral (1931; 96.5%). Stylistically colored nouns in texts on electrical engineering have expressive or functional coloring. The category of expressiveness is an essential means of influencing the recipient that is actualized through the metaphorical components of compound term-nouns.

It has been specified that compound components of terms can obtain a specific, pragmatic potential, i.e., a set of semantic layers that depend on the communicative situation (time and place of communication, speaker's and recipient's communicative goals, age, social status, etc.).

According to the degree of frequency of compound term-nouns' usage, it has been found that the scientific textbooks are the main source of functioning compound term-nouns (69%), scientific articles are less effective (20%), and the least effective sources have been found instructions and contracts (9% and 2% respectively).

Because of functional coloring, lexical and semantic changes of compound term-nouns are expressed in five notions: neologisms, borrowings, occasionalisms, obsolete vocabulary, and archaisms. In texts on electrical engineering prevalent are borrowings (950; 91.5%), while neologism (45; 4.5%) and archaisms (28; 2.7%) are less frequent. Infrequent are occasional (8; 0.7%) and obsolete (6; 0.6%) compound term-nouns.

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English Language Education at Ukrainian University: Interdisciplinary Aspect

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Abstract
The main aim of the article is to consider the interdisciplinary aspect of English language education of pre-service teacher training at Ukrainian university. Since it is a review article, the paper intends to address the theoretical issue and the practical implementation of the interdisciplinary approach at Ukrainian university. In the authors’ opinion, interdisciplinary aspect is important for raising the quality of language. It helps achieve the goal of Ukrainian pedagogy to bring up an all-round creative personality with the capacity and skills to establish an intercultural dialogue. English language proficiency is a facilitator for accomplishing the set tasks. Thus, the authors believe that the purposes of pedagogical and language education research are interconnected and lie in the modernization of educational content. The study underscores the significance of the interdisciplinary aspect of English language specialists’ training. It encourages gaining and sustains knowledge through multiple teaching and learning styles and the integration of different disciplines. The findings of the study highlight the necessity to meet the requirements of Ukrainian society. They demonstrate the issue is worth addressing since it improves the educational practices and raises the prestige of Ukrainian education.

Keywords: English language education, interdisciplinary aspect, integration of knowledge, Ukrainian university

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Introduction

Raising the quality of English teacher preparation is increasingly coming under scrutiny and stems from the political context. The interdisciplinary aspect of Ukrainian university is a means to enhance language education. The condition of English proficiency has become an area of serious concern since 1991, the year of Ukraine’s gaining independence. As it is known, language education did not rise to priority in Soviet Ukraine: the contacts with other countries were limited, and the international dialogues were scarce. Among the other reasons why the general level of English was low were the old methodologies of instruction developed in the country that was isolated from the rest of the world.

However, due to a significant shift in modern political orientations, reconsideration of the role and place of Ukraine on the international arena (Sidenko, 2019; Waal, 2019), language education has acquired a new status, updated tasks and ambitious perspectives (British Council, 2018; Etherton, 2019; Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2016; Nikolaeva, 2017, p.54). The English language helps bridge a gap in intercultural communication with the other countries, reach mutual understanding between peoples, exchange experience and accomplish Ukraine’s mission of becoming a full-fledged European country (Bolitho & West, 2017; Dikov, 2019; Lee, 2010; Sidenko, 2019; Waal, 2019). Therefore, the issue was paid close attention to from the government of Ukraine (Order of President of Ukraine, 2013; Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2017a, b, c).

As a consequence, language education in Ukraine has had to undergo many alterations in methodologies of foreign languages teaching in secondary and higher education (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2017 c). Teachers had to revise student engagement and motivation approaches, time and classroom management strategies, language specialist content and training principles, which, eventually, have received a deserved priority in the modernization of English teacher training and improvement of the quality of the knowledge of English and other foreign languages in Ukrainian schools (British Council, 2017; British Council: New School Generation Teacher Project, 2013-2019; Etherton, 2019). In search of new findings and innovations to update language specialists’ preparation, along the methodologies of teaching and the array of linguistic studies, the non-linguistic features were identified as indispensable and contributing to the professional qualifications of modern teachers of English in today’s globalized world.

As the UNESCO Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-First Century Vision and Action (1998) stated, to solve the complicated social and economic issues in society, and to do thriving scientific research, higher education should integrate interdisciplinary, trans-disciplinary, multidisciplinary approaches into educational processes (UNESCO, 1998). However, many educational institutions face challenges while integrating the strategies mentioned above into practice (Chernysh, 2019; Kushchina, 2013; Orekhov, 2018).

The literature review provides the information about the change in the political orientations of Ukraine, which, as a result, affected the attitudes positively towards language training in Ukraine and urged to consider interdisciplinarity potent enough to improve education through integrating other disciplines and relating language issues to real life. The literature has shown that the issue of
interdisciplinarity is getting more topicality in Ukrainian education. The resources present the research and findings that appeared years ago and more recent studies. The scholars G. Gunn, H. Jacobs, W. Jacob, J. Klein, T. Augsburg, G. Slavicek, E. Bushkovska, E. Kushchina, H. Hansen, A. Orekhov, etc. studied the nature, history, practical application, impact of interdisciplinarity. The findings are relevant to study in Ukraine.

**Theoretical Background of the Research**

**Understanding the Nature of Interdisciplinarity**

The analysis of the sources testifies that scientific literature published both in foreign countries and Ukraine lacks uniformity regarding terminology, namely, concerning the definition of the term “interdisciplinarity.” The definitions vary because they depend on the meanings implied by experts from various fields of knowledge. (Augsburg, 2012, Bushkovska, 2010; Gunn, 1992; Jacobs, 1990; Jacob, 2015; Klein, 1990; Slavicek, 2012; Mokiy, Lukyanova, 2017).

According to Bushkovska (2010, p. 154), interdisciplinarity that was in use in the times of Greek philosophy has the same nature and promotes the development of education in aspects of commonly accepted standard knowledge, its integration, synthesis, and unification. Greek philosophers and dramatists borrowed the elements from such fields as medicine and philosophy to broaden their expertise (Augsburg, 2012; Bushkovska, 2010; Gunn, 1992).

Wikipedia informs that interdisciplinarity involves the combining of two or more academic disciplines into one activity. In an e-dictionary by M. Webster, we read that “interdisciplinarity encompasses two or more academic, scientific or artistic disciplines” (Merriam Webster, n.d.). The meaning of the term is described broader on the site Dictionary.com. It denotes interdisciplinarity as a combination of two or more academic disciplines in subject areas and several professions, technologies, etc. Slavicek (2012, p.109) presented the most well-grounded understanding of interdisciplinarity nature from a historical perspective. He divided the word into the prefix “inter,” which in his opinion denotes a link between the two components or a space that exists between them, and the root of the word, which is “discipline” meaning in Latin “the instruction mentors provide students with.” In this case, the prefix “inter” can be interpreted, on the one hand, - as a link element between the two independently existing disciplines; on the other hand, - as a reference to the space that separates the elements (Slavicek, 2012, p.108).

**Interdisciplinarity Actions, Effects, and Language Studies**

Although the interdisciplinarity approach highlights the actions that occur within the two fields of knowledge (disciplines), including the space separating them, it does not grant a close intertwining of the disciplines within the boundaries of one approach. Moreover, it becomes sufficient if only they cooperate (Slavicek, 2012, p.107). According to Bushkovska (2010, p.153), “interdisciplinarity” is a combination of various subjects which don’t have an evident content connection: music, mathematics, history; “multidisciplinarity” covers the disciplines that have content connections, yet, they preserve the existing dividing lines between them; the term “transdisciplinarity” accepts the presence of common axioms for a certain array of disciplines, it implies destroying the boundaries between disciplines to explain one discipline field in terms of another. Thus, the terms essentially differ by effects they may exert. (Bushkovska, 2010; Jacob, 2015; Orekhov, 2018).
Jacobs (1990), president of the association of academic syllabi developers, suggests dividing the aspect into knowledge view and the discipline-field knowledge view. He proposes to refer to interdisciplinarity the scientific approach in the context of which within the central topic, problem, event, experience research, the methodology and terminology of more than one field are consciously applied to knowledge view. The interdisciplinary approach significantly varies from those that are limited to the body of knowledge of one particular area, although, they are still widely used in scientific spheres.

According to Kushchina (2013, p.10), the interdisciplinarity effect broadens the scientific outlook: students study different phenomena transcending the boundaries of one discipline. To some extent, the interdisciplinarity effect in science and education results in avoidance of the harmful consequences of excessive specialization and fragmentation. The emergence of the interdisciplinary approach changed the field of language studies and language education. Previously, the domain of philology was “compartmentalized” (Hansen, 2004, p.9). However, the comparative aspects that emerged with time created the space for interdisciplinarity. According to Hansen (2004, p.11), due to the interdisciplinary approach, the new paradigms of language studies were put into practice, which appeared to be an exciting and challenging interdisciplinary collaboration in language. It is evident language education engages the collective effort of specialists from other fields. The multidisciplinary approach to language education and studies ensures better linguistic proficiency and, through language studies, - profound expertise in cultural and historical studies (Kolawoles, 2013, p.9).

Drivers and Orientations in Research

It is necessary to admit that the complexity of nature and society are the main drivers of the interdisciplinary research at the current stage of societal development. In addition to the main drivers, the problems and questions limited to one discipline, the requirements to solve social issues, the need to generate revolutionary ideas and technologies serve as the drivers in research (Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research, 2005; Klein, 2010, p.32). The body of the interdisciplinary approach to scientific research lies in using various methods for subject research (Interdisciplinary Research, 2016). In considering this research from different points of view, scientists of two or more disciplines combine and adjust the approaches to ease understanding its nature in the framework of several traditional branches of knowledge (Klein, 2010, p.38; Orekhov, 2018, p.91). Moreover, interdisciplinary scientific research engages the collaboration of experts from different fields; therefore, it results in qualitatively new knowledge and experience of application of practical approaches to solving various issues.

An interdisciplinary approach to research on education is, probably, one of the most effective. The interdisciplinarity develops pedagogical theory and practical application opportunities. It strengthens the methodological platform for building the subject content. Furthermore, interdisciplinarity identifies the scientific ideas which systematize and ease the study of different subjects. The educational reform recommended by UNESCO (1998) highlighted several orientations in educational research. In compliance with these recommendations, the humanization of education necessitates the sociological adjustment, which prioritizes the studies related to the current global problems of human development. The ethnological orientation reveals the
The interconnection between nations and peoples. The cultural orientation has a focus on the educational strategy of developing a culturally and spiritually vibrant personality (UNESCO, 1998).

Another orientation requires to underpin the sociological and ecological awareness as the content priorities in education, which implies strengthening the functions of educational systems to transfer universal and national cultural values and to compare civilizations and cultures.

The integration with educational technologies, different formats of teaching, utilization of informational-communicative techniques - another significant orientation to improve research and knowledge.

The orientation towards consistent education from pre-school to life-long professional education is believed to be a concluding one. The interdisciplinary approach to teaching relies on the ties between different disciplines, that is why, it implies collaborative planning of the learning process with technology integration, an effective reciprocity, interpenetration of elements of independent disciplines, the integrated learning, and teamwork. What also interesting is that such a way of instruction leads to deep, conscious comprehension and assimilation of knowledge (Interdisciplinarity Research, 2016; UNESCO, 1993; UNESCO, 1998).

**Practical Application for Sustainable Language Education**

Good teachers would agree that language education should be content-based and intended to account for student achievement in the core areas, which will provide skills that enable students to practice and research. Before the changes in education, English teachers practiced the approaches that were isolated and conflicting due to the lack of a holistic approach to the subject. Furthermore, they focused on one specific feature such as grammar, reading, or vocabulary, which resulted in weak knowledge of English at secondary and higher education institutions.

The interdisciplinary approach, probably, got its start in language education as counteracting the previous methods, when educators began to relate teaching practices to real-life situations. Life, by definition, is always versatile and diverse. With schooling becoming more informal and different, there appeared more freedom for pondering how to occupy young minds with more creative, informative, and fulfilling studies (Nikolaeva, 2017, p.55). It was noted that the emergence of the interdisciplinary approach at higher educational institutions had made the programs of English teacher preparation more sophisticated and enriching (Ministry of Education and Science, 2017 c). Simultaneously, because of the content overlapping, the elements of one subject are under study and revision, while considered in the context of another discipline, which is especially beneficial regarding learning foreign languages where repetition is necessary. Students enlarge the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar and develop holistic thinking and critical thinking skills to be able to operate in multiple subject contexts.

To adapt to the changing times, academic and work curricula at leading language education universities of Ukraine such as Kyiv National Linguistic University, Taras Shevchenko National University, National Kyiv-Mohyla Academy, offer undergraduate and graduate students teaching syllabi that include several aspects of one vast discipline: Linguistics comprises History of Arab World English Journal
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Linguistics, Text Linguistics, Psycholinguistics, Socio-linguistics, etc. Language is traditionally studied from philosophical, historical, and cultural perspectives. Phonetics and Translation Studies provide knowledge of theory and practical application. The courses of Literature encompass English-speaking countries that teach stylistic analysis and text interpretation; Writing distinguishes between composition, academic, and creative. Typology is concerned with the comparison of native and foreign languages. Such a context of training engages effectively the interdisciplinary, trans interdisciplinary, and multidisciplinary approaches.

In our opinion, ties between the disciplines become evident when two or more disciplines have common problems or research subjects, but students study them in different aspects. Interdisciplinary integration under such conditions has the following constituents: Linguistic and Country studies component (knowledge of lexical units with national and cultural semantics and an ability to use them in the situations of intercultural communication); Socio-linguistic component (language peculiarities of the representatives of various social strata); Socio-Psychological component includes communication-oriented learning role-plays; Culturological part deals with gaining the knowledge of history, the culture of people/peoples who are native speakers of the language studied by students. Multicultural communicative competency is doubtful without effective teaching methods that ensure successful communication in different styles depending on the conversation and situation. Teachers, as a rule, associate the interdisciplinary integration with the abundance of methodological tools that help develop in students not only communicative competencies in specific languages. Skillfully utilized, they sustain a solid multi-language communicative competence (Nikolaeva, 2017, p.56).

It is hard to disagree, the methodologies of teaching English and intercultural communication skills are given a significant part in English teacher preparation. The teacher-training universities from Vinnytsia, Zhytomyr, Rivne, Uman, Kharkiv, Chernivtsi, Nizhyn, Melitopol, Uzhhorod have become participants in the Pre-service Training Reform project that has been running since 2013 under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and the British Council (British Council, 2019). The project became cutting-edge and a breakthrough in English teacher preparation. The students and faculty of the universities-participants admit the project benefits greatly from an extensive engagement of the interdisciplinary aspect in it (Etherton, 2019).

In 2013 Vinnytsia State Pedagogical University initiated an exciting experiment in methodologies of teaching English. An international online project, “Web-Blended Education for English Skills,” was created in collaboration with several American and Canadian universities (Vinnytsia State Pedagogical University: web-blended education, n.d.). What differs this project from the regular classes of the methodology is mastering the methods of teaching English, e.g., academic writing, reading, basics of research, TESOL methodologies, etc. in the context of social, special education, academic honesty, internationalization, technologies application issues (Powell, Kuzmina, Kuzmin, Yamchynska, Shestopaliuk, 2014).

According to the standards set by the Ministry of Education, the procedure of final professional certification for a Bachelor’s degree at linguistic and language training universities is provided in the field of Secondary Education and Philology. The degree requires studying foreign languages (one or two), and literature at different educational levels. Students graduate with the professional
qualifications Teacher of Foreign Language and Foreign Literature (English) in Secondary Education (014), and Germanic Languages and Literature (English) in Philology (035) (Ministry of Education and Science, 2017 c; Ministry of Education and Science, 2019). The degree is obtained after completing the programs enriched with the interdisciplinary aspect that include comparative linguistics, text linguistics, text interpretation, the topics of historical character to mature the outlook and increase the worldview (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2019). At the same time, traditional classes are conducted in parallel with innovation to generate students’ interest in learning. Besides, future teachers are taught the foundation of self-education methodology to become life-long learners, which will facilitate professional growth corresponding to the demands of our ever-changing world.

In the Ukrainian educational system, Graduate School awards a Master’s degree as an independent degree and provides the qualifications in Philology (035) and Secondary Education (014). But Philology (035) qualifies graduates as Teacher of Germanic Languages and Literature (translation included); Secondary Education (014) - as Teacher of English and German Languages and Literature (Ministry of Education and Science, 2017 c).

Obtaining a Bachelor’s degree, students get the basics of linguistic and pedagogical disciplines, which entitle them to apply for a Master’s degree. The degree provides the professional specialization and ensures the highest competency in teaching foreign languages (English as a rule) at secondary or higher educational establishments. Graduate School focuses on research potential to continue scientific work. Master’s degree programs unite students of different majoring fields in the same groups for obligatory classes. However, students can choose themselves the optional courses that fit their learning trajectories and future careers, on condition that they enroll in required classes and take the required number of credits in the majoring fields, which implies an interdisciplinary approach to education. In accordance with the chosen specialization, students work on a large number of texts, annotations of the scientific discourses and translations of the abstracts from foreign into the native language. The acquired skills enhance language competences that apply to different fields of science, technology, economy. Another benefit of such training is better opportunities for future employment. Graduates critically analyze various points of view, phenomena, and events through the application of the languages mastered at the university. This is how students integrate into practice the interdisciplinary aspect in the process of foreign language learning, which results in language competence and multilingualism in students.

**Conclusion**

Although Ukraine is a young independent country, many changes have already taken place in language education, owing to the new political aspirations and social changes. The quality of English language education is paid close attention to since it enables the country to establish the ties and integrate into the European Union. Concluded of the findings of the research, the authors have agreed that the time of narrow-profile specialists’ preparation is in the past. The interdisciplinary aspect of English language preparation is a must nowadays at a Ukrainian university. Based on the ties between different disciplines, it involves technology, the integration of other disciplines, the subject content interrelation, and interpenetration of the course elements. While analyzing the literature, it becomes evident that such preparation broadens the realm of intellectualism and develops an all-round personality and a highly qualified specialist who regard
the acquired knowledge as a good foundation for the future professionalism of the contemporary teacher of English. Interdisciplinarity aspect integration into language education specialists’ training at Ukrainian university ensures a sustainable and systematic complex of language knowledge. It significantly raises students’ cognitive ability, intelligence, and critical thinking skills, promoting professional development and intercultural competence.

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Lingual Means of Imperative in the Lecture and Sermon Discourses

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Abstract
The research aims to reveal the peculiarities of the linguistic means of imperative utterances which function in the lecture and sermon discourses. They encourage students/parishioners to engage in the learning process fully. The following tasks were formulated: to categorize imperative utterances in the view of characteristic features of the mentioned discourses; to characterize the lexical-syntactic peculiarities of each type of imperative phrases. The object of the research is an oral English-language institutional discourse of two kinds – academic (lecture) and religious (sermon). The subject of the study is the lexical and syntactic arrangement of imperative utterances in the lecture and sermon discourses. To achieve the aim, both general scientific and unique linguistic research methods found application. Conclusions of the study are as follows: the functioning of imperative utterances in the sermon and lecture discourse is determined by such linguistic and extralinguistic factors as the expressiveness/implicitness of the imperative constructions, the syntactic structure of the imperative constructions, the communicative-pragmatic orientation, and the targeted nature of the order/localization of the imperative construction in the compositional text structure. In our work, direct and indirect explicit constructions, aimed at an immediate action, are viewed as operational imperative statements. According to the communicative-pragmatic orientation and considering the temporal signs, we distinguish two main types of motivation: simultaneous and post-communicative. The communicative-pragmatic orientation criterion also makes it possible to single out constructions intended to induce physical/mental impact (in lectures) and spiritual/mental impact (in sermons). The prospect of further investigation is studying non-verbal features of lecture and sermon discourses.

Keywords: imperatives, lecture/sermon discourse, linguistic means, learning process

Introduction
The institutional communication implies not only the exchange of information but also a particular impact on a communicant. On the assumption that “communication is impossible without an impulse to act” (Velskij, 1953, p. 83), it is reasonable to see imperativeness as a fundamental communicative feature. This feature, concurrently, is one of the brightest semantic-pragmatic discourse categories (Franko, 2010). It reveals the connection between the language and thinking on the one hand and the language and the situation of the verbal communication with the rules of its participants’ interaction on the other hand. Therefore, the focus on the oral imperative utterances within the lecture or sermon discourses is topical as being determined by the necessity to expose the role of verbal parameters in realizing oral institutional discourse.

The article aims to determine the compositional and lexico-syntactical and prosodic means of imperative in the lecture and sermon discourses. For this aim, the following tasks were defined: to classify imperative utterances taking into consideration the distinguishing features of these discourses; to characterize lexico-syntactic features of each type of imperative; to determine the recurrence of the imperative utterances usage in the discourses in the view of the compositional structure of a lecture or a sermon.

The object of the research is an oral English-language institutional discourse of two types, namely, the discourses of a lecture and a sermon. The subject is the lexico-syntactic arrangement of imperative utterances in the lecture and sermon discourses. The novelty of the research lies in the systematized verbal material under the specific linguistic and extra lingual parameters, which provide for particular functioning of the imperative utterances in the sermon and lecture discourses: explicit/implicit nature, syntactic structure, communicative pragmatic intention, targeted imperative and localization of the imperative utterance in the compositional form of the text of a lecture/sermon. Consideration of the peculiarities of the use of imperative utterances from a linguistic standpoint promotes the further study of specific texts in various fields of communication, complementing it with the observations of their features in the academic and religious spheres. The practical value of the study consists in the possibility of using the materials and conclusions contained in it in teaching several special courses on the problems of communicative influence, studying the specifics of the functioning of the English language in various discourses, etc.

The category of motivation belongs to such a conceptual category in which the pragmatic function of language is manifested at its fullest: the basis of imperative utterances is a reflection of the voluntary relationship between the speaker and his interlocutor.

Linguists working in the field of pragmalinguistics (J. L. Austin, J. R. Searle, T. A. van Dyck, etc.), aimed at studying the speech interaction of communicants, practical effect and effectiveness of utterances in communicative situations, consider imperative utterance as a way for the subject of speech to achieve a particular goal, as a verbal control of human behavior. This approach takes into account not only linguistic factors but also extra lingual contexts that determine the functioning of motivation as a means of speech acts and the influence of the speaker on the listener.
Considering the above mentioned, it is necessary to focus on the study of motivation in lecture and preaching discourses, as in these discursive segments the motivational intention of various kinds is laid down ab ovo: from motivating the listener to performing specific physical actions to performing complex psychomental operations or deep spiritual acts. Accordingly, it is reflected on all language levels and, above all, on the lexical language level.

The discourse brings about a specific feature of the imperative utterances. The category of imperative and impact includes two significant concepts: declaration of will and imperative, which, at the same time, are seen as a factor of influence upon those listening. In other words, the imperative situation provides the clue for the conditions of the declaration of will, which determine the need or ability to perform a specific imperative act. The awareness of such presumptions regulates the rules of an appropriate application and decodes the imperative utterances - their usage in the speech.

To make a verbal impact efficient, it has to appeal to both conscious and subconscious levels of mental activity; it is to integrate logical and emotional components, supported by the non-verbal means of communication. Meanwhile, structurally, the mind is the union of its three constituents – consciousness, subconsciousness, and motor skills. So, to stimulate the interlocutors’ activity, it takes to influence their consciousness, to agitate their subconsciousness (mainly, its emotional side), and involve them in a particular activity (Shejgal, 2005).

Based on the purpose of the study, which is to identify the linguistic features of imperative utterances that function in lecture and preaching discourses, the following tasks are to be solved: to highlight the main linguistic and extra lingual features of lecture and preaching discourses; to classify persuasive statements taking into account the peculiarities of these discourses; to establish a set of integral and differential linguistic features of the studied imperative utterances in lecture and preaching discourses.

**Literature Review**

As long as imperative utterances aim at expressing the speaker’s declaration of will to stimulate the activity, they can define the following: 1) an order, request, begging; 2) a piece of advice, proposal, warning, protest, threat; 3) an agreement, permission; 4) an appeal, invitation to a joint action; 5) a wish. Most of these meanings of the imperative utterances are not differentiated enough (for instance, begging and request, invitation and order, etc.) as the nuances are expressed with an intonation rather than a structure. This unclear differentiation resulted in forming various classifications of the imperative speech acts.

The classification by Beljaeva (1992) rests on three features: obligatory nature of an action, priority of a speaker, and benefits for the speaker. It enables Beljaeva to single out three groups: 1) prescriptives, which include resolutions, orders, permissions, prohibitions, instructions, regulations, and assignments; 2)suggestives, comprising some advice, suggestions, and warnings; 3) requestives, consisting of requests, begging, and invitations (Beljaeva, 1992).

Formanovskaja (2007) specifies the types of imperative speech acts, referring to the social status of a speaker and the benefitactivity of an action: 1) injunctives or prescriptives (resolutory
speech acts). These are orders, demands, commands, resolutions, assignments, instructions, prohibitions, permissions, compulsions. They derive from the priority of the power and social status of a speaker; 2) *requestives* – requests, begging, invoking. The action is beneficial for someone who speaks, so the speaker has a priority here; 3) *advisives* – pieces of advice, recommendations, instructions, recipes, suggestions, invitations. Taking action is desirable or even beneficial for the addressee (Formanovskaja, 2007).

Sarantcacroa (1993) conducts a systematic analysis of the pragmatic situation of imperative and establishes the following criteria for characterizing them: 1) in terms of how significant the gap between the social statuses of the speaker and listener is, she singles out socially determined speech acts (orders, prohibitions, warnings, requests, demands) and socially non-determined speech acts (pieces of advice, warnings, and suggestions); 2) directives can also be categorical and non-categorical. Orders, demands, prohibitions, and permissions are the categorical imperative acts. From this stand, a speaker has the right to stimulate an addressee to act, for instance, in a pragmatic situation of order. In addition, the addressee may / may not have the freedom to choose to perform / not perform the action to which he is induced; 3) categorical speech acts, in turn, also differ in scope. For example, commands and recommendations are possible only in the official speech, and advice, suggestions, warnings – both in official and unofficial; 4) depending on in whose interests the action takes place, there are directives providing incentives to perform the action in the interests of the speaker (request, requirement) or the interests of the listener (recommendation, proposal, permission) (Sarancacral, 1993).

Condoravdi and Lauer (2012) distinguish among four groups of imperatives: 1) *directives* – imperatives “intended to get the addressee to do something or refrain from doing something. It comprises orders, warnings, requests, as well as certain kinds of advice”; 2) *wish-type* imperatives express “mere speaker wishes, such as well-wishers, ill-wishes/curses, and even addressee-less or ‘absent’ wishes”. Being often ignored or set aside by the most of linguists wish-type can be referred to the imperatives as they derive from the meaning of imperatives. Kaufmann (2012) adheres to the same point, arguing that analyses of imperatives ought to be responsible for them; 3) *permissions and invitations* don’t really express that “the speaker wants something to happen, but rather communicate, in response to a manifest or potential addressee desire, that the speaker does not mind something happening”; 4) *disinterested advice* – “a special class of advice where the speaker has no interest in the fulfillment of the imperative” (Condoravdi, Lauer, 2012, p.38-39).

One of the most relevant classifications to differentiate the imperative speech acts (ISA) proposed Filatova (1997). She suggested several factors for determining the types of motivating situations, such as the characteristics of freedom in the addressee (categorical, non-categorical ISA), the characteristics of interest (whether the action is significant in the interests of the speaker, addressee, or it is insignificant); status factor (the status of the speaker below or above the status of the addressee, or the status of communicators is insignificant); performer factor (who performs the action: addressee, or speaker and addressee, or speaker, addressee and other persons); normative factor (normative ISA, according to which the speaker “relies on norms (moral, legal, etc)”, and non-normative ISA); environmental factor (significant - the speech act is used in a formal situation, or insignificant), conditionality factor (reactive and initiative ISA).
A language has different ways to fulfill the communicative goal of a speech act. The realization of pragmatic meaning in the communication in direct/indirect or explicit/implicit ways should be treated as possible psychological structures that form a basis of the speaker’s verbal behavior. It establishes a scope of the personal communicative freedom under the given communicative conditions. The choice of direct, indirect, explicit, or implicit speech is associated with the speaker’s subjective assessment of the communication parameters. The communicative acts with the precise pragmatic charge contain full non-contradictory and relevant information, enabling an addressee to make a clear choice of an appropriate reaction (Neustroev, 2008). The direct way to express ISA implies that the speaker seeks to make a particular illocutive impact on a listener, exploiting such speech tools, the illocutive power of which can be easily interpreted by the listener (Beljaeva, 1992). In such cases, “the speaker, uttering certain sentences, means literally what he or she says” (Sjorl’, 1986, p.165). An indirect way to express ISA implies that the sentence shows a deviation from the suggested semantic model of the direct ISA, manifested in the qualitative and/or quantitative replacements. The modification of a semantic model features complete or partial transformation. In such cases, the role of a missing link in the semantic model is played by the context.

**Methods**

The goal of the research asked for utilizing both general scientific and unique linguistic approach of analyses. A descriptive method was used to identify a set of characteristic features of the object of study; within the framework of the structural approach, elements of component analysis were used, due to which the semantic features of imperative constructions were revealed; aspects of conversational analysis optimized the process of reconstruction of the complex of components of the studied communicative sphere in its projection on the extra lingual situation. Linguoculturological research made it possible to highlight and explain the functional specifics of imperative constructions in English-language religious and academic discourses.

**Instruments**

The research into the imperative utterances of the institutional discourse is based on the materials of the video records and scripts of the texts of the oral lectures and sermons. To obtain a broader understanding of the issue, the corpus of the research was enlarged by conventional (classroom-based) and distant (online) lectures, as well as formal (church-based) and alternative (online) sermons. To study the imperative utterances in traditional lectures, the video records of the classroom-based lectures at the University of Reading Berkshire, England were used. The imperatives in the distant online-lectures were studied based on the Internet-records of Education for Everybody social program. The research into the means of imperative in the religious sermon discourse was based on the Anglican sermons, recorded during the church services, and the Internet-based records of the sermons of the modern Neo-Protestant preachers, with such preaching being isolated from the church service.

The study material is presented in two corpora: audio and video recordings of 882 implementations of English-language imperative utterances, singled out from 42 lectures (21 classroom lectures and 21 online lectures), which amounted to 411 minutes of text playing (transcript is 164 pages of printed A4 text, in font Times New Roman 14), and audio and video recordings of 876 implementations of English-language imperative utterances, separated from 42
sermons (21 church-based sermons and 21 online sermons), which amounted to 398 minutes of text playing (transcript is to 159 A4-format pages of the printed text in font Times New Roman 14).

Results

The sermon and lecture discourses usually have a classical compositional structure of a rhetoric piece: an introduction - central part - conclusion. The central part of the lecture comprises the presentation of the significant volume of the material and argumentation. In contrast, in the sermon, the imperative elements of the central part are narration (presentation of a Biblical scene or event on which a sermon is focused on) and interpretation. Given that these parts are similar in their intention criteria and the pragmatic basis, we will further employ the consolidating terms of presentation and explanation when referring to the central part of both a sermon and a lecture.

The realization of the lecturer’s and preacher’s strategies is driven by impelling the audience to take a communicative action through the imperative constructions. Linguistic and extra-lingual factors that determine the functioning of the imperative utterances in the sermon and lecture discourses imply the following:

- explicit/implicit nature of imperative utterances;
- the syntactic structure of imperative utterances;
- the communicative-and-pragmatic orientation of imperative utterances;
- targeted imperative;
- localization of an imperative construction in the compositional structure of the lecture/sermon text.

Speaking about the explicit/implicit nature of the imperative utterances, we follow the differentiation of direct and indirect imperative utterances, represented in the Speech Act Theory (Ostin, 1986). This approach argues that in the direct speech acts, the speaker's illocutive goal is directly manifested through the marker specifically assigned explicitly - illocutive indexes. In the speech acts of imperative the goal of impelling an addressee to act is directly expressed by either performative lexicosyntactic constructions or the critical form of a notional verb. In this way, explicit imperative constructions directly impel the listeners to act.

In the researched sermons and lectures, the imperative utterances of such kind feature an exceptionally high level of recurrence:

- lectures:
  Look at this!
  Name me a country!
- sermons:
  Pay attention to this very Verse!
  Think about their words!

Imperative can be presented implicitly, too, through the indicators meant for marking other illocutive plans: manifesting will to have something done, or a question about the future goals of an addressee or their ability to act.
A broad application of indirect implicit imperative speech acts can be explained, primarily, by the speaker’s desire to level down the categorical nature of the imperative. The chief motive of using indirect speech acts is politeness, which often plays a critical role in shaping the imperative and selecting linguistic forms of expressing a communicative goal. Implicit imperative utterances are not the holders of the direct declaration of will. Usually, the constructions are formed as conditional sentences, aiming to drive a listener toward this or that action relatively delicately and subtly. Such structures communicate the wish, giving the listener a free choice:

- Lectures:
  If you consult some more books on marketing, you surely will notice the common pattern (S. Basins).

- Sermons:
  If you look at the 19th chapter Luke. If you read the 13th chapter of Jeremiah, you will obviously return to your innocent past (Pastor J. MacArthur).

The analysis of the research material allows for the assertion that the primary goal of the direct, explicit imperative constructions is the orientation of an addressee on the immediate implementation of a formulated action, largely – a procedural one (directly related to the communication situation). We suggest calling this type of imperative constructions in sermon and lecture discourses operational as they improve presenting/perceiving information. Exploiting indirect implicit constructions, a lecturer/preacher down-tones the categoricalness of imperative – he or she offers an idea, motivates the listeners, and drives them toward an independent realization that these actions are necessary. Primarily, the main goal of the suggested type of imperatives is an addressee's post-communicative action.

Direct imperative constructions in the sermon discourse aim not only to impel the listeners to take formal procedural actions (operations) associated with the communicative situation (open the Bible on the page..., listen to the words of..., pay attention to...etc.), but also to call the congregation to perform the chief communicative and post-communicated action: to turn to God.

Take a look at yourself. See and acknowledge that you have a problem. Ask the Lord for strength to overcome that. Then overcome it, and do better (K. Wimer).

A distinctive characteristic of the syntactic structure of the imperative utterances is its variety. We detected all traditional syntactic means of imperative realization: imperative sentences (complete, elliptic), built according to the imperative mood; declarative sentences in the indicative mood with the performative verbs; and interrogatory sentences.

The most widely used variant of the imperative explication in the studied text of lectures and sermons was imperative constructions: a verb in the imperative mood (Vim): Believe me, listen to me. To express various imperative-enhancing expressive tones, a verb in the imperative mood can be accompanied by a pronoun you, which often precedes it and creates a semantically integral combination (you + Vim): you wait for the next life. When expressing an imperative, a significant role is also played by an infinitive in various syntactic integral combinations, namely, with an emphatic do, which creates an assertive version of syntaxeme (do...
Vi): *Do think of the sins you’ve committed, Do come to our next lecture.* The studied material showed that when imperative impels to take action jointly with a speaker, an infinitive with an auxiliary verb *let,* and a pronoun *us* (*let us Vi, let’s Vi*) is applied. Such construction is most typical for the sermon discourse:

*Let’s say «Halleluia!» together!* (T. Evans)
*Let us strive to narrow the gap between. Yes, let us feed the hungry, those who lack food — but let us also meet the needs of a doctor or medicine. Yes, let us work sincerely and even-handedly for justice — the justice that may bring the balm of peoples and communities* (Archbishop of Canterbury).

The lecture discourse also features the usage of this construction:

*Let’s take a look at our handouts* (C. Nukui. The History of English).

In the sermon discourse, we also detected an imperative construction, comprising a verb *let* together with an objective pronoun in the 3d person and the proper names to name God (*let Him Vi, let S Vi*):

*Let God of all grace be with you and your elect pastor, and give you a great and long-lasting blessing* (J. Edwards).

Speaking about the communicative and pragmatic orientation of the studied imperative utterances, we, first of all, emphasize on exposing the utterance's targeted nature, raising from the speaker’s will to impact an interlocutor in a certain way. From this perspective, we single out two significant types of imperative: concurrent and post-communicative. A simultaneous option includes imperative constructions aimed at immediate fulfillment of the declaration of will of a lecturer/preacher:

- **Lectures:**  
  *So turn to talk to the person sitting beside you and say which of these reasons you think have led to English becoming a global language* (History of the international languages).
- **Sermons:**  
  *Let’s turn to the Word of God* (Pastor J. MacArthur).  
  *Pray with a congregation! Solitary prayer is for the very few* (Pastor S. Furtick).

It is also worth mentioning that such imperative constructions may refer to impelling to take immediate action, either physically, mentally, or spiritually.

The imperative for the post-communicative action in the lecture and sermon discourses are based on the dominant axiological component of these discourses.

In the lecture discourse one can observe the imperative to thinking through what has been said during the lecture and a deeper understanding of the presented problem essence when the lecture is over. For instance, during the lecture on the English Language History, the lecturer recommends the students to consult a historical map once they are back home to verify the information they have just heard:
If you look at the map, you will see it (C.Nukui. The History of English).

In the sermon discourse, such constructions are used to stimulate deeper awareness of the essence of a biblical postulate or event, articulated in the sermon; for instance, for further application of such lessons in everyday life:

The lesson from the literal sense of this story of Bartimaeus is enormous. We are told that there is also a spiritual sense to be perceived, and I think we have already sensed its presence. In closing, let's examine this spiritual lesson (T. Flemming).

The factor of a targeted nature of the imperative constructions turned out to be the significant relevant feature for differentiation of how lecture and sermon discourses are formed.

In lectures and sermons, we detected frequent usage of traditional, so-called “you”- oriented phrases, targeted at impacting on the audience/congregation, and “we”- oriented imperative utterances, which unite a lecturer/preacher and their listeners. Meanwhile, the sermon discourse revealed a specific type of imperative utterances, addressed to God, who formally is not a participant of the sermon discourse. However, His invisible presence is felt and implied by default. In the communicative act of “religious sermon” along with the real traditional participants of communication – the addresser (preacher) and addressee (listeners, congregation), there is also a subtle (Superior) communicant – God, who is both an addresser and addressee of the sermon. It results in the phenomenal “duplication” of the communicants’ figures: a preacher as a formal addresser of the sermon is at the same time the addressee of the Word that comes from the Superior Addressee – God. In his turn, a super-addresser (God) is also a super-addressee of the message, with which the addresser (preacher) appeals to Him on behalf of the real addressee of the sermon (congregation)” (Kravchenko, 2016, p.30). Considering the communicative situation of the sermon, which implies God’s participation, we see the targeted imperative utterance “He (God)” as one belonging to a particular type of pressing – something that is only associated with sermons and indirectly addressed to God.

Let God enable you to witness boldly and lovingly to the thousands you encounter every month who are by nature children of wrath, who are walking in darkness, who are without hope, without God in the world (Pastor R.Madu).

Utilizing a particular set of the types of imperative constructions depends on the compositional structure of the texts of lecture and sermon discourses. It is relevant to mention that in certain parts of the lectures and sermons, a specific type of imperative prevails. In the central part and introduction, there is a large proportion of imperative operational constructions that impel to pursue a particular order. As it was mentioned above, the functional structures are mostly explicit.

Let’s have a look at the survey results (A. O’Kain. Globalisation).
Have a minute to discuss the numbers with the partner (Dr. S. Gowan).
In the presented category of imperative utterances, the lecturer impels the students to take actions that directly correlate with the topic of the lecture for better understanding and engaging the audience (students, in this case) in the process of communication.

In this sermon, the preacher also gives a direct (explicit) instruction to act. A listener obtains an immediate order to take action. Meanwhile, the preacher envelops a direct impulse to operate in the form of invitation.

*I would like to invite you to look in your Bibles to 2 John and verses seven through 13* (K. Wimer).

Imperatives, associated with deviation from the sermon or lecture’s main topic, are also localized in the central part of the text. Usually, this type of imperative constructions relates to the appeal to the thinking activity or completing additional tasks, which were not a part of the lecturer’s initial plan and emerged due to such departure from the topic. For instance,

*You might go to the Oxford English Dictionary, and you will find the definition*… (A. O’Kain. Globalisation).

When preaching, the priests take efforts to make their message to the listeners as straightforward as possible. For this purpose, they use personal and emotional aspects. A preacher gives examples from the Bible, gets enthusiastic about it and smoothly switches to the other topic. Meanwhile, the speaker asks the listeners to picture themselves in a similar situation, embrace its environment, and by doing that, to get a better understanding of what she or he is saying.

*Now Charles Dickens and Ralph Waldo Emerson called this story the greatest story ever written and they were pretty good at some stories, too. .... Just imagine* yourself living in a Middle Eastern peasant village. .... *Just imagine* yourself in a Middle Eastern peasant village because that is exactly where these people were and what they understood (Pastor J. MacArthur).

The constructions impelling to take a post-communicative action is a distinctive feature of the final part of a sermon or lecture. It can be explained by the goal of this communicative part — to summarize the results and encourage the audience to solidify what they have heard when the lecture/sermon is over.

The analysis of the research material is illustrated by the statistics on the incidences of using the types of imperative utterances we singled out above. Table 1 provides the percentage distribution of the imperative constructions of different kinds in the texts studied.

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<th>Table 1. Distribution of the imperative constructions of different types in the texts studied (%)</th>
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**Sermons:**

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The data indicate that church-based sermons are generally characterized by using the utterances, targeted at impelling to take spiritual actions – both simultaneous (26.6 %) and post-communicative (33.6 %). The most significant percentage of the statements that impel to take post-communicative spiritual steps is detected in the final part of the church-based sermon (15.3 %) due to the communicative orientation of this part of the sermon discourse. It is intended for not only summarizing what has been previously said but also for calling the congregation to pray, to confess, to do good, to fast, etc. The distant sermon also shows a trend where the motives of taking spiritual activities prevail (31.9 % simultaneous and 27.2 % post-communicative). The classroom-based lectures feature a higher percentage of impelling to the operational actions: 36.2 % of imperatives are simultaneous and 25 % refer to post-communication actions. During the classroom-based lectures, a lecturer interacts with the audience directly and can observe how they take actions. She or he can also give operational instructions to improve the absorption of the knowledge.

In the distant lecture, operational imperatives are preserved; however, there is a larger proportion of imperative for post-communicative actions (33.7 %). It is connected with the format of the lecture as the lecturer presents the new material and encourages the audience to consolidate the material when they finish watching the video of the lecture.
Conclusion

The functioning of the imperative utterances in the sermon and lecture discourses is determined by such linguistic and extra lingual factors as the explicit/implicit nature of the imperative constructions, the syntactic structure of imperative utterances, communicative-and-pragmatic orientation, the targeted nature of imperative, and localization of the imperative utterances in the compositional structure of a lecture/sermon text. In this research article, direct and indirect, explicit imperative utterances targeted at the immediate performance of the actions of the procedural nature are also seen as operational imperative utterances. In terms of communicative-and-pragmatic orientation and taking into consideration temporal characteristics, we single out two significant types of imperative: simultaneous and post-communicative. The criterion of communicative-and-pragmatic exposure allowed for specifying the constructions that aim to impel, to perform physical/mental actions (at lectures) and spiritual/mental (at sermons). Investigation of the distinctive features of the imperative utterances localization in the text revealed a particular set of the imperative construction types, depending on the compositional structure of the texts of the lecture and sermon discourses. The research perspectives are seen in further studies into intonation and para verbal peculiarities of the lecture and sermon discourses. The comparison of linguistic, prosodic, and kinetic means of expressing the imperative may add to the research into the category of imperative, which is one of the means of encouraging students/parishioners to engage in the learning process fully so that the process of learning, thinking, and memorizing becomes more accessible and more productive.

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Lingual Means of Imperative in the Lecture and Sermon Discourses

Kravchenko & Bondarenko


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Utilizing the Neurolinguistic Programming Technologies in Foreign languages Teaching Practice in Ukrainian Universities

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Abstract
The research paper considers the main provisions of the new scientific direction of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP); its fundamental goal is determined, which first of all includes optimizing the interactive interaction in practically all discursive genres of modern communicative space; the effectiveness of utilizing several NLP techniques in the Ukrainian educational segment is substantiated, first of all - in the process of teaching foreign languages, in particular English, given its international status and scientific potential. The main aim of the study is to review the relevant NLP techniques aimed at optimizing the teacher’s professional skills, and hence the effectiveness of the learning process as a whole. Such techniques include predicate, meta- and Milton-model personal identification, as well as spelling. The significance of the study is determined by the fact that this set of neurolinguistic techniques will be extremely useful both in creating comfortable communicative learning conditions as the basis of its effectiveness and inactivating the students’ psychocognitive abilities and increasing their professional competence level. The main question of the research paper is how to generally contribute to educational process optimization, mainly, in teaching foreign languages in the Ukrainian-speaking environment. In the study, both general scientific research tools (descriptive method, analysis, synthesis, observation) and special experimental methods (recording and comparing the results of applied NLP techniques, surveys, evaluations) are utilized. The main findings of the research allowed to determine the students’ individual neurophysiological mechanisms (representative priorities) in the process of educational data perception; to identify cases of the students’ deviant behavior through the reconstruction of their verbal and nonverbal behavior and adjust the communicative background to create a comfortable learning environment; to apply the elements of correct suggestibility to strengthen the students’ cognitive activity, and the naturalization of teaching data; to enhance the processes of memorization, effective assimilation and competent reproduction of new data through the directed activation of representative systems (visual, audible, kinesthetic) and the corresponding submodalities.

Keywords: Neurolinguistic Programming, teaching foreign languages, predicate identification technique, Metamodel and Milton-model identification technique, spelling technique, learning efficiency, Ukrainian universities

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Introduction

Neurolinguistic programming is an essential area of research and optimization of interpersonal interaction in almost the entire current discursive genres spectrum: medicine, advertising, politics, media, etc. NLP strategies are based on studying of the subjective reflections, analyzing and identifying the human’s inner world’s elements, and the skill of constructing the positive communicative behavior models, which gains utter significance within the empathic modeling aspect (Rogers, 1975), primarily due to the increased aggressiveness of the modern information space, and the need to empathize it. Within this aspect, NLP’s strategies and tactics acquire immense relevance in the educational segment of the modern communicative space, since bringing up a smart and creative individual largely depends on the pedagogue’s ability to activate the pupil’s / student’s psycho-mental potential, “wake up” one’s hidden powers, direct them into the natural field of this individual’s intellectual skills. Though, this ability entirely depends on the pedagogue’s possessing the knowledge about qualifying the neurophysiological and psycholinguistic personal specificity, about the nature of the relevant verbal and non-verbal markers, which, if identified, would make it possible to objectively reconstruct the object’s (pupil’s / student’s) behavioral dominants, and, as a result, guarantees establishing harmonious interaction based on the ecological and maximally correct suggestion (Lozanov, 1971). This approach becomes crucial when learning a foreign language, especially English, in the Ukrainian-speaking environment. The rationale of the study is defined by the globalization of modern interactive processes determines the urgent, almost mandatory need to master the full range of English resources for comfortable, adequate communication with English and other linguistic and cultural communities, which in the vast majority speak English as the world's most widely spoken language. The lack of such knowledge, the inability to compare, correctly expose their own philosophical, psychological, value and other universals which are represented in language, onto other linguistic specifics, "... will make us inflexible in our ability to communicate with people in a dynamic world that is constantly changing" (Matsumoto, 2002, p. 23).

At the time being, knowledge of English allows for independent acquaintance with the vast fund of modern scientific achievements (in any field of expertise), which are also often initiated in English-language sources and, accordingly, provide a range of competencies, i.e. "... acquisition of knowledge and skills through experience and learning at the intersection of cultures, in situations of confrontation with many uncertainties through independent monitoring and self-regulation to achieve success in a dynamic cultural context" (Solodka, 2015, p. 59) and in the field of professional activity as the basis of the future influential, self-sufficient personality, which is ready "...for a successful (productive, effective) activity taking into account its social significance and social risks that may be associated with it" (Tatur, 2004, p. 24). Though, to this day, the specificity and factors of optimizing the mastering a foreign language (mainly the English language) remain at the forefront of humanitarian problems, although its maximum relevance for Ukrainian educators has been recognized (Solodka & Perea, 2018) due to the peculiarities of Ukraine’s historical development and the psychomental specifics of its citizens. Thus, the urgent need to optimize learning the foreign languages in the universal pedagogical practice and in Ukraine in particular (Akkuzu, 2014; Butova & Dubskikh, 2014; Dimukhametov, 2006; Pavlova, 2000; Solodka, 2018; Yu. Tatur, 2004) determines the general research problems and proves the relevance of addressing them, emphasizing their significance for improving the effectiveness of learning the foreign languages in Ukrainian universities. Despite many existing approaches to
solving these issues (axiological, contextual, culturological, which we support and value, we especially emphasize the relevance of the facilitation approach (Dymukhametov, 2006; Rogers, 1975), as a result of which the students/pupils as the participants of the learning process "... develop skills of empathic understanding. They become the participants interested in creating conditions for the formation of meaningful teaching and personal development in general due to restructuring the personal attitudes during interpersonal interaction" (Dimukhametov, 2006, p. 78). Creating such an "empathic understanding" (Rogers, 1975), firstly, involves the ability mentioned above to identify the individual/individuals through his/their verbal-nonverbal behavior to understand the "self" of the interlocutor, and secondly, involves quite active use of adequate suggestion techniques to activate perceptual processes and strengthen the cognitive activity of the teaching object (Bakirov, 2020). The latter approach is quite established in pedagogy, as it became officially recognized in the 70s of the last century with the advent of the suggestopedic works of Lozanov (1971) and his followers in the areas of hypnopedia, relaxopedia and rhythmopedia, which received the status of "superscience" at first (Ostrander & Schroeder & Ostrander, 2000). However, some appropriate techniques were used without considering the neurophysiological features of perceptual processes, which sometimes created incorrect effects and caused criticism, outrage, and subsequently led to their deactivation.

Today, the development of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) is a new field of knowledge with a powerful scientific direction, which contains a thorough methodological apparatus and a system of practical techniques and technologies that can correlate with the neurophysiological mechanisms of influence on the cognitive and psychoemotional sphere of personality and optimization of learning processes as a whole and teaching foreign language in particular. The relevance of NLP techniques and technologies is recognized by both domestic (Kutuza, 2018; Selivanova, 2010) and foreign (Alder, 2000; Bandler & Roberti & Fitzpatrick, 2014; Jacobs, 2010; Dilts, 2000; Kovalyov, 1999) researchers in the field of Linguistics, Psychology, Communication. However, the NLP tools still aren’t actively used and developed in the field of education in Ukraine, although foreign scientists recognize their effectiveness (O’Connor & Seymour, 1997; Pligin, 2000; Prokopenko & Gaiduchenko, 2016), which determines the need for scientific qualification and verification of techniques and technologies of Neurolinguistic Programming in the process of teaching foreign languages to the students of Ukrainian universities.

This determines the relevance of the proposed article and determines its purpose in connection with the review analysis of relevant NLP techniques aimed at optimizing the professional skills of the teacher, and hence the effectiveness of the learning process as a whole. This goal involves solving the following tasks: 1) to highlight the main ideas of NLP; 2) to describe the basic techniques of the predicate, meta- and Milton-model identification, as well as spelling; 3) to express their relevance in the segment of educational discourse in general and the study of foreign (English in particular) language in the Ukrainian-speaking environment. Researching and experimental proving the effectiveness of predicate, meta-and Milton-model identification techniques, as well as spelling, in the Ukrainian-speaking student environment hasn’t yet been the subject of scientific qualification, which determines the research paper’s scientific novelty and practical significance and emphasizes its relevance.
Literature Review

Basic Ideas of Neurolinguistic Programming

O’Connor and Seymour (1997) define it as “art and science of personal mastery” (p. 10), O. Selivanova (2010) – as “a cross-sectoral direction of researching the communicative processes and communicative influence optimization, aimed at studying the individual’s behavioral mechanisms that, basing on the certain cognitive strategies, models, and skills, realize the positive programs of effective discourse conduction and management” (p. 497). Domestic NLP researcher Kutuza (2018) interprets this science as a creative synthesis of neurophysiological, psychomental, and linguistic components that provide stereometric analysis of the verbal-nonverbal contour of the personality and allows to create, on the one hand, a deep empathy, and on the other – a powerful influential correction. The following three basic fundamental ideas, reflected in the very name NLP, are its substrates: the “neuro-” part indicates that any behavior is based on neurophysiological processes, connected with the genetically coded representative systems’ influence; the “linguistic” part emphasizes that the results of the psyche’s neurological operations are represented on the verbal and non-verbal codes level and offers “a systematic approach to defining the language’s role in the thinking and communication processes” (Alder, 2000, p. 9), since “almost regardless of what human nature’s expressions make the focus of the researcher’s work up, these are almost always ones connected with language and communication” (Sternin, 2001, p. 88) and the “programming” part illustrates that there are specific behavioral patterns that help us «organize our thinking, feelings and beliefs in order to achieve the goals we set” (Alder, 2000, p. 9), since “one interacts with the environment via his / hers inner programming: the individual reacts to the problems and perceives the new ideas according to one’s own psychological programs type, and these programs are different for everyone” (Dilts, 2000, p. 24).

Conceptually, NLP is based on a synthesis of the provisions of Philosophy, Linguistics, Cognitive, Humanistic and Gestalt Psychology and Cognitology, Neurophysiology, enriched with the advanced results of the cybernetic and IT sciences.

Within the scientific paradigm of this science, the so-called “postulates” defined as “the parts of NLP’s epistemological base; basic tenets on which the other parts of the model rely heavily” are extremely weighty element. Usually, the scientists who are studying neuro-linguistic programming resort to the following ten basic positions, which are necessary to apperceive and share to understand and effectively use the means of NLP. In this research work, special attention would be paid to the first and the fundamental postulate of NLP – “the map is not the territory”. This postulate explains the fact that the human’s representative systems (visual, audial, sensory, gustatory, and olfactory) are the channels of perceiving the surrounding information, but their genetic specificity already determines some divergence between the information we acquire and the actual state of things, scilicet – exhibiting this statement’s sense onto the communicative axis – different people perceive and interpret the same situation in a different way, “regarding the cognitive and axiological priorities of their inner world” (Kovalyov, 1999, p. 25). The famous American scientist Jacobs (2010) emphasizes that “the only world we could know is the mental one created by the impulses of our neurons, and it is exceptionally subjective… everything we know is our personal version of this world” (p. 15). This postulate creates the basis for empathic communication, effective feedback (Akkuzu, 2014),
because in this case, the "otherness" of the individual is realized, his right to other worldviews, assessments, and priorities is recognized, which is reflected in a number of various neurolinguistic techniques aimed at intensifying the learning processes. Such techniques include, first of all, predicate identification, meta- and Milton-model identification, as well as spelling one.

**Predicate Identification of Personality**

In the network of this technique, it is emphasized that our environment perception depends on numerous factors, the neurophysiological filters being one of the most important ones, since they are connected with our natural information perception and processing channels, called the modalities of the representative systems (RS) in the paradigm of NLP. These systems play a unique role of the experience language, which forms and is spread onto all the other processes: thinking, reminiscing, imagination, perception, consciousness. Each person has a dominant modality, which “is usually used to acquire access to the data stored in our memory” (Alder & Heather, 2000, p. 126), and a so-called primary modality, which defines “the certain way of processing the data” (Alder & Heather, 2000, p. 127), even though the common perception usually happens on the channels synesthesia (interference) level. Thus, it is plausible to state that the dominant modality is used internally, to identify the personal implicative inner cognitions. At the same time, the primary one deals with externalized perception and environment detailing. Modalities, or the representative systems, assist in accentuating the particular reality segments in our inner world. In contrast, the subjective world picture is formed by the originality of the relations between these. Each RS a person has is reflected in the language, scilicet each language’s lexis mandatorily has nomens designated to mark the modality-marked extralingual reality concepts which are relevant for the human existence and have gained the verbalized status throughout the evolutionary processes, as well as the solely verbalized attributes of the modality phenomena – the names, the features, and the properties of each RS. If we can define the interlocutor’s dominant and primary RS, then we can imagine exactly how this person is thinking, to wit, “the RS ideas are an extremely useful mean of understanding how different people are thinking, and reading the access signals is a priceless art for those willing to optimize their communication with the other people” (O’Connor & Seymour, 1997, p. 54), which, undoubtedly, is an exceedingly relevant tool for optimizing the educational process, establishing the empathetic, trustworthy relations between its participants. Besides, the ability to identify the pupil’s/student’s actual RS allows the teacher to diversify the presentation of the material - from emphasizing its visual markers (illustrative material) to kinesthetic (mnemonic anchors) and audio fixation (reading, listening). This, in turn, individualizes the learning process and creates comfortable conditions for its intensification, and the students’ enjoying it (Butova, Dubskikh & Sevast’yanova, 2014).

**Meta-model and Milton-model Identification of Personality**

NLP’s innovation and creativity lie within the correct, scientifically well-based combination of the different areas of the humanitarian knowledge, which guarantees a comprehensive understanding of the personal and collective reality perception, as well as the total human’s existence. In this aspect, NLP utilizes the so-called Metamodel of Language, which includes the hierarchy of the linguistic elements illustrating the deviant communications zones and highlighting the communication’s problematic segment, which requires specific corrective tactics to make the message totally emphatic.
The metamodel is based on three universal laws of modeling: which, in turn, are represented by the corresponding language markers of lexical-semantic and grammatical levels: the processes of omission are represented by nominalizations (nouns originating from verbs); non-specific nouns of hyperonymic nature and the possibility of subjective content (i.e. *pleasure, happiness*); non-specific verbs without a reference index (passive forms and predicate forms); judgments (adverbs with ascertaining semantics, e.g., *really, unconditionally*). Generalization processes are represented by universal quantifiers (pronoun-adverbial nouns with maximal generalization, e.g., *all, daily*) and modal operators of possibility/necessity, which "set boundaries outlined by unspoken rules" (O'Connor & Seymour, 1997, p. 127) and which include a range of modally colored parts of speech with appropriate semantics. Distortion processes are represented by complex equivalence (syntactic “if, ... then ...” model); presuppositions, which are "ideas or statements that must be considered commonly understood in order for communication to make sense" (O'Connor & Seymour, 1997, p. 278); causative complexes, which, according to Grinder and Bandler (1996), belong to the class of semantic inaccuracies and are associated with the speaker's beliefs that a person (or set of circumstances) can act, that in some necessary way will make another person feel a certain feeling or inner state; so-called “mind-reading” related to "the speaker's beliefs about what another person may know, think or feel without having direct communication from the speaker" (Grinder & Bandler, 1996, p. 151).  

On the other hand, NLP is oriented not only towards optimizing the communication (which is the principal aim of this science), but at carrying out the powerful influential effects of multitier nature: starting with the clear systematics of the verbal suggestogenes presented within the so-called Milton-model, and up to a whole complex of extralinguistic influential markers covering the individual’s neuro-physiological and psycho-mental structures (i.e., neurolinguistic metaprograms) and making it possible to perform the complex strategies of the deep influential reconstructions of predicted nature, which we consider to be an integral part of any training.

**Spelling Technique**

Aside from these, NLP possesses the other techniques which are especially relevant for the educational processes, i.e., spelling (competent writing strategy), in the network of which the mnemonic activation relies on the neurophysiological laws of the personal perception, particularly, the visual fixation. This technique has been actively used by foreign scientists, for example, in the experiments of O’Connor and Seymour (1997), Pligin and Gerasimov (2000), but on Ukrainian soil, it just starts becoming active. It is primarily aimed at activating mnemonic processes through visualization and the involvement of other submodalities. Thus, its first stage consists of a positive emotional setting and visual fixation of the language material (preferably presented on the upper left part of the blackboard/whiteboard/paper, as this is the direction associated with the visual construction). The second stage deals with the visual reproduction of the word image, the third one presupposes its graphic fixation; and the fourth one includes mnemonic fixation of the word and its auditory reproduction in reverse order.

**Methods**

This goal determined the feasibility of using several research methods, including such general methods as descriptive to highlight the features of various NLP techniques and determine its specificity; methods of analysis and synthesis for detailing and further generalization of the
analyzed data; observation method for recording and critical interpretation of the results of experiments.

Among the special methods, the experimental one of recording and comparing the results of predicate, meta- and Milton-model identification and spelling techniques was utilized, which allowed to reveal the effectiveness of their application while learning English as a foreign language; the survey method allowed to verify the expected results; the assessment method revealed the students’ individual attitude to the classical and neurolinguistic data memorization techniques. These experimental methods were implemented while teaching English to the Management and Business Technologies Faculty students of Odessa Regional Institute for Public Administration of the National Academy for Public Administration under the President of Ukraine. The experiment involved 30 first-year students, including 16 girls and 14 boys. All students live in Ukraine, speak Ukrainian as the mother language, all of them studied English in high school (1-2 years ago).

**Results**

Experimental predicate identification was being held for two weeks. During this period, the experimenters (authors of the research paper) carried out graphic and audio recording of predicates, which were used by the students in oral answers to thematic questions while translating the analyzed text data and during their own presentations. Given the rather limited number of students in English language groups, the experimenter was able to establish the neurophysiological priorities of almost every student (60% visual, 30% auditory, 10% kinesthetic) and then communicate with each of them, selecting the appropriate predicates. Most of the girls belong to dominant auditory RS group, most of the boys – to dominant kinesthetic one, and the visual one is equally divided between both girls and boys. Implementing the neurolinguistic techniques of predicate, meta- and Milton-model identification and the spelling one will create the most comfortable educational environment for effective teaching, which was emphasized by the students themselves during interviews and the lecturer’s work evaluation (rating evaluations of lecturers by students are conducted in ORIPA NAPA). This, on the one hand, contributed to the lecturer’s maximum psycho-emotional and cognitive adjustment to a diverse student audience. On the other hand, this has allowed to enhance the efficiency of mastering the relevant data.

The experimental implementation and testing of meta- and Milton model identification techniques was carried out in the same way. The experimenter’s ability to identify and correct problem areas in the students’ behavior, as well as to apply the correct suggestion techniques allowed to create the most comfortable learning atmosphere. At the same time, it was noted that in other groups of students, where these techniques haven’t been implemented, the effectiveness of learning was lower, and the overall communicative background of relations between the students within the group and between the students and the teacher wasn’t as comfortable as one in the experimental groups. Considering the results of the experiments, the authors decided to implement the aforementioned techniques in all the courses they teach.

The experimental study of the spelling technique effectiveness was conducted during the first-second classes (in the beginning of the school day), which allowed ensuring the students were active and ready to effectively apprehend the data. For example, the students who were studying the "Job and Profession in Management" topic were offered to divide the list of new vocabulary...
(30 words in total) into two parts (15 words each). It was suggested to memorize the first part using the spelling technique (visual fixation from left to right, as this direction is associated with visual construction; connection of visual or other submodalities, etc.), the second - in the usual way. The results of the survey during the next lesson showed that the level of mnemonic and visual fixation of the words of the first group almost doubled the corresponding indicators for the second group, which proved the effectiveness of this NLP technique and gave grounds to involve it in the learning process.

Discussion

The interpretation of the experiment results gives grounds to state that the maximum efficiency of these techniques could be achieved in two stages. The first one involves techniques of predicate, meta- and Milton-model identification to create a comfortable communicative background and the correct impact on the students’ psycho-emotional state. In the second stage, the spelling technique is implemented to activate the students’ cognitive (primarily - mnemonic) abilities. Thus, implementing these techniques will create the most comfortable educational environment for effective teaching, enhancing the students’ psychocognitive abilities in learning foreign (primarily English) language, as well as the active formation of in-depth competence.

Conclusion

So, according to the modern NLP scientists, at the time being, the very ideas of NLP occupy the top place in the exceedingly wide amplitude of the humanitarian sphere, where the educational segment has a lot to borrow from the NLP’s methodological base to optimize the educational processes in their various expressions. The NLP techniques we have described, firstly, promote empathy of educational process as a basis of its efficiency; secondly, make it possible to strengthen the mnemonic ability during the perception of complex material; thirdly, make it possible to exercise a correct influence on the personality of students, which also activates the cognitive creativity of teaching objects, etc. Besides, implementing these techniques helps to create a comfortable environment during the learning process and create a trusting relationship between a teacher and a student. The relevance of utilizing these techniques has been proven in the authors' own pedagogical experience, particularly in English classes.

Recommendations

Prospects for further use of NLP techniques in the educational segment are seen firstly, in implementing them while teaching students of different specializations (humanitarian, natural, technical educational institutions, etc.); secondly, in developing practical recommendations on how these techniques could be effectively used for the students of different nationalities and ethnicities; thirdly, in involving the reframing and anchoring techniques aimed at individualizing teaching and strengthening the students’ mnemonic abilities into the pedagogic activities.

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References


The Specificity of Using Modern Songs in Teaching English to First-Year Students at Ukrainian Universities

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Abstract
This study provides a theoretical and methodological basis for the use of modern songs in teaching English to first-year students, the development of an exercise system, its practical implementation, and the results of testing the effectiveness of this experiment. The relevance of the research is due to the high interest of young people, and first-year students as well, in learning English using modern songs, and the lack of sophistication of the technologies used to teach English to them. The analysis of the psychological and pedagogical features of the first-year students made it possible to conclude that this is an aging period of sharp contradictions in the structure of the personality, that is being formed. It requires a particular pedagogical and methodical skill from the teacher. Some tasks are sold while using the experimental investigation: implementing and testing the effectiveness of the exercises system. The analysis and synthesis of methodological literature, together with our results, showed that the use of modern songs in English classes is an effective method to master the language. It also helps to increase the productivity of the educational process. Keywords: first-year students, implement, modern songs, a system of exercises, test, English teaching, Ukrainian universities

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Introduction

The Goal in Teaching English at Ukrainian Universities

Higher educational institutions of Ukraine prefer traditional forms of educational process organization. The curriculum limits the teacher in time, so the urgent problem for educators is to diversify the learning process.

The relevance of the research is due to the high interest of young people, and first-year students as well, in learning English using modern songs, and the lack of sophistication of the technologies used to teach English to them. The introduction of texts of the songs in the educational process helps expand the vocabulary of the first-year students, develops a sense of language, memory, thinking, and teaches the basics of translation. Besides, this activity evokes positive emotions and feelings of relaxation, first-year students master the language without straining, which makes learning exciting and desirable. The use of this method in English lessons will further immerse itself in the culture of the country. After all, the need to fill the content of education with sociocultural aspects is a significant task at the European and national levels (Shekhavtsova, 2018).

The proposed paper aims to justify scientifically, to implement, and to test the effectiveness of the use of modern songs in teaching English to first-year students at Ukrainian universities.

The achievement of this goal leads to solving the following tasks: 1) to determine the function of songs in English learning; 2) to analyze psychophysiological peculiarities of learning English by first-year students; 3) to describe the use of songs in English lessons as a technique for developing the language competence of first-year students 4) to create a system of exercises based on modern English songs for the formation of language competence of first-year students; 5) to implement and to test the effectiveness of the exercises system.

Theoretical Background of the Research

The Importance of Songs in Learning English

The concept of "language learning" has an incredibly comprehensive meaning and includes language acquisition without systematic learning. The central part of such assimilation occurs without systematic training due to simple imitation, repetition, and use in daily communication. Such a natural, unmanaged, and friendly way of learning should not be ignored. Foreign language teachers can use the methodologies associated with it when planning lessons. From a biological point of view, the right hemisphere corresponds to the perception of intuition, movement, color, and music. Therefore, vocabulary, combined with music, is memorized more quickly and for a more extended period than when using exclusively the verbal, mathematical, and logical left hemisphere of the brain (Vasylenko, 2014). Sensitive educators have used the choral repetition of texts and songs for centuries to observe its effectiveness in practice. Neurolinguistic studies have confirmed the likelihood of practical experience (Ryzhova, 2011). Together with melody and text, both brain hemispheres work together for memorizing. Also, the combination of song and the rhyming book emphasizes the natural rhythm of the language, its melody, which is extremely important when playing it.

In the English lesson, songs are most commonly used for phonetic charging at the initial stage of the class; for stronger remembering of lexical and grammatical material; as an incentive for the development of language skills.
The authors distinguish nine essential functions of the song that lie in the concept of teaching English: - psychological (memory enhancing); - communicative; - cognitive (providing students with cultural and general information); - psycho-hygienic (develops an interest in music at the level of pleasure); - mood function, expression of emotions and feelings; - socio-psychological (enhances cohesion in groups, class); - functions of name of cognitive processes; - the role of unconscious learning of foreign languages; - the part of solving communicative problems.

Therefore, from the method, a song in English can be considered, on the one hand, as an example of sounding a foreign language, adequately reflect the peculiarities of life, culture, and life of the people of the country being studied, on the other hand, being a bearer of cultural information, a song can also form student’s spiritual culture, unite his mind and soul into one. More than that, every foreign word reflects the culture, and each story is conditioned by the national consciousness of the world (Byndas, 2018). It can be concluded that the song is a very versatile art. It enriches the person, reveals his/her creative potential, and improves the quality of the language.

**Psychophysiological Peculiarities of First-Year Students in English Language Learning**

The relevance of the study of psychological aspects of mastering a foreign language derives from the content of the professional training of students of psychological and linguistic specialties, which provides in-depth knowledge of the psychological features of mastering the language.

Vedel (2003) divides the whole process of mastering a foreign language in learning into two main stages. The first stage is the stage of indirect possession mediated through the mother tongue; it can also be called a set of translation. The second stage is the stage of direct or indirect possession, characterized by establishing a direct link between a foreign language and thinking, which eliminates the need for translation (Vedel, 2003).

The above-characterized divergence of the two main ways of mastering a foreign language is very important and significant. After all, while learning a foreign language, there are often cases when students are in the first stage of mastering the language for a very long time. In most cases, students of language universities indicate that they experienced a turning point in foreign language proficiency only at the end of the second year of studying (Lozova, 2010).

The communicative development of the first-year students is characterized by the formation and improvement of the mechanism of language means selection, ways of forming, and formulating thoughts. An individual style of speech develops (Vetokhov, 2002).

The first-year students combine the traits of a young person and the characteristics of maturity. It dialectically combines unlost childhood with displays of adulthood. The first-year student has already developed certain principles of behavior, forms an image of his or herself and values. The differentiation of interests is manifested (James, 1972).
**Using Songs in English Classes as a Technique for Students’ Language Skills Training**

Songs are often not regarded as a critical element of the learning process, are only considered as a way of relaxation (Polenok, 2009). Working at a piece develops listening and translation skills, as the music touches on vital issues, it introduces vocabulary to the communicative function. The advantage of using songs in a foreign language lesson is that the themes help to more efficiently and firmly absorb and expand the lexical stock, as the song lyrics include new words and expressions. Familiar vocabulary meets in a new contextual environment, which contributes to its activation.

For instance, Sting’s song *Englishman in New York* reflects the habit of Englishmen drinking tea at the same time in the afternoon; it says about their mannerism. The lyrics of the English songs are rich in factual information; it will be remembered easily and for a long time. All this contributes to the development of students' sense of language, familiarity with stylistic features. The song, like any artistic text, gives "live" grammatical constructions, that is, grammar in action (Diachenko, 2004; Gebel, 2009; Gordeeva, 2013).

The complex memorization of song lyrics is facilitated by factors such as rhyme, tune, and melody. Numerous repetitions contribute to the smooth and involuntary memorization of lexical and grammatical constructions, thus increasing the efficiency of learning (Hancock, 1998).

An essential step in work is self-control, which activates the feedback mechanism, enhances students' responsibility, optimizes their language acquisition, and as a consequence, improves motivation and achievement significantly. The use of songs in the language that is studying continues to be relevant in the first year of university studying for the following reasons: - song materials are diverse (not only in content but also in terms of the content of linguistic information).

**Methods and Materials of Research**

The method and technique of using each song involve the preliminary introduction, activation, and consolidation of vocabulary.

We can follow the sequence of work with the song: 1) build associative ideas by the name and content of the song. Short introductory words about the music (its character, style, main content, history of creation, etc.), installation on the first perception of the song; 2) check the assumptions made about the content of the song; 3) phonetic reproduction of the song text while playing sounds, words, and phrases; practicing melodies and stresses in expressions; mastering a clear pronunciation by repeating the words with the speaker and after the speaker. At the initial stage of learning a foreign language, it is advisable to use a simulation method for these purposes; 4) work on grammar: exercising to fill in the blanks or to use the correct verbs in the English text can serve as an example of working out grammar and checking the correctness of the task by listening to a song. In addition to verbs, you can do exercises to work out all types of questions in English, the use of prepositions, degrees of comparison of adjectives, etc.; 4) rereading the song at this stage is advisable to carry out with emphasis on text; 5) reading the lyrics of the song with further processing of sounds and intonation, all work is also recommended to be carried out with emphasis on the words; 6) learning the tune in the process of performing a song together.
using the song's phonogram; 7) work with the content of the piece: answer the teacher's questions about the content of the song; 8) post-text stage: singing songs without a speaker; 9) the task of memorizing the words of the song. For many students, learning words in a foreign language is a serious problem, so this stage needs special attention. The best way to remember new words is to repeat the comments after the speaker and to speak with him; 10) learn the lyrics of the song and perform individually.

Besides, there are other effective ways to memorize the lyrics of the English song: "Complete the phrase" – there is a beginning of the phrase from the song on the blackboard, students’ task is to finish it. "Snowball" – each student repeats the previous sentence and says his or her own. "Chain" – each student utters one line from the verse and so on until the end of the song. "Order the lines" – the teacher divides the class into two teams and gives each team an envelope with a song cut into lines. The task of each team is to combine the lyrics of the song in English as soon as possible.

For higher motivation, students can arrange a competition for the best song performance – listening, analyzing, performing – it is a group activity, collaboration between side members, helping to overcome a stressful situation, barriers in communication, which prevent students from learning the language effectively (Petrovska, 2018; Krukivska, 1998 & Polenok, 2009). More than that, the customs and traditions of all peoples have long been preserved and transmitted through ballads, songs, and poems. A song is a common form of communication and education, and teachers in many countries expand the use of songs to teach almost every subject. The use of songs while learning grammar has many advantages over traditional techniques. According to Fuchyla (2007), an analysis of 50 popular English songs showed that 49 of them contain first-person lyrics (I), 88% relate to the person who reflects the listener (You), and only one uses the person's name.

Listeners don’t know who "I" or "You" are, so anyone can use their imagination and identify with the person in the song or their addresssee (Fuchyla, 2007). Students can perform specific linguistic or colloquial tasks based on the situation covered in the song and their life experience. Thus, "I" and "You" can be used as roles or parts for dialogues. Another practical use of songs is that 94% of songs do not specify the time of action, and 80% do not specify the place. Students are allowed to supplement information from the text using their experience or creative ability and to place the song action as desired. It also allows you to perform exercises to learn the rules of English tenses, transferring the operation of a song from the past to the present and the future (Asher, 1982; Graham, 2014).

Discussion

Modern English-Language Songs and Exercises to Them as a Speech Activity Trainer

The use of contemporary songs in English lessons facilitates the rapid formation of first-year students' speaking and thinking activities. Therefore, to improve students' skills, the authors have analyzed and selected modern English-language songs according to educational subjects, have developed a system of exercises for them. The learning activity allows students the opportunity to immerse themselves in the culture of the language, promote memory development, train listening, supplement vocabulary, and consolidate grammar knowledge.
To conduct the experiment, we have engaged the first-year students of the foreign language faculty of Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, Ukraine. The educational program for the first-year students provides consideration of the following topics: • I, my family, my friends: personal data, individuality, personality formation, autobiography; • Nature and weather: environment, environmental protection, flora, and fauna; • Clothing: fashion, clothing items; • Media: Internet, television and the radio, communication on the Internet, the favorite radio and television programs; • Youth culture: currents of youth culture, youth organizations, clubs of interest; • Science and technological progress: famous scientists and inventors, inventions, modern devices in everyday life; • Work and profession: characteristic of jobs, inclinations, and abilities, choice of business, professional qualities. The grammar that first-year students should revise: • Adverb: neither nor, either or • Clause: Conditionals I, II If I were you, I wish, if only, had better, would be relative clause with whose / who / which / that Do you mind if..., I do not care if... • Conjunction: if, when, as soon as, till, until, etc. + present simple with future reference • Verb: verb + ing, to + verb. But not every song can be selected for English lessons. Most modern English songs contain slang words and turns. It concerns rap, so vocabulary from such songs is not suitable for enriching students' vocabulary. Therefore, when choosing a song, you should pay attention to such directions as pop, jazz, blues, folk, country, musicals. Songs with solo artists are the most suitable for use in English lessons. They do not complicate hearing, and students will be able to repeat the words more easily. Therefore, the following selection criteria are the following: 1. The lyrics must be decent and cheerful, and any obscene language is absent. 2. The song should be in the top 40 of the UK music chart. 3. The tempo of the composition is moderate. Students should be able to catch the tune and speak the words. 4. The song should be consistent with the theme of the lesson.

One of the tasks of our work was to develop a system of exercises for the use of modern songs in English classes for first-year students. The exercise system is a significant factor in ensuring the learning process and success in language acquisition.

Songs in English courses can be used as a ‘magic wand’ to change the mood or pace of the class. It is advisable to use the exercises in each category for 15-20 minutes. Songs should be tailored to the topic of the course so that first-year students can quickly learn the material and have associations to help them identify a more convenient way to memorize vocabulary or grammatical material. There are many exercises aimed at practicing vocabulary, grammar, or phonetic content derived from a song. We can offer the following:

1. "Song dictator" – the teacher dictates to the students the song; after that, the teacher gives words to compare their version with the original text. Unfamiliar words are perfected and repeated by the teacher.
2. "Fill in the gaps" – the teacher gives the students a song text in which pictures replace some words. Students' task is to sing a song, uttering all the info.
3. "Missing words" – one of the most traditional songs in English classes – the teacher writes on the board one of the couplets of the song and gives the first student to sing it. After that, the teacher erases any word or phrase, and the next student sings a verse. For each successive student, the comments on the board will be less and less. The last student sings a poem with a minimum number of words in each line or no comments. This method works great for learning phrases and sentences.
4. "Split song" – this task should be performed in pairs. The teacher prepares two different copies of the selected song in advance. In the first variant, there are odd lines, in the second – even. After listening to the music for the first time, students answer general questions about the content; then, they are divided into pairs and receive the versions of the song in English. During the second audition, students need to fill in the blanks with their understanding of the song. Then the students verify their variants with the original text.

5. "Spot the mistake" – the teacher changes the words of the song, deliberately making mistakes in them that need to be corrected by the students. For example, belief – ‘believe’, and so on.

For example, the song "Beautiful people" corresponds to the first topic, "I, my family, my friends", both in the curriculum and in the Upstream Pre-Intermediate textbook for the Faculty of Philology of Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University. It discusses the subject of individuality, its place in the society, and the formation of personality; there is a useful vocabulary in it. The song is about the "cream" of the community, its showy, insincere, sometimes difficult life. The character of the song states that he feels uncomfortable among them, does not respond, and does not fit into this party because he is who he is, without acting and hypocrisy: "we do not fit in well because we are just ourselves." He does not want to be at a party. His greatest fear is to become so overbearing and pathetic: "This is my only fear: that we become beautiful people," "Let's leave the party. That's not who we are. We are not beautiful". Such text will be an excellent topic for discussion or essay. You can discuss several questions after listening to this song. • What is the song? • How do you understand the meaning of the words "Beautiful people"? • Why does the singer of this song want to be a beautiful person? • How do these people spend their free time?

Unfortunately, the format of our article doesn’t allow us to present all the songs which were used in the English classes. We tried to implement in the studying process ten popular songs.

Results

Testing the effectiveness of the exercises system

The experimental investigation involved first-year students of the Foreign Languages Faculty of Luhansk Taras Shevchenko National University, Ukraine. The first experimental group of 12 students used the system of exercises for three months, while the second, also 12 participants, continued their formal study of English. The implementation of the exercises system took place during the educational process.

Before the experiment, we interviewed students of both groups and teachers.

Questions for the survey:

For students:
1. How often do you use modern songs in English classes?
2. What types of work do you use more often (translation/discussion)?
3. Name some of your favorite English songs.

For teachers:
1. How important do you consider implementing modern English-language songs to teach first-year students?
2. If you use songs in your English classes, what activities do you find the most effective?
Our task was to determine whether the teachers consider implementing modern songs in English classes a vital part of language teaching, or whether they use songs in the learning process; whether students work with songs during the lessons, what music is interesting to them, etc.

A survey of the teachers showed that they found it necessary to use modern songs in English classes. According to the teachers, such activities would have a positive impact on the effectiveness of language learning. A survey of the first-year students found that they did not use modern songs in their English classes, sometimes singing authentic songs learned in school. The first-year students shared their musical preferences; some of them were interested in translating lyrics.

Survey for the first-year students of the experimental group:
1. Are you interested in attending English classes? - Yes - No - Not very much.
2. Do you like the material you study? - Yes - No - Not very much.
3. Do you feel bored in your English class? - Yes - No – Sometimes.
4. Would you like to change the learning material to a more modern one? - Yes – No.
5. Do you feel that your knowledge is getting better in English classes? - Yes – No.

Having analyzed the initial results, we found that the first-year students of both groups are almost the same. About half of those surveyed are not motivated to attend English classes; they would like to study in more up-to-date materials because they do not overlook much success in learning English. After a fruitful work with modern English songs in the experimental group, the teachers conducted thematic tests in both groups. The experimental group showed much more knowledge, and the students did a better job of writing. Moreover, auditioning during the control test made it much easier to show the results and their estimates. More than that, we conducted a re-survey, which proved utterly different results. The first-year students, with whom we actively used the system of exercises developed during three months, changed their minds about English classes. Almost 100% of students said they were happy to attend English classes, to study with interest, better understand the language and significantly increase its level, in contrast, the first-year students, who were taught by a standard method, did not change their answers. After completing the experiment, we spoke to English teachers who gladly informed us that such a system of exercises works. They are curious to complete the task and show good results. This result is justified. The results of the experimental study indicate the feasibility of implementing this system of exercises in the educational process.

Tables 1 and 2 show the results of the questionnaire.

Table 1. Initial polling as of 09/09/2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students in the English classes:</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Non-experimental group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interested</td>
<td>50 %</td>
<td>45 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like the material</td>
<td>72 %</td>
<td>60 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored</td>
<td>48 %</td>
<td>58 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would like up-to-date material</td>
<td>97 %</td>
<td>90 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have the result after classes</td>
<td>35 %</td>
<td>30 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus, interviewing and communicating with teachers showed that modern English songs are not widely used in English classes; students aren’t interested in attending classes and do not get the desired high results.

Table 2. Re-polling as of 12/09/2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students in the English classes:</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Non-experimental group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interested</td>
<td>88 %</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like the material</td>
<td>90 %</td>
<td>60 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>60 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would like up-to-date material</td>
<td>100 %</td>
<td>98 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have the result after classes</td>
<td>75 %</td>
<td>30 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the long run, modern songs in English classes can be useful and structured, using a course of practices that can be applied. It should be noted that such a system of exercises does not take up much time. It is developed for 15-20 minutes, which is a convenient way to improve the types of speech activity. According to the results of the analysis of the experimental study, the following conclusions can be made:

1. As a result of the exercises system implementation in speaking through the use of modern songs in English classes, the teachers noticed a significant increase in language proficiency. We also saw a rise in the general interest in learning a foreign language, especially singing and discussing.

2. Our system of exercises contributes to the full practicing of all kinds of language activities, which is the primary purpose of learning a foreign word. By knowing all aspects of the language, students will soon be able to overcome the communication barrier, apply their acquired knowledge directly to practice – both in everyday communication and in future professional activities.

**Conclusion**

**Advantages of Using Modern Songs in Learning English**

The analysis of the psychological and pedagogical features of the first-year students made it possible to conclude that this is an aging period of sharp contradictions in the structure of the personality; it requires a particular pedagogical and methodical skill from the teacher. The analysis and synthesis of methodological literature, and our results, showed that the use of modern songs in English classes is an effective method for training all kinds of speech activity, and students can immerse themselves in the culture. So, when learning English and using modern English songs, students are more likely to overcome the communication barrier, become more motivated to master the language. It also helps to increase the productivity of the educational process.

Prospects for further work on the problem are seen in developing a set of tasks for optional classes using modern English songs and the development of an advanced English song vocabulary.
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The National Specifics of Betrayal Metaphors Actualization in English Language Consciousness

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Abstract
The article deals with metaphors of betrayal in English. The concept of betrayal studied concerning the peculiarities of its national and cultural actualization. The main issue of the work is to identify the principles of knowledge and ideas about the extra lingual reality presentation in English language consciousness. The significance of the study lies in identifying the axiological dominants of the researched concept cognitive structure, its ethnocultural specificity. The research data includes 543 examples naming betrayal inventoried through the complete selection from dictionaries, the thesaurus of English metaphors, fiction texts, etc. The method applied in this research corresponds to the objectives and data. The semantic and contextual analysis provided in lexicographical sources and fiction texts helps sort out the data collected. All examples divided into blocks: to betray- to scam, to deceive, to betray – to reveal the secret, to betray relations, to betray yourself. The analysis showed that betrayal actualized with the verbs, which contain semes to send a beep, to move in space, to remove, to leave, to put something over something, to leave; nouns – somatics; fauna; geographical objects; artifacts; adjectives with the semantic imperfect; adverbs – out, away. The result of the study shows that to respect confidentiality, personal life, ability to keep the secrets, to be honest, decent, to respect private interests are of primary importance for the English. They mostly appreciate loyalty, devotion, reliability, respect, tolerance in human relationships.

Keywords: actualization, association, English, metaphor, perception

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Introduction

The XXI century is famous for by the active interest of linguists in the problems of thought and language interaction. The way a person wields symbols, realizing the world and itself in the world. Because the form of human cognition is not passive objects copying, but their representation, mental image construction, which, as a rule, does not coincide with the world. Thus the real is no longer considered objective. Simultaneously, the image, formed in human thinking, as a result of interaction with the object of the surrounding reality – is real, but such an idea is in no way a reflection (facsimile) of the item. Thus, human social, national, and universal experience determines the cognitive process.

Language can reproduce cognition processes. It is a source of data not only about the language but also about the extra-lingual world. Through language, we exchange the accumulated experience, knowledge, and information, discuss cognitive processes and their results.

The study is relevant due to the focus of modern linguistic research on the course of the reality representation peculiarities. Knowledge, preserved in language units, helps to reveal the specifics of worldview in a particular ethnic group.

The purpose of the study is to establish the national specifics of the concept of betrayal in the English language. The set goal achievement presupposes the fulfillment of the following tasks: to outline the semantic-onomasiological essence of the investigated concept, and analyze the metaphors that actualize this extra-linguistic phenomenon in the English language, to determine its national specific features.

Literature Review

Communicative personality, as the object of linguistic research, transmits the image of cultural, linguistic, communicative, and activities values, knowledge, settings, and behavioral reactions. Values occupy a special place in the linguistic personality structure. They are the most fundamental culture descriptions, behavior higher guidelines. Lukyanenko (2018) believes that the mentioned phenomenon from the one hand is socially and historically conditioned and from the other is individual. It contains the particular person experience, values determine the attitude of the individual to the world, human behavior, and activities. Values form an estimation basis, those preferences which personality evinces when characterizes events, quality, or objects. Such surrounding reality perception through the prism of certain norms and values system is intrinsic to every person. Estimation is an inalienable and essential constituent of every individual linguistic world picture as a specific social group in particular and the whole nation representative. Different language communities, using various tools for the generation of concept, form diverse worldviews, which are, in fact, fundamental for national cultures (Kecskes, 2014; Zykova, 2016). All surrounding world events and facts are perceived by the subject as positive, neutral, or negative depending on the personal persuasions and set public norms.

In linguistic research, language assessment interpreted as a category of high abstraction level. It is determined not only by the physical and mental nature of the individual but also by social institutions, ideology, and beliefs of society (Kryshchuk, 2015). Hence, we can assume that to understand the values recorded in the language examples, and we can take the value world
picture as the basis. Since the values, and life strategies, behavioral scenarios, situations of reality, facts, phenomena, objects, are structured in language signs and categories (Tereshchuk & Yurii, 2016). Scientists, in their turn, distinguish at least ethnocultural and socio-cultural plans for different types of evaluative relationships. Results of such research one can find in ethnographic, sociolinguistic, literary, and linguistic scientific materials.

The national specifics of individual concepts have long been the focus of linguistic research. Concept BETRAYAL is the object of linguistic analysis in Kobuta’s (2010) work, namely its realization in novels by Ivan Bagryany and George Orwell. Panfilova (2010) analyses the TREACHERY notion in Ukrainian and English language world picture. However, specific national properties of the mentioned concept in the English language consciousness acts as a linguistic research object for the first time. In its turn, Yasnohurska (2017) devotes her research to the analysis of the concept BETRAYAL phraseological representation in English and Ukrainian. As a result, the ethnos worldview specifics are outlined.

The analysis of the transition from surrounding reality objects and phenomena to their linguistic designation given for the first time in this paper. It allows identifying the national specifics of conceptual space key units coding, in this case, betrayal, to identify axiological dominants of its cognitive structure, the ethnocultural specificity of its metaphorical actualization due to which intercultural understanding deepens.

Methods

In the present study, at first, it was necessary to outline the semantic-onomasiological essence of the concept betrayal to set the reality fragment that its linguistic expression defines. Since an essential cognitive property of the human mind is the ability to distinguish from the general flow the necessary information, which later correlates with the surrounding world and the state of things, and, as a result, is applied to the known class of phenomena (Jackendoff, 1990), which indicates its ability to classify them. In its turn, the presence of classification is a confirmation that the surrounding reality is not chaotic, but particulary structured. To achieve this goal, philosophical works, which analyze the phenomenon of betrayal as a peculiar category, were studied.

Then seems the concept betrayal semantic structure consists of were pointed out. Determining the semantic structure of the core lexeme of the researched concept in language was carried out by analyzing its vocabulary interpretation and determining the maximum number of its sememes. The analysis bases on the material of modern English language dictionaries.

Scientists rightly believe that lexical semantics reflects the ethnic group consciousness, which the people’s memory and history, cognitive activity, worldview, and psychology consolidate (Gyuro, 2017). While the specific features of such consciousness - the ethnic mentality - which can be called spirituality – is preserved as in the language fund: proverbs, sayings, various forms of folk art, and in metaphor examples as well. The second important concept structure element is the figurative component. Metaphors help to comprehend abstract entities and to objectify them in the linguistic consciousness (Vorkachev, 2012). Therefore, the analogy is a cognitive tool, which helps to embody the abstraction.
The rage of betrayal metaphors outlined using the metaphor theory. It states, that the perception nature of a specific language community can be detected through the metaphorization mechanisms (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). Since metaphor is a part of a cognitive structure, which brings together mental representation and sentient experience (Khabirova, 2018). Metaphor is anthropometric by its nature (Geeraerts, 2017): it reflects human associative experience. Such associative relationships are ethnical, and thus the metaphor represents the particular nature values system. The mentioned

In this paper, we rely on 543 examples naming betrayal inventoried through the complete selection of vocabulary and phraseological units, and case texts, from dictionaries, sayings, and aphorisms collections, the thesaurus of English metaphors, fiction texts, etc.

Results

Betrayal, as an extra-linguistic phenomenon, attracts the scholars’ attention within the category of morality. The central notions of this category are good and evil, which form the moral consciousness core. Central moral notions, such as – justice, duty, conscience, freedom, honor, fidelity exist around it. Scientists explain betrayal as the irrelevant result of the trustful process, based on the categories of faith, loyalty (Apresyan, 2001). Such an approach bases on binary relations, such as family, party, state, professional, friendly, social, religious, ethnic, racial, etc. Darwall’s (2006) view is that morality—or at least the morality of obligation—as a scheme of accountability (a particular sort of informal public system) that all rational people will endorse. So fidelity is conceived as the fundamental virtue of social relations, which determines the predictability of the trust process results.

The category of betrayal arises in case of inconsistency with the expected, harmony violation, dissonance in relations. The current phenomenon, which is still relevant from biblical times, unfortunately, does not lose its relevance today.

The concept betrayal semantic structure analysis showed that it consists of the following semes: state, political betrayal, to denounce, to deceive, to divulge, to falsify, to delude, to finesse, to gossip, to commit infidelity, to tempt, to exploit, to infringe the law, to break promises, etc. Semantically connected lexical units, which express the investigated concept, identify each seme.

The work of the human brain lies in continual comparison and search of standard features in absolutely opposite entities. It helps to outline the individual characteristics of an object, its uniqueness (Terskikh, 2018). So metaphor makes us see one thing instead of another, which in their direct meaning stands as auxiliary structures, as a key to understanding. Since (conceptual) metaphors are always culturally and socially determined, they convey the folk message contained in a particular concepts in language. All inventoried metaphors we divided into semantic blocks according to the actualized phenomenon.

Metaphors group “to betray – to scam, to deceive.”

To deceive, to scam means “to mislead anyone by actions or verbally; to deceive, to cheat, to act dishonestly; to fool” (Busel, 2005, p. 838). The conducted analysis showed that a significant number of this group examples are somatic metaphors:
You can’t pull the wool over my eyes. I know what’s going on. Don’t try to pull the wool over her eyes. She’s too smart (McGraw-Hill, 2002); Tie her hair without a whang (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 620); Walk down his back (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 609).

In the example, “pull his wisdom teeth” (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 635), the dishonest attitude, the misconception is actualized as a loss of mind, which has long been symbolizing the wisdom tooth that grows in maturity. The normative and contextual semes correlation took place in the associative plane “to deceive - to deprive someone of wisdom”.

Somatic words are used in metaphors in which deception, deceit is to change the appearance. The reincarnation is defined as ”to get a new look, image, transforming into someone else” (Busel, 2005, p. 147). Such transformations can knock a person out of confusion, disorient it, and thus distract attention. So, to change the image, reincarnate – to defraud:

Make [dress] a man’s beard [1386] (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 772);

In some cases, a joke is compared to a fast riding or driving, which actualizes this process as “to pass over”: take someone for a ride, take for a sleigh-ride. Such “use of the word belonging to one class of objects for the nomination of an object belonging to another class” (Arutyunova, 1979, p. 87) occurred due to the presence of seme “rapid movement in space” in the noun ride. It is clear that under the dynamic motion conditions, the subject is not physically able to focus its attention on trivialities, objectively appraise the situation. In this way, a person becomes an object of deceiving.

We do understand that perhaps there is a lack of passion in their relationship, but we do still feel that she is taking everyone for a ride (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1382).

Tangent is an example in which a scam is compared to an indication of a false path. The Englishmen used to take unwanted guests to the garden, instead of taking home. From here, to deceive – to lead up the wrong way:

We were led up the garden path about the cost of the building work – it turned out really expensive (Advanced Vocabulary for English Language Learners, n. d., p. 22)

A certain metaphor amount was formed based on deceiving comparisons with a weakening or loss of perceptual capacity as to deceive – to blur: “to draw the blear over the eyes” (Wright, 2011).

The meaning of the verb to blind “cause (someone) to be unable to see, permanently or temporarily” (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 147) in the following example is projected on human mental capacity as “to deprive of understanding, adequate perception.” Hence “to deceive – to dazzle”:

What I’m trying to get at is that imposing notions of ‘equality’ on everyone may, in some situations, blind us to what is going on (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 147)
In some examples, “deprive of the opportunity to see” is expressed as “pull the hood over the eyes.” Befool, deceive someone from the idea of putting someone at one remove from yourself, using somebody as a second-best (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 55). In the Oxford dictionary, the following definition of the clue words is given: hood – a covering for the head and neck with an opening for the face, typically forming part of a coat or cloak (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 782); caul – a woman’s close-fitting indoor headdress or hairnet (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 235) and to put on a hood over this means to cover the eyes, to hoodwink.

**Make him a hood above a caul (Pratt, 2005, p. 241)**

To deceive or deliberately mislead a person is actualized through the deprivation of seeing ability as well: “to pull the wool over someone’s eyes” (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 265).

It was fashionable for both men and women in the 16th and 17th centuries to wear woolen wigs. This phrase is of American origin, which appeared in the 19th century, derived from this custom. The earliest example is in the *Milwaukee Daily Sentinel And Gazette*, October 1839.

**And we ask one question that they dare not firmly answer, whether they are not now making a tolerable attempt to pull the wool over the eyes of the people (The Phrase Finder. n. d., p. 54)**

The verb to stitch expresses the basic idea of separate parts combining. In the following example, with this verb, the extra-linguistic phenomenon “to conclude an unprofitable agreement” is conceptualized. These metaphors illustrate fraud in trade deals. As a rule, the subjects of trade relations lend themselves to dishonesty to get more profit, benefits. So “betrayal – benefit” is actualized as a “slip-in” goods, “sew up – fabricate”:

**I’ve stitched up a deal with my mechanic so that I pay only for parts and not labor. The agreement was easy to make; we stitched it up in a day (Pratt, 2005, p. 351)**

To deceive for the acquisition is actualized in English with the help of the verb to palm (1679) (Murray, 1928, p. 1296), which is derivative of the noun palm (1377) (Murray, 1928, p. 1296). It can be assumed that the new word formation through the transfer of one language part to another became possible due to the corresponding part of the body participation in the fraud, hence to palm – “to impose fraudulently (on or upon a person); to pass off by trickery or fraud” (Murray, 1928, p. 1296):

**Unscrupulous business people may palm off their property to the buyers without proper papers (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1194)**

Interesting are examples of “betrayal-deceiving,” formed on the associative connection of this phenomenon with a sports game. So, in bowling, the game strategy is used in which after several “slow” balls, the player unexpectedly throws the ball at the speed pull / put a fast one over. Thus, in the following example, the mentioned sports technique is projected on commercial activity, emphasizing in this way, a professional, precise performance. In this case, it is a money tap from rural shop buyers:
She plays a petty shop owner in a village, whose idea of a joke is pulling a fast one over customers (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1326)

Slip – is a small piece of paper, typically a form for writing on or giving printed information; his monthly salary slip; complete the tear-off slip below (Collins English dictionary, n. d., p. 1556). In the Thesaurus of Traditional English Metaphors edited by P.R. Wilkinson, an example illustrating financial fraud, deceiving is found: „give three slips [forged coins, ostensibly worth twopence] for a tester [sixpence].“ (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 115).

Many examples illustrate political deception. So, the election that takes place immediately after the hostilities actualized as “khaki elections.” The khaki fabric – greenish brownish color has a perfect camouflage effect, used to sew a soldier uniform. Clothes stitched from such materials entirely disguise a fighter in the forest, in the field, and against the urban landscape background.

The metaphor represented in the sentence based on the adjective khaki core seme “strong cotton or wool fabric of a dull brownish-yellow color, used especially in military clothing” (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 883). The political processes are compared, by analogy, with such fabric characteristics. The metaphorization process took place in the associative plane “to hide, disguise, falsify.”

Thus, the emphasis made on the fact that such vote results are not objective. Since citizens, experiencing the post-war euphoria, cast their votes on the “heroes” of events:

He won the khaki election, and no one would reject him (Collins English dictionary, n. d., p. 745)

Metaphors group “to betray - to reveal the secret.”

The mystery – hidden from others, not known to everyone; secret; something that is not subject to disclosure; information, knowledge about something, ways to achieve something, unknown to others (Busel, 2005).

Man as a subject of betrayal, the confidential information disclosure by analogy compared to a physical object with a damaged structure.

The news leaked out despite his secrecy (The Free Dictionary by Farlex, n. d., p. 1153)
Trump Is Right: Intelligence Agencies Leak Like a Sieve (Hinderaker, 2017)
The report was immediately leaked by Democrats in the Obama administration (or else Democrats in the intelligence agencies) to Democrats at the Washington Post, so they could slant the story to influence those who will never actually see the report (The Washington Post, 2017)

It is interesting, that a considerable part of these metaphors is created with adverbs out, away, which points to the “exit” of the secret from some container, place. In this way, the secret is compared to the specific object of the surrounding reality, which leaves, goes outside the boundaries.

I wish that John would keep quiet. He’s telling tales out of school again (McGraw-Hill, 2002, p. 254)
We knew then that he was expecting someone to arrive. It’s a secret. Try not to let the cat out of the bag (McGraw-Hill, 2002, p. 263)
Each storage building was ‘mounded’ to simulate the actual dunes, and only the entrance and the dispersal arrangements of the units gave the whole show away (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 721)

Disclose the secret or tell something that concerns only a limited family circle is actualized as “putting out dirty laundry”:
If Nancy would stop nagging me so much, I might be more inclined to help around the house. ... John, don’t alit you and your wife’s dirty laundry. We don’t want to hear it (The Free Dictionary by Farlex, n. d., p. 397)

Strategy – is the plan of actions, moves, techniques, someone’s behavior, for military operation or sports game designed to achieve a particular aim (Busel, 2005).

The secret is a piece of “strategic” information in the native speakers’ language consciousness is associated with the disclosure of the game strategy:
We were trying to pretend we didn’t know it was her birthday, but Sam gave the game away (Cambridge Idioms Dictionary, 2006, p. 662)

The mystery is not always deliberately disclosed for a particular purpose. Sometimes it happens by accident, as a careless speech result. Thus, the secret information message is actualized as “to cackle – blab; reveal secrets in thoughtless or indiscreet conversation” (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 290), which appeals to the animal world representatives. Such voice message characteristic features are the volume and multiple repetitions. Moreover, such a comparison emphasizes that the subject of such behavior is a person with a low intellectual coefficient, whose range of interests is limited to discussing other people’s problems.

She cackled on about the places we were about to see while with one aged hand she tiredly, and with excruciating slowness, tried to open the envelope that held the key to the first apartment (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 274)
In the following example, the traitor compared to a parrot, that thoughtlessly repeats certain information – almond:

The parrot must have an almond (A Dictionary of American Proverbs, n. d., p. 13)
The next metaphor actualized with the help of the verb to blow, used here in its primary meaning “be carried, driven, or moved by the wind or an air current” (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 152). The process of symbolic connection created between the material and abstract spheres took place by comparing the mystery with hidden objects from direct observation:

Someone recognized him and phoned the newspapers, which blew his cover (Cambridge Idioms Dictionary, 2006, p. 135);
He’s a good bloke – he wouldn’t blow the gaff on us (Cambridge Idioms Dictionary, n. d., p. 214).
In 1972, during the Nixon election campaign, a scandal arose due to the invasion of the headquarters in the Watergate construction complex in Washington. Today, in the English language consciousness, any scandals related to corruption are associated with Watergate.

“Without the Vietnam War there would have been no Watergates” – says Bob Haldeman, who went to prison for that (Emery, 1995, p. 8)

To the same group, we included examples with the opposite meaning – to hide the truth, compared with irrelevant action:

You must not think to dance in a net before old Jack Hildebrod (Scott, 2004, p. 54)

To hide intentionally flaws, shortcomings, adorn reality, the real situation metaphorized as “to conceal the truth - to blear the eyes, hoodwink”:

Cabinet advice, says Hide, showed the public had been hoodwinked into investing a project that makes billions for a Hollywood studio (Pratt, 2005, p. 133)

One way of hiding the truth is the so-called “fake showpiece,” that is, “showing something in a decorated form that does not reflect the true essence of the case” (Busel, 2005, p. 635). This phenomenon in English is expressed with financial slang – window-dressing. However, in the given context, the balance veiling indicates the high liquidity appearance:

The realignment ... may be more window-dressing than a substantive change in the company does business (Pratt, 2005, p. 450)

Message as a phenomenon of speech activity contains in its structure a slot to inform-denounce, that is, “to provide secret information to someone (mainly to executives) with an accusation of someone in something” (Busel, 2005, p. 509). In the English slang, this is actualized as to shout, whine. Such an association is predetermined by the fact that the sharp sound gives the enemy’s or offender’s location. As a rule, emotional excitement accompanies the reports of offenses. As it is well-known in these circumstances, the subject behavior is characterized by mimic and general motion activity, psychomotor excitation (Busel, 2005). So to denounce means to betray and is actualized as to squeal:

There was no question of squealing to the police (Collins English dictionary, n. d., p. 1660)

To behave treacherously, meanly, dishonestly is actualized in English using the verb to rat (1864) (Murray, 1928, p. 1363), derived from the noun rat (1000) (Murray, 1928, p. 1362) derivative. Such a transition of the basis to another paradigm occurred due to the need for an accurate description of the subject. So, the rats steal food from their masters, hence “to rat – to desert one's party, side or cause, especially in politics” (Murray, 1928, p. 1362). In the following example, to denounce, one’s parent is illustrated to betray common interests with one’s behavior:

They were accused of encouraging children to rat on their parents (Collins English dictionary, n. d., p. 1392)
Metaphors group “to betray relations.”

In this group, in particular, we referred to examples illustrating the relationship between the supervisor and its subordinates. So, to keep workers busy with inadequate tasks that do not correspond to their official duties, are actualized as “to throw to the wolves”:

*Officer Friendly was returned to duty, but had been so traumatized by his department throwing him to the wolves that he felt he could no longer effectively function in law enforcement* (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1846)

Slaves who created problems were sold on a plantation down the Mississippi River, masters oppressed them. From here, “betray subordinates” is actualized as “to sell down the river”:

*And they say they feel they have been sold down the river by their union leaders, who last week accepted a pay settlement involving changes in shift patterns and working practices* (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1482)

Rats, the animal world representatives, are peculiar “danger signalers.” It is known that they feel the impending earthquake; they predict a collapse in the mine. Each sailor knows that if the rats leave the ship – wait for danger. Scientists explain these animals’ physiological characteristics – the ability to distinguish low-frequency oscillations, hear the infrasound. The mentioned animals behavior projected onto humans, and, as a rule, appeals to malicious, unworthy, treacherous behavior. So, employees who are released because they are aware that the company is on the verge of bankruptcy compared with rats. Thus, a man appears to be a treacherous, mean one:

*Jill: The company next door must be going bankrupt.*
*Jane: How do you know?*
*Jill: All its employees are resigning. Rats abandon a sinking ship* (McGraw-Hill, 2002)

The original Biblical story of Judas betrayal in modern English illustrates treacherous behavior (concerning the leader, mentor), which is masked by false love, affection, and admiration. According to legend, Judas kissed Jesus to show him to the authorities who came to arrest him.

*Don’t try to be my friend now; it’s, just the Judas kiss! I know you’re trying to get more information out of me so you can report it to the headmaster!* (The Free Dictionary by Farlex, n. d., p. 877)

The story of *drop the pilot* (Oxford living dictionaries) quotation dates back to 1890. It was first used as a metaphor to a caricature in the satirical magazine Punch, by Ser John Tennil, who commented on the young King William II, who plundered Bismarck in 1890.

*In face of these signs Charles decided to ‘drop the pilot.’ It was indeed tempting to make a scapegoat of Clarendon, for he was regarded by the nation as responsible for all that had gone wrong* (Trevelyan, 2000)

In this case, the ship, not the plane pilot meant. When sailing a dangerous area in inland waters, the captain of a vessel hires the local pilot who knows the terrain very well to carry them out. However, as soon as he reaches the open waters, he throws the assistant and follows the father. Today, this phrase is used in situations where someone feels that he knows enough to act on his own and neglect a mentor, the faithful counselor.
Friendship is a relationship based on mutual commitment, trust, devotion, social solidarity, spiritual intimacy, a commonality of interests, etc. (Busel, 2005). As it is known, the strength of friendly relationships is tested under challenging situations. No wonder the English people say: “A friend in need is a friend indeed.” To leave, to drop in a problematic situation is actualized as to go with defeat:

They all cleared out and left me in the lurch (The Dictionary of American Slang, n. d., p. 945)

The story of this expression dates back to the middle of the 16th century. The roots of which go from the French lourche, the game’s name, which resembles backgammon, and was used in the phrase demeurer lourche – to be defeated (collapsed) (Collins English dictionary, n. d., p. 398).

To betray, leave friends who helped to reach success, in some metaphors, actualized as to eliminate purchase. Thus, reliable comrades on analogies compared with a particular object of the surrounding reality, which is used as a means necessary for raising or descending something (Busel, 2005): “kick down the ladder” (Macmillan English Dictionary, n. d., p. 881). That is, “to betray associates - to deprive oneself of the opportunity to return, to get rid of support.”

She has struggled so gallantly for the polite reputation that she has won it: pitilessly kicking down the ladder as she advanced degree by degree. (Thackeray, 2006)

“To betray friendly relations – to leave in a difficult position,” in some cases is associated with space position change, with the return to the original position requiring outside assistance. Thus, it is emphasized on the critical situation, the hopelessness:

My little brother was a real pest around my friends and me, so we decided to ditch him in the mall. I can’t believe she ditched me to go hang out with her friends! (The Free Dictionary be Farlex, n. D., p. 997)

Escaping from military service or leaving a hostilities place is called desertion (Busel, 2005). Becoming a deserter means breaking the oath that every warrior makes, and thus betray the state. In the English slang, it is actualized as to go over the hill, which is “an eminence, elevation over the surrounding area, often with slopes” (Busel, 2005, p. 589). Overcoming such a landscape unit involves considerable effort. The mountain symbolizes the promise, and its geographical features illustrate the complexity of the decision.

Jed and Tom planned to go over the hill last night. What happened?
Rumor has it that her husband has gone over the hill (A Dictionary of American Proverbs, n. d., p. 554)

Adultery – a voluntary sexual act between a person who is married and a person who is not her husband or wife (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 82). Although in different legal systems, the definition of adultery varies, common to all is sexual intimacy outside the marriage in one form or another. Historically, adultery in almost all world cultures was severely punished, up to execution.

As a rule, the subject of adultery is a person with bright sexuality, that is, “a combination of biological, psychophysical and emotional reactions, experiences and actions of a man associated with the sexual desire manifestation and pleasure” (Mosby’s Medical Dictionary, 2016, p. 1020).
Expressed in the continuous passion object search. As a rule, sexual men are well-versed in female psychology and are successful among them. In English, such men compared with the killer. Emphasis made on the tempter which charm no woman can resist:

*Jack’s wife doesn’t know that he’s a lady-killer who goes out with other women* (The Phrase Finder, n. d., p. 890)

About a man who often betrays his wife, the English say “he reeks of infidelity” (The Dictionary of American Slang, n. d., p. 1440). It means that constant betrayals become the norm of the person’s behavior. And although the phrase is limited to the smell, it provides a detailed description because its scent is one of the most vital. Taking into consideration that an unpleasant smell provokes facial muscle distortion. Such mimic changes became a crucial force for the associative ligaments formation. Since the face of the wife, who learns about her husband’s betrayal looks like this.

If a married person plays around, it has sexual relationships with other partners:
*He had played around with other women* (Macmillan English Dictionary, n. d., p. 1268).

Considering her grace and beauty, it was inevitable that Sheila would attract several men when she arrived on the scene in New York – and she did! She played around a lot, but as far as she was concerned, none of it was severe (Reynolds, 2007, p. 345)

The verb ‘to play’ express the basic idea of “enjoyment, pretense, amusement,” “behavior or speech that is not intended seriously” (Oxford living dictionaries, 2020, p. 1269). Moreover, according to research, the structure of the concept PLAY consists of components – trick, not seriousness, deception (Min’kova, 2018), which actualized in the analyzed contexts. In the given above examples, with the help of this verb, conceptualized the extra-linguistic phenomena “to engage in extramarital sexual activity.”

**Metaphors group “to betray yourself.”**

One more group of metaphors compiles examples illustrating the person’s behavior, activity against yourself.

Man is the subject of biological and social life. Man social quality – a set of interrelated elements, formed due to the individual peculiarities of social interaction with other people under specific historical conditions (Giddens, 2005). The socialization mechanism structure includes a projection on the Others, identity with Others, and the identity affirmation by certain symbols, provided the introjection (Zlobina, & Tykhonovych, 2001). The socialization process depends on the social relations nature and, accordingly, the individual self-perception.

For the sake of success in society, a man works hard on himself, seeks to show himself better. The person often tries to hide its origin, temperament, emotions, personal information. There are situations when traitors, the person’s enemy is a person itself. Behavior, appearance, facial expressions, and gestures, utterances “give man away.”

In different nations folklore the silence, little words considered to be the one of the basic man’s virtues. So in English, there are well-known expressions: Hold one's tongue; Speech is silver, silence is gold; Who can not speak well that can not hold his tongue; One’s tongue runs
before one’s wit. Among the inventoried examples, we found some which illustrate how a person betrays himself with his rash statements:

A fish wouldn’t get caught if it keeps its mouth shut (A Dictionary of American Proverbs, n. d., p. 637)

The associative connection formed on the analogy with the fishing. The basis for such a comparison was both processes of physiological commonality. Fish get into the fisherman’s hands because it opens its mouth for food (hook). Then the person does it to speak.

The process of each other perception is an essential stage in interpersonal communication construction. Particular attention in these works is paid to the phenomenon of first impression formation, which for quite a long time, plays the role of original psychological installation on the individual perception (Matsko, 2009).

A significant role in shaping the first impression plays clothing. Bacon (2003) wrote: “The best person’s characteristic is its attractive appearance.” What can a man’s clothing tell? First of all, its material wealth, taste, belonging to one or another subculture, a mode of life, perhaps, about the place of work or study (in fact, people in the military, police, doctor uniform stand out from the crowd). However, it is clear that the appearance does not provide complete information about the person, and often it is deceptive, treacherous:

A hood does not make the monk (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 576)

Social origin – a feature that reflects the connection of the individual with one or another social group, class, layer. It arises at the moment of birth and is stored at the initial stages of social formation. Origin is based on parents’ social status, property status, occupation, nationality (race), and place of residence (Kyzymenko & Byedna, 2000).

At any society level, it is difficult to conceal the social origin; it is traced in the person’s behavior and manners throughout its life.

Clever clogs will not make fine ladies (Wilkinson, 2002, p. 365)

The status is compared with shoes on a high wooden sole. Thus, an analogy: high rate in society – a high position in space.

The human face is the only reliable source, which expresses real emotions and experiences.

Guilt was written all over her face (Cambridge Dictionary, n. d., p. 674)

In the analyzed example, the person’s face is compared with a printed information medium. A prominent feature of this source is reliability and trustworthiness. Probably the significance of the written pattern is historically determined. In antiquity, the information, recorded in writing, attached great importance. “What is written with a pen cannot be cut out with an ax” (A Dictionary of American Proverbs, n. d., p. 367). Written becomes known to the general public – and, accordingly, it was impossible to change it.

Conclusion

The national specifics of betrayal as an extra-linguistic phenomenon is studied by analyzing the corresponding lexical units, phraseologies, metaphors, stable expressions, and case texts.
The analysis showed that betrayal in the English language consciousness actualized with the help of verbs which contain in their semantic structure semes “to send a beep” – to squeal, to cackle; “to move in space” – to lead; “to remove, to leave” – to throw, to drop, to kick, to blow, to wipe; “to put something over something” – to pull, to draw; “to leave” – to leak, to rat; nouns – “somatics” – eye, face, hair, beard; “flora, fauna” – pigeon, cat, dog, fish, rat, supple-jack; “geographical objects” – hill, river, path, clay; “artifacts” – hood, clog, sleeve, wax, wool, net, window; adjectives with the semantic “masking” – khaki; “imperfect” – dirty; with the help of adverbs – out, away.

As a result of our study, we managed to establish that the ethnocultural specificity of the attitude to betrayal-deceiving is that for the English speaking persons, it is primarily a self-perception of being more cunning and smarter than others. Hence the priority values – to be honest, decent, to respect others’ interests. Thus, the English speakers condemn cunning, truth hush up, thirst for financial enrichment.

The analysis of betrayal metaphors has shown, that the English respect confidentiality, someone else’s personal life, the ability to keep the secrets. Discussion of other people’s problems, informing the government about someone, something – sharply criticized.

In human relationships, the English most appreciate loyalty, devotion, reliability, respect, tolerance. Ungratefulness, meanness, contempt, dishonesty is condemned.

The analyzed examples trace the personality traits, characteristics, features that the English speaking persons appreciate especially. These are wordless, sincerity, inner endurance, self-control, work on yourself, constant self-improvement.

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Interpreting Jane Austen’s Writing Style: Adaptations of the Novel *Northanger Abbey*

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**Abstract**

The research paper focused on revealing the individual writing style of Jane Austen based on the novel *Northanger Abbey* and interpretations of its various adaptations. The purpose of the article is to prove that the individual author’s style can be reconstructed due to different stylistic devices that help the reader to understand the message of a literary work more profoundly and take into account in the process of film adaptations. An author’s style is characterized by numerous factors including spelling, word choices, sentence structures, punctuation, use of literary stylistic devices (irony, metaphors, rhyme, etc.) and organization of ideas, narration structure, and overall tone of the narration. The main analytic procedures used in the research are keyness, collocation, and cluster. The authors also define that the novel under analysis is a parody of Gothic fiction. The author ruined the conventions of eighteenth-century novels by making her heroine fall in love with the character before he has a serious thought of her and exposing the heroine’s romantic fears and curiosities as groundless. The article deals with adaptation as an integral part of the concept of intersemiotic translation. It is possible to say that adaptation is an attempt to translate the content of the adapted material into its screening; intersemiotic translation focuses on the analysis and interpretation of semiotic codes in the scope of adapted material. Seven basic operations used to differentiate the range of adaptation are substitution, reduction, addition, amplification, inversion, transaccentation, compression.

**Keywords:** adaptation, Jane Austen, interpreting, *Northanger Abbey*, novel, writing style

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Introduction

The paper focused on the problem of revealing Jane Austen’s writing style in general and different ways of its interpretation based on the novel *Northanger Abbey* and its film adaptations in particular. The topic in this research seemed to be an interesting idea due to many factors. First and foremost, a literary text in comparison with its adaptations: no matter whether they are cinematic, theatrical, or comic, the attention is paid mainly to the adaptation of the original content. It is a well-known fact that authors of adaptations are often criticized for their misinterpretation of the original work. Usually, they omit fragments that are, in their opinion, irrelevant to the general message of a literary work, or for adding additional scenes that don’t exist in the original material. It seems quite evident that adaptations should be altered for many times (shortened or reworked) to produce a satisfactory cinematic success.

All the above-mentioned considerations concerning the content of the adapted literary work often refer only to selected scenes. The most common opinion is that readers in a completely different way imagined fragments described in the book. As it is, should not the adaptations be called *interpretations*? And if so, what exactly is the filmmaker interpreting while borrowing the idea from the author of the novel?

Nowadays, many literary classics converted into films, so choices were almost limitless. The novel *Northanger Abbey*, written by Jane Austen, seemed to be the best choice. Mostly because – despite many years since its first publication – it still enjoys great popularity in almost every age group. There is even the opinion that thanks to these adaptations, the success of Jane Austen doesn’t weaken – on the contrary, it grows with every new adaptation, independently if it is considered as better or worse than the original literary text.

Film adaptations also have not been selected by chance, but because of the highest viewership ratings according to the most popular online movie website. The choice of well-known material guarantees that the topic discussed later in this research can reach a much wider audience.

Literary works are often translated into other languages, allowing them to reach a wider audience. However, the translation of the content of a novel from a source language into a target language continues to gain only one specific type of audience. Translating a written text from one language into another doesn’t, however, provide great interpretative possibilities. This because – despite the differences due to the construction of a specified language – the translator is still translating the same semiotic signs.

Mentioning above, a particular type of audience is suggesting literary fans. With today’s filmmaking possibilities, there is also the opportunity to get into a wider audience – those who prefer watching films over reading novels. Unfortunately, nowadays, the second type of audience is overwhelming.

Due to the development of technology, we have unrestricted access to almost any information. There is no problem with finding films that we want to watch – these films are often the adaptations of literary works. Since reading is becoming less and less popular, watching a movie based on an original material classified as familiarization with a specified adapted material?
A movie adaptation is only an interpretation of the original text, so the answer is obvious. Of course, focusing only on audiovisual signals, the recipient is able – often superficially – to get to know the content of a chosen material by watching its adaptation. Unfortunately, it isn’t possible to see also the meaning of the adapted text.

The objectives of this research are to present the problems associated with the stylistic interpreting of the novel *Northanger Abbey* and its various adaptations: to make the reader understand how the interpretation of the individual style can help to understand the whole work; how different stylistic features may be presented by particular interpreters; such as filmmakers.

That is why it is possible to say that the practical value of this work focused on trying to make it clear to the public that not only literary works and films can be traced to the hidden meaning, but every more serious reader will begin to see them even in everyday life. Choosing a well-known work makes the subject more accessible and can achieve its goal by reaching a wider audience.

**Literature Review**

The study of *writing style* establishes the author’s deviations from universal language laws and principles of structuring a literary work and then interpreting these deviations through the prism of philosophical and linguistic foundations that predetermine an individual author’s style. We understand it as a definite, distinct manner that makes a literary expression of content unique from other authors. An individual author’s style determines the techniques employed to compose the content, such as the ideas, opinions, facts, etc.

What are the particular components that define an author’s style? An author’s style is characterized by numerous factors including spelling, word choices, sentence structures, punctuation, use of literary stylistic devices (irony, metaphors, rhyme, etc.) and organization of ideas, narration structure, and overall tone of the narration. Let’s dwell on the individual writer’s style in much detail based on Austen’s novel *Northanger Abbey*.

The literary works of Jane Austen are of particular importance for the history of English literature. Jane Austen was the heiress of enlightened realism. Hence, the novel *Northanger Abbey* is characterized by the domination of realistic, not romantic aesthetics, and it testifies the continuous development of a tradition. However, the influence of romantic aesthetics on the creative works of the author under analysis cannot be wholly rejected. The writer's work is defined as the intersection of three traditions – Enlightening, Romanticism, and Realism. It’s worth mentioning that realism in the novel *Northanger Abbey* is of a particular character: this is a transitional realism, no longer enlightening, but at the same time not critical.

The fact is that Jane Austen’s attitude towards romanticism was not generally enthusiastic. She was not influenced by the romantics (Wordsworth, Coleridge, & Byron) and, in all likelihood, was usually indifferent to the aesthetics of romanticism. Judging from some academic resources, we may consume that Austen adopted a romantic aesthetic with significant limitations. Belsky (1962) observed that the writer’s work was basically “emphasized anti-romantic” (Бельский, 1962, p. 50). It is possible to speak about the influence of the era of Romanticism on Austen only
connected with her interest in the personality of a character, which had some effect on the concept of “human nature” worked out by the novelist. However, she, unlike the writers of the romantic trend, considers a person/ a human being in close connection with the environment. At the same time, characters created by Austen, like characters of Byron, are inherent in the spirit of rebellion and romantic impulses.

Many literary studies analyze Austen’s style from chronicle narration in her novels: Allen, Masafiefl, Mudrick. Masafiefl (1967) argues that the irony of the narrative and the restraint of the author’s manner lead to the rejection of novelistic sensitivity. Mudrick (1952) believes that the irony of the writer serves as a stylistic device, revealing special characters’ traits.

It’s interesting to mention that Maugham (2018) considered Austen’s humor the most notable feature of the writer’s style. He admired Jane Austen's extraordinary ability to illuminate even the most mundane topics with a spark of talent: “... she was interested in ordinary things, and not out of the ordinary. The unusual narrative was given to her by sharp observation, irony, and playful humor” (Maugham, 1954, p. 215).

Jane Austen is famous for her witty and penetrating portrayal of provincial society and considered the founder of a parody novel. In the mid-20th century, literary critics Leavis and Watt placed her in the tradition of Richardson and Fielding because she used their practice of “irony, realism, and satire to form an author superior to both” (Leavis, 1948, p. 31).

Her works recognized as masterpieces of world literature, captivating readers with their artless sincerity and simplicity of the plot, and the linguistic potential revealed in characters’ speech. Besides, dialogues reveal a character’s mood – frustration, anger, happiness – each treated through stylistically marked patterns of sentence structures.

The language of Jane Austen is clear and precise; the additional meanings of the words. A specific feature of her speech is defined as simplicity.

As Austen’s novel considered a parody of a Gothic novel, the particular vocabulary used:
Darkness impenetrable and immoveable filled the room. A violent gust of wind, rising with sudden fury, added fresh terror to the moment. Catherine trembled from head to foot. In the pause which succeeded a sound like receding footsteps and the closing of a distant door stack on her affrighted ear. Human nature could support no more. A cold sweat stood on her forehead, the manuscript fell from her hand, and groping her way to the bed, she jumped hastily in and sought some suspension of agony by creeping far underneath the clothes.

(Austen, 1954, Ch.21)

The author seeks to create an atmosphere of expectation and suspense of something terrible, characteristic of the Gothic novel. Subordinate to this task, the choice of vocabulary: darkness, violent, fury, terror, trembled, affrighted, cold sweat. The situation is typical for such works: night, howls, winds, an unfamiliar house (and not an ordinary house, but a former abbey), a mysterious manuscript found by the heroine, an unexpectedly extinguishing candle.
The analyzed passage is exceptionally close to the original texts of the Gothic novels and represented as primary, independent with a different design. For this text to be taken seriously, a degree of richness of tone is necessary to smooth out the impression of exaggerated horror, neutralizing, especially emotionally charged moments in the text.

Consequently, the writer’s attention is directed not at the exterior details of the character’s portrait, but his inner world at his hidden properties. It has a sense of proportion, laconism, and restraint that became unique individual features of Jane Austen’s writing style.

Besides, Austen’s works are characterized by deep psychologism. The writer penetrates the very depths of human nature and then masterfully reveals its essence. She manages to discern even those feelings that do not lie on the surface. Thereby, in her works, the writer shows the versatility of human nature. Her magnificent mastery of psychological prose is noted by Gorer (1965), Green (1960), and Hartley (1967). They emphasize the significant penetration of Austen into the deep psyche of her characters, the accurate reflection of the processes of self-reflection, the reader’s acquaintance with the subconscious world of characters through their internal monologues (Green, 1960; Gorer, 1965; Hartley, 1967). That’s why there is almost no description of the characters’ appearance, their houses or interiors, furniture in the rooms, or landscape in her works. The writer uses a description only to create a comic effect or to express the development of events. These features also make Jane Austen’s writing style outstanding and peculiar.

Compared to the large-scale canvases of enlightening novels, where most of England represented “longitudinally and cross-sectionally”, the novels of the writer are distinguished by their chamberness and lack of epic scope. It’s interesting to notice that J. Austen herself defined the theme of her works as a description of “the life of several families living in rural areas” (Green, 1960, p. 47). Jane Austen refused to describe what she did not see and did not know. Almost always, the place of action in her novels was village estates or small resort towns that Jane Austin visited herself (Lyme and Bath). So, we may sum up that another important feature of Jane Austen’s writing style is a clear reflection of reality. When writing novels, the writer relied only on her personal experience. However, as we have mentioned above, landscape sketches, whether rural or urban, do not occupy a significant place in her works. Landscape details come down to only a few touches, which most often do not form even a single finished scene. They “intersperse” the text with light, separate “strokes” and can serve as a means of revealing the character's traits (Мнацаканян, 2005). The researchers of the writer’s biography claimed an interesting fact that she had consulted her brothers on several occasions. Also, they used calendars and reference books when naval officers appeared on the pages of her novels (Northanger Abbey, Persuasion).

The everyday life of ordinary people is the constant sphere of application of Jane Austen’s talent. She introduced the gallery of colorful, recognizable characters that are in the familiar environment for the reader. It’s worth mentioning that Austen’s literary works often explore the dependence of women on marriage in the pursuit of favorable social standing and economic security. Therefore, the attention of the writer is directed, first of all, to the process of the character formation under the influence of factual circumstances. To our minds, this is one of the most essential principles of realistic art in general and Austen’s writing style in particular.
Methodology

The method tools used in the research include keyness, collocation, and cluster analytic procedures. They explore stylistic features and functions in Austen’s novel *Northanger Abbey*.

Keyness (Scott & Tribble (2006)) includes lexical items of significance and frequency in the text in analyses.

The use of collocations (Hoey (1991), Stubbs (2001)) allows seeing the relations between lexical items in a text and their creation of new meanings.

Clusters used to refer to a recurrent string of uninterrupted word forms (Scott, 1999). They show both lexical and grammatical relations between words (Stubbs, 2001) and the creation of textual meaning. Clusters in this study show the way of functioning words and contribute to the meaning of intersemiotic signs in the original Austen’s novel and their adaptations.

Seven basic operations used in an adaptation (Henrykowski (2015)) are singled out in the research: substitution, reduction, addition, amplification, inversion, transaccentation, compression. They help to compare and differentiate common and divergent features in original and adopted text.

Data Collection Procedure

Jane Austen’s novel *Northanger Abbey* was written in the late 90’s of the XVIIIth century published in 1818, a year after the death of the writer. The novel is preceded by a short author’s prologue, in which:

The readers are asked keep in mind that thirteen years have passed since the completion of this work, much more since it was conceived, and that over the past years, geographical concepts, human characters and views, and literature has undergone significant changes (Austen, 2014, p. 110).

If we consider those really dramatic changes in public morals, and most importantly, in the reader’s tastes that took place over two decades, which shared the original plan and publication of the book, it becomes clear why the author needed to make this significant remark. The thing is that the reading circle changed a lot during that time, and the Gothic novels, which are the main object of parody in *Northanger Abbey*, went out of fashion, being on the periphery of reading interest. This could not but worry Austen, who was afraid that this work, which had not been able to see the light in the years when written, was hopelessly late and out of date over the years. It is indeed the fate of many parodies that lose their relevance as the phenomenon or object becomes obsolete. But now we can confidently state that these fears were in vain. The novel *Northanger Abbey* was destined for a long and happy literary fate since it remains quite popular, is actively read and screened almost two hundred years after its first appearance.

The novel under analysis is a parody of Gothic fiction, which was especially popular during the 1790s and at the turn of the nineteenth century. Many of Austen’s researchers support the idea that she ruined the conventions of eighteenth-century novels by making her heroine a plain girl from a middle-class family. Allowing the heroine to fall in love with the character before he has a
serious thought of her and exposing the heroine’s romantic fears and curiosities as groundless. It’s interesting to know that the plot of the novel built around Catherine Morland, a young and naïve heroine, and her journey to a better understanding of herself and the world around her. By the way, Catherine is barely out of the schoolroom when she enters the social whirl of Bath society. Many of her problems stem from her excessive tendency to take people at their evaluations. However, being socially naïve, Catherine managed to overcome her troubles due to her honesty and strength.

For example, her confrontation at the abbey itself with the novel’s main character, General Tilney, made Catherine turn to Gothic fantasy to explain her unease. To be more exact, she has been both wrong and right in her preconscious judgment of the General, using her Gothic imaginings to articulate the gap between her experience of the General and his social façade.

But in Northanger Abbey, the plot is wholly organized by an extra-diegetic narrator who, besides the narrative function of ruling the narration, combines others. The narrator’s directorial role is manifested in the text of the novel. Especially clearly in those cases when emphasizing the glaring differences between the story he tells and the principles and norms of the organization of the plot in Gothic novels. Starting with a completely inappropriate character and ending with “wrong”, from the point view of sentimental canons, psychological motivations presented in the novel.

Talking into account the communicative function, it should be noted that the narrator from the very first lines establishes special relations with the reader based on an ironic distance and a subtle polysemantic game, which makes the latter assume that there is a double addressee: a “real” or “historical” reader (we will call him a reader of the “first-level”) and a fictional one – a lover of Gothic novels, who expects to find a standard set of stereotypes in this text and who destined to be disappointed, both in the characters and in the circumstances, revealing continuous discrepancies with his expectations, that is continually emphasized.

Along with the reflection of the point of view, the reader of the text of the “first-level” from the very first pages, the narrator is audible, first declaring himself mainly in the form of ironic directorial commentary and aphoristic maxims, the tone of which varies from almost sarcastic:

A family of ten children will be always called a fine family, where there are heads and arms and legs enough for the number” to a sympathetic understanding: “To look almost pretty is an acquisition of higher delight to a girl who has been looking plain the first fifteen years of her life than a beauty from her cradle can ever receive. (Austen, 2014, p. 68)

Later in the story, we will see the narrator has no other kind of pathos, quite serious and sincere, such as including those that serve as the object of parody. Here, the reader gets the opportunity to understand the nature of the author’s attitude to parodied Gothic novels better. The ideological function of the narrator comes to the fore, but also from a series of dialogues, especially those that express the point of view of Henry Tilney.

Recognizing many undoubted artistic merits of parodied Gothic works, the author, using
the voice of the narrator, as well as her characters, make the main reproach to them: too blatant divergence of the novel narration with reality, an overabundance of far-fetched, non-life situations and a lack of believable, psychologically reliable characters and convincing motivation in their actions and behavior.

A clear illustration of this discrepancy is not only the narrator’s comments, but also the characters themselves, or instead, their perception of Gothic novels in general; there is also a whole series of intradiegetic readers, who include, among others, the main characters. And while Henry Tilney, in many ways a bearer of an ideological point of view, is the most appropriate type of "critical reader" and connoisseur of such literature and sees the difference between fiction and reality, then Catherine Morland in his mind at some point, like Don Quixote, begins to identify real-life and romance.

At the same time, as the plot develops, the reader is given the full opportunity to follow Catherine’s mind because we see and evaluate events precisely with her eyes; starting from the second chapter, her “point of view” prevails in the novel, and the narrator, for the most part, follows her heroine as an “invisible companion,” that is, there is a complete coincidence of the spatial positions of the narrator and the character in many scenes, such as the heroine’s arrival in Bath or Northanger Abbey, the discovery of a mysterious manuscript by her, etc. The narrator is fully revealed in his mimetic function using stylistic means characteristic for Gothic novels, with their sublime vocabulary, emotionally and expressively labeled language, complicated syntax, etc.

The parody effect in the novel is achieved due to the same dualism. That is a striking discrepancy between the expected and the real. In our opinion, the main distinguishing narration principle in the novel Northanger Abbey is its "intentional dualism, a conscious game on contradictions, resulting in the constant effect of “defeated expectancy”" (Jacobson, 1960, p. 365).

This discrepancy can be realized in the text almost simultaneously. For example, in the scene of Catherine Morland’s arrival at Northanger Abbey, which turns out to be contrary to her semi-conscious hopes. The hopes of an enthusiastic admirer of Gothic novels, not at all the gloomy, deserted, dark, and sinister place that she hoped to see. This contrast realized within the same sentence:

Drive between two modern-looking gatehouses and immediately find yourself at the abbey itself, quickly rolling along a smooth and gravelly road, without any delays, alarms, or ceremonies, such I didn’t. ‘Or: ‘Contrary to her expectations, the fireplace did not strike her with the size of massive stone blocks hewn into the old days, and besides, it was faced with smoothly polished marble, equipped with an inclined grating of Rumford and decorated with charming English porcelain (Austen, 2014, p. 74).

But in some cases, between the elements of the heroine’s “novel of consciousness” and their ironic debunking, a certain narrative distance is maintained, within which the reader is to indulge in illusions or to remain in ignorance with the heroine since the narrator does not tell us in advance any information about which Catherine Morland is unknown. The most typical examples of such a distance are Catherine's misconceptions regarding the nature and motives of General Tilney’s
behavior and smaller episodes with a chest and the discovery of a manuscript in an old closet. In this last episode, Austen imitates the style and atmosphere of mystery and increasing suspense typical of A. Radcliffe’s novels (“Udolphian Secrets” is one of the main objects of the parody). She fully manages to meet the expectations of the heroine herself in constant foreboding of “Gothic adventures” and “first-level” recipients who finally get the opportunity to read at least a fragment of the novel that they would like to read from the very beginning.

Thus, the general two-pronged narrative, the existence of two novel layers within the same text: the Gothic (represented in the ‘novel of consciousness’ of the heroine and the expectations of readers of the “first-level” modeled in the text), and the “real,” which is the main content of the novel, - are combined into a single whole at the level of the ironic narrator, who until the very last phrase does not cease to make fun of the reader, inviting him to conclude on both the moral and the content component reading. To our minds, the originality of a literary work as parody lies in the fact that all the above-mentioned functions of the narrator are applied in a literary text, letting us talk about a well-known literary innovation method, which takes the novel beyond the boundaries of parody itself.

**Discussion**

Reading any novel, the reader pays attention primarily to the plot. A more attentive audience will focus on finding seemingly insignificant details for the whole story. Nevertheless, attention paid to descriptions of space, characteristics of figures, or the significance of selected scenes for the entire plot. Unfortunately, in present times, reading is slowly disappearing as consumers prefer film adaptations of literary works to literary texts. It’s worth noticing that there is a difference between these two processes: while watching the film adaptation, attention paid to details, and each of them is of great importance. Speech, facial expressions, and gestures, and music and space arrangement, based on the interpretation of the details described in a literary text.

By pointing out the interpretative possibilities of a chosen literary work, the recipient unconsciously observes and analyses the author’s perspective of another adaptation – often quite different from what he learned.

The ability to find various interpretation possibilities and analyze the essential details will make the material (read or viewed) more understandable and fascinating for the recipient. It’s important to stress that there are frequent cases when most vivid and significant texts are surrounded by a space of translations and interpretations. In this case, the source texts produce an effect similar to a stone thrown into the water (“circles on water” effect (Collins, 1998). Thus, a system including source texts and their metatextual interpretations are considered as a field organized by the principle of a semantic network.

According to the history of philosophy, this effect was described by Rendall Collins in his work “Sociology of Philosophy.” As a result, we are talking about the non-linear and multidimensional generation of information in culture. Knowledge is accumulated in the epicenter of the circle, in our case, the original text of Jane Austen *Northanger Abbey*.

The number of texts, one way or another connected with the work of the English novelist,
allows us to state the existence of an independent field living in its laws of the text world, in the terminology of Collins (1998): “Any text taken as a sign exists due to interpretation through other signs, which ensures the movement and growth of the semiosphere” (p.237). The mechanism of functioning of the Jane Austen field is based on the metatext principle. In the structure of the area, we include both the actual texts (metatexts) and the cultural communities within which books about Austen produced:

1. original literary works of J. Austen, created in the XIX century;
2. their translations into other languages;
3. linguistic and cultural studies and literary studies of J. Austen literary texts;
4. sequels that began created during the life of J. Austen and the “continuations” of her novels in our time; film and theatre adaptations of J. Austen’s books, including the film adaptation of sequels.

It’s quite evident that the authors of adaptations are often criticized for their interpretation of the original work, for example, for omitting fragments that are – in their opinion – irrelevant to the main idea of a literary work or adding scenes that don’t exist in the adapted material at all. Everyone seems to understand that adaptations must shorten and reworked until they produce satisfactory cinematic success. However, original literary works remain defined as better variants of the original work, mainly because of their unspoken content. Without knowing the written text, the recipient won’t be able to interpret the signs, as forced to analyze the assumptions of a filmmaker.

In this research, the novel Northanger Abbey is presented as an example of timeless writing of the nineteenth-century and its numerous adaptations: the 2007 WBGH/Granada Northanger Abbey (produced by Jon Jones, written by Andrew Davies), the 1987 BBC Northanger Abbey (directed by Giles Foster, written by Maggie Wadey), the 1993 independent Ruby in Paradise (directed and written by Victor Nunez).

The beauty of the 87 and 07 Northanger films lies in their visual recreation of female gothic dreams. The 87 film is beautifully picturesque and filled with thoughtful conversations taken from Austen’s book. Both the 87 and 07 Northanger films open with a nightmare visions as Catherine (Catharine Schlesinger and Felicity Jones respectively) lies in a tree and reads Radcliffe: Wadey’s nightmare is straight out of the 1968 horror gothic, Rosemary’s Baby; Davies’ comes from modern female ghost-gothic. During the trip, both films dramatize nightmares: in the 87 movie, an archetypal sexually-motivated abduction scene (which closely recalls one in the 1980 Jane Austen in Manhattan, a free adaptation of Austen’s Sir Charles Grandison); in the 07 film violent dueling, which includes Mr. Allen (Desmond Barrit) dealing blows with his crutches, surrounds our fainting two heroines. Mrs. Allen (Sylvestre Le Tousel) faints too.

Both films contain six dreams or nightmare sequences nowhere in Austen’s book. When Austen’s Catherine at long last fulfills her desire to see a real historical building and drives into the grounds of the abbey, she is surprised because she barely notices the quick appearance of a low building. It’s appearance she just about entirely misses because "a scud of rain" hits her in the face. Austen’s Catherine’s room is modern, well-lit, with a good fire, and near her friend, Eleanor
Tilney’s. General Tilney boasts of his progressive modernization of his house. Mrs. Tilney’s ex-
room is neat, clean, spruce, not a shroud insight.

The case is drastically altered in both films. Throughout Wadey’s film includes far more of
Austen’s original language, conversations, literary and artistic themes than Davies’ 07
Northanger film, and in so doing, has, adds to, and comments on Austen’s general outlook and her
appreciation of Radcliffe’s female gothic.

Many researches published on the subject of film adaptations of literary novels in recent
times. In 1979, an article written by Alicja Helman, entitled “Model adaptacji filmowej. Próba
wprowadzenia w problematykę” was published in Kino. A well-known and widely respected film
theorist begins her article by defining the concept of adaptation in the frame of finding the most
suitable method of adapting any literary work. According to the author, there are two camps with
very different opinions. The first group assumes that film adaptations should be created in a way
that allows to create a film better than the adapted material. In its turn, their opponents believe that
the transference of the novel to the screens should ensure the best possible reflection of adapted
work—both the content of a literary work and its main idea.

Therefore, the question arises: how many differences can be in film adaptations compared
to the adapted work? When should we stop terming them as adaptations? Is the rewriting of a
literary work to make a film, often quite different from the original, can still being called an
adaptation or an interpretation?

Henrykowski (2015) defines the fundamental goals of a film adaptation. He aligns them to
translate literary text from the source language into the target language within the same system of
sings. Henrykowski thinks that there are three fundamental differences between them: the
otherness of material, the otherness of medium, and the otherness of expression.

Henrykowski shows in a very exact way the significant differences between a film
adaptation and intersemiotic translation. His reasoning seems to be completely logical because of
the statement that linguistic translation is trying to get the equivalent of a specified material in a
foreign language, still being a verbal language. It means that linguistic translation stays within the
same system of signs. In contrast, the adaptation process in the context of intersemiotic translation
is far more complicated due to the need to interpret semiotic codes contained in a literary work.

The primary assumption of intersemiotic translation is translating the verbal signs into
another system of signs within the same language. In the case of a film adaptation, these will be
mainly audiovisual signs. Intersemiotic translation presupposes skillful identification of selected
semiotic codes in the original material and interprets them in the best possible way to present them
in different systems of signs.

Hence, a film adaptation is understood as the processing material of a literary work
intended for filmmaking. However, in practice, a film adaptation often exceeds its limits,
continually widening or significantly changing the context of the work. According to Henrykowski
(2015), there are seven basic operations used during an adaptation.
1. substitution – a change of elements existing in the adapted material;
2. reduction – a deletion of specified elements existing in the adapted material;
3. addition – adding details that don’t exist in the adapted material;
4. amplification – enhancement of meaning of the specified features;
5. inversion – changing the order of the selected elements;
6. transaccentation – the transfer of the meaning of the selected elements;
7. compression – the condensation of the structure of the adapted material.

Adaptation is very often associated with the concept of intersemiotic translation. It is possible to say that adaptation is an attempt to translate the adapted material into its screening. However, intersemiotic translation focuses on the analysis and interpretation of semiotic codes range the adapted material. It can be assumed that intersemiotic translation is an attempt to show the interpretation of semiotic codes. In the case of film adaptation one can speak about the understanding of linguistic codes (verbal language) and possibility to translate them into the language of a film, usually audiovisual system of signs.

Conclusion

Many readers are asking themselves whether the film adaptation is capable of destroying a literary text. It is easy to answer this question. While reading the book, we allow our imagination to work. When we read the descriptions of characters or their statements, we are trying to visualize what is happening on the pages of a book. The film adaptation will never reflect the novel in one hundred percent. As shown earlier in this paper, it all comes to the interpretations of a film director. If it diverges too far from the adapted material or drastically different from it, we probably start thinking that this adaptation is not worth our time. However, this will never spoil our image or opinion about the novel itself.

There are some untranslatable aspects of a literary text. Therefore, the director creating a film must be aware of the differences between verbal signs and their interpretation.

Recipients are increasingly focusing on effects – thanks to the development of technology – that can turn out to be surprisingly significant for the whole adaptation. Due to the decreasing interest in literature, fewer and fewer people compare the adapted material to its interpretation. Unfortunately, is crucial for understanding and perceiving the depth of adapted material in adaptation.

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References


Abstract
Fluency in a foreign language, professional knowledge, skills, and abilities is becoming the essential qualities of modern journalists. This paper discusses the notion of English professional communicative competence of future journalists. The purpose of the research is to analyze the components of professional, and foreign communicative competence of future journalists. Also, it aims to determine the role of mass media developing professional English communicative competence. The process of research data is based on the developed technology of using mass media products in English classes. It proved the effectiveness of printed, audio-visual, audio, and electronic materials. According to this technology, levels of professional English communicative competence consisted of high, sufficient, average, and low. Experimental work confirms the significance and effectiveness of applied technology in achieving a high level of the research question. Obtained data proved that using mass media materials as learning tools made journalism education flexible, dynamic, exciting, and productive. It was more effective and provided better results in comparison with the traditional ones. The problem of using mass media in professional English communicative competence of journalists, subject matter specificity, and criteria for choosing media texts, forms, and training methods need further studies.

Keywords: communicative activities, foreign language communicative competence, journalism education, mass media, media discourse

Introduction
The European orientation of Ukraine has led to an increase in foreign language roles of the journalistic profession. For a modern journalist, a foreign language, especially English, is an instrument of professional activity and knowledge. A foreign language helps to overcome the communicative barrier between local and international journalism. From this point, media education is crucial. It is determined primarily by the professionalism of a journalist who possesses flexible, professional knowledge, communicative skills, a sense of responsibility for the media product quality, great creative potential (Banda, 2013).

The professional development of journalists depends on the content and functions of professional activities. The ability to produce oral (reports, meetings, presentations) and written (essays, business correspondence) texts, to do spot interviews according to professional and communicative ethics, to control behavior and overcome conflicts in communication, to recognize other communicative values and norms not only in mother tongue but also in a foreign language are becoming the essential skills of modern journalists.

Objectives of the Research
The aims of the research are the following:
1. To analyze the structure of professional English communicative competence of future journalists.
2. To explain the criteria and indicators of professional English communicative competence of future journalists.
3. To definite the level of development of professional English communicative competence using mass media.

Literature Review
Professional English communicative competence of modern journalists involves communication in English in the professional field. We regard it as a purposeful education process that aims to gain knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience. The above stated should become objects of journalism education at English lessons. The analysis of scientific works has shown that the research question includes such points as the notion of professional competence and development of English (foreign language) communicative competence using mass media.

According to Mulder (2014), professional competence is:
"the generic, integrated and internalized capability to deliver sustainable, effective (worthy) performance (including problem-solving, realizing innovation, and creating transformation) in a certain professional domain, job, role, organizational context, and task situation. Competence consists of various competencies. A competency is a part of generic competence. It is a coherent cluster of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which can be utilized in real performance contexts" (p. 109).

In the monograph research, Isabek, Kabekenov, Myrzabek, and Kabylov (2015) analyze the theoretical model of professional competence developed by Jan van Eck that includes linguistic, sociolinguistic, discursive, strategic, social, and professional competence. While studying this...
problem, Burganova, Abdugalina, and Shaiheslyamova (2016) have also identified the core professional competence of specialists. They considered it as a combination of communicative, analytical, reflexive, motivational, personal, and social skills and abilities.

Under foreign language communicative competence Sergeeva (2014) understands: "the body of knowledge about native and foreign-language cultures and skills to understand and adequately use professional vocabulary speech, correctly apply knowledge about the culture of native speakers in professionally directed communication situations and the ability to participate effectively in professional intercultural interaction with foreign colleagues. It is a personal quality of the student, which is realized in receptive-productive foreign-language speech activity in the processes of verbal/non-verbal communication" (p. 253).

In the research, Fahrutdinova, Yarmakeev, and Fakhruddinov (2014) state that the levels of foreign language communicative competence correlated with the willingness of a student to use a foreign language for professional self-education.

From a communicative point of view, materials of mass media are efficient tools in facilitating English learning. Researchers (Becker, Vlad & Simpson, 2014; Guarda & Helm, 2017) prove the influence of foreign mass media on the development of professional English communicative competence of future journalists. They stress that this process will be more effective if the teachers use the whole range of printed, audio, audio-visual, and electronic media material. Media makes the journalism training innovative and informative, contributes to the development of media literacy (Batoš, Matić & Zakarija, 2010). In the modern scientific world, media education is a direction in pedagogy that studies mass media communication (press, television, radio, cinema, video, phones). The main goals of media education, according to Tyurina (2019) are: to prepare a new generation for life in a modern information society, to feel comfortable with modern media and to encourage its use in the academic environment, to perceive information from various sources, to understand the influence of mass media on person psychology, to master the ways of communication-based on nonverbal forms by technical means.

**Methodology**

In 2019 – 2020 years, we carry out the research that studied the levels of the development of professional English communicative competence at the Department of Journalism bases on the Faculty of Philology and Journalism at Ternopil Volodymyr Hnatiuk National Pedagogical University, Ukraine. We developed the technology to accomplish the research objectives. It improved the professional English communicative competence of future journalists and created a clear structure of vocational training. Methods, techniques, forms, and means made the foundation for its development.

Technology implementation using mass media as a learning tool consisted of three stages according to different types of mass media (newspapers, journals, audio, audio-visual, and electronic media materials): preparatory, training, and creative. In the first stage, students got more in-depth insight into journalism issues (at the "Introduction to Journalism" course). The training stage included practical activities by involving mass media materials based on problem-solving and active learning methods. The use of some interactive methods (project-based learning,
snowball, brainstorming, role play, hypothesis method, dialogues construction, freeze-frame, sound and image, place and frame, critical analysis) stimulated students' creative activity, self-education, and practical skills development. All these methods also increased students' motivation and had a connection with the future professional sphere. On the creative stage, students communicated in English (interviewing foreigners, oral and written communication via the Internet) and prepared their media products (newspaper articles, TV- and radio interviews, publishing a newspaper).

We paid particular attention to the methods, forms, and techniques of journalism education using mass media. We consider media text the most essential to develop professional English communicative competence. They act as a model of national culture and speech behavior, which are logical and complete statements in communication. (Deuze & Prenger, 2019). Media texts became sources of stylistic varieties of a language such as aphorisms, allusions, neologisms, dialecticism, and archaisms. Thus, students worked not only with educational and artistic texts but with the whole genre and stylistic palette of speech.

Foreign language Internet publications and blogs are other useful informative and communicative tools for boosting journalism education (Zhovnych, 2016; Mykhayilychenko, 2015). The effectiveness of the development of journalists' professional English communicative competence depends on the use of electronic periodicals and Internet resources, including a web-based portal PressReader. It gives its users access to the latest issues of more than 3000 newspapers and magazines, mainly in English. Students of the Faculty of Philology and Journalism improved English skills looking through the electronic versions of the British and American publishers: "The Times," "The Guardian," "The Daily Telegraph," "The New York Times," "The Washington Post," "Los Angeles Times," "Daily Mail," "Forbes," and others. Foreign language sources contributed to the formation of a high level of student's English communicative competence (to receive clear and complete information, to improve written and oral skills, and to understand a foreigner).

Participants
Fifty-seven students of the Faculty of Philology and Journalism (aged between 17–19 years old) of the 1st and 2nd year participated in the experiment. We divided them into control (29 students) and experimental (28 students) groups.

Instruments
The instrument for measuring the level of journalists' professional English communicative competence was testing, which consisted of four blocks. The first testing block determined students' level of professional English communicative competence after the motivation criterion based on Rean and Yakunin's test "Diagnostics of the students' learning motivation" (Badmaeva, 2004). In the second block, we used the "Assessment of performance toward proficiency in languages" for testing the language criterion developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The third block determined the professional criterion based on the "English for journalists" (Hicks, 2013). The last testing block evaluated the criterion of communication strategies and tactics based on Riakhovskyi's test "Assessment of the level of communicability" (Karelin, 2007).
Procedures
The research consisted of ascertaining and forming pedagogical experiments. Students of the experimental group went into media discourse. They analyzed the genre, thematic and compositional features of the English media products, identified the differences between English speaking and native means of mass media. Students got acquainted with journalistic terminology in English, socio-cultural, and sociolinguistic terms. Based on educational materials, they created communicative situations to solve tasks of their future professional activities (to interview somebody, to organize a press conference, a casting or an advertising campaign, write the reviews and articles on various topics, to shoot a film fragment, to record radio programs, to perform social network projects).

At the beginning and the end of the experiment, students passed tests for determining the levels of professional English communicative competence. Analyzing and processing data was under identical conditions using a unified methodology for diagnosing the level of professional English communicative competence.

Data Analysis
We consider mass media (printed, audio, audio-visual, and electronic) and their functions (informative, educational, development of cognitive interests, phraseological, monitoring) as means of a learning tool in the process of developing the professional English communicative competence. The use of mass media means influences on students' motivation, systematization, and extension of knowledge. It benefits the development of professional skills, memory, critical thinking, creative and communicative abilities, aesthetic perception, and analysis.

Based on the theoretical background (Batoš et al., 2010; Goodman & Steyn, 2017; Isabek et al., 2015; Tyurina, 2019), we determined motivation criterion, language criterion, professional criterion, and criterion of communicative strategies and tactics the most appropriate.

By the motivation criterion, we understand the need for English communication, possession of social attitudes, and value for further English learning. The language criterion includes understanding the texts of different styles, ability to determine the main topic and details, generalized received information, oral and written communication following English grammar, lexical, and spelling rules. Knowledge of the structure and features of professional dialogue, business correspondence, ability to select information from different sources necessary for solving practical problems, ability to construct own statements concerning facts, concepts, scientific concepts) belong to professional criterion. The criterion of communicative strategies and tactics determines the purpose of communication. It evaluates results and overcomes communicative failures.

Results
In the research, we use high, sufficient, average, and low indicators to determine the level of professional English communicative competence. The generalized data allowed us to divide students of the experimental groups according to the standards of their professional English communicative competence and compare them with the results of the control groups. Table One (data of ascertaining experiment) and Two (data of forming experiment) represent the overall data.
Table 1. Evaluation of levels of professional English communicative competence of future journalists in the ascertaining experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Ascertaining experiment</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>number of students</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>number of students</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>number of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>control</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C1 – motivation criterion  C3 – professional criterion
C2 – language criterion    C4 – criterion of communicative strategies and tactics

Table 2. Evaluation of levels of professional English communicative competence of future journalists in the forming experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Forming experiment</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>number of students</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>number of students</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>number of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>control</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>control</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C1 – motivation criterion  C3 – professional criterion
C2 – language criterion    C4 – criterion of communicative strategies and tactics

We can see positive dynamics in the results of the forming experiment in comparison with the ascertaining one. The experiment was successful due to the growth of high and sufficient levels and the reduction of average and low ones.

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Research showed that the results in the control groups are not sufficient and stayed almost at the same level. On the other hand, the results in the experimental groups had changed. The number of students with high and sufficient levels increased by 18% and 15% respectively. On the contrary, the number of students with average and low levels decreased by 17% and 13%. A comparative analysis reveals significant differences in the experimental and control groups based on four criteria. Figure One represents the average results.

![Figure 1. Dynamics of levels of journalists' professional English communicative competence](image)

To verify and confirm the effectiveness of the experimental work, the Student T-coefficient was applied and calculated by the formula:

$$Tst = \frac{D}{\sqrt{\frac{p1q1}{n1} + \frac{p2q2}{n2}}}$$

$D$ - the absolute value of the difference in % between number of students in experimental and control groups with high and sufficient levels; $p1, q1, n1$ - data of control group; $p2, q2, n2$ - data of experimental group; $p$ - number of students whose levels of professional English communicative competence are high and sufficient; $n$ - absolute value of respondents; $q$ - 100-p

$$Tst = \frac{D}{\sqrt{\frac{p1q1}{n1} + \frac{p2q2}{n2}}} = \frac{D}{\sqrt{\frac{p1(100 - p1)}{n1} + \frac{p2(100 - p2)}{n2}}}$$

We calculated the Student T-coefficient for each criterion separately. If $Tst>2$, we can talk about the effectiveness of the pedagogical experiment. Substituting the relevant data from Table One and Two, we got the following results.

1. $Tst1$, according to the data of motivation criterion:
2. Tst2, according to the data of language criterion:

\[
T_{st2} = \sqrt{\frac{22(100 - 22)}{29} + \frac{32(100 - 32)}{28}} = \sqrt{\frac{45}{133}} = \frac{45}{12} = 3.75
\]

3. Tst3, according to the data of professional criterion:

\[
T_{st3} = \sqrt{\frac{20(100 - 20)}{29} + \frac{28(100 - 28)}{28}} = \sqrt{\frac{31}{127}} = \frac{31}{11} = 3.75
\]

4. Tst4 based on the data of criterion of communicative strategies and tactics:

\[
T_{st4} = \sqrt{\frac{23(100 - 31)}{29} + \frac{31(100 - 31)}{28}} = \sqrt{\frac{31}{137}} = \frac{31}{12} = 2.58
\]

Besides, we determined the average relative quantitative index by the formula:

\[
P = \frac{T_{st1} + T_{st2} + T_{st3} + T_{st4}}{4}
\]

\[
P = \frac{2.18 + 3.75 + 2.81 + 2.58}{4} = 2.83
\]

The obtained results of the pedagogical experiment confirmed that \(P > 2\).

**Conclusions**

We consider mass media a valuable content-based foundation for developing professional English communicative competence to stimulate students' communicative activities. The research proved that using mass media materials as learning tools makes journalism education more flexible, dynamic, exciting, and productive. Specific features of printed (multidisciplinarity, multi problems, accessibility, material efficiency), audio-visual (multi-genre, high dynamic, presence effect, emotionality, and visibility), audio (free access to publications, the convenience of use, low cost), and electronic (interactivity, multimedia, virtual reality) materials allowed to enhance the English language training at the Department of Journalism to a new level.

The problem of using mass media in journalists' professional English communicative competence, subject matter specificity, and criteria for choosing media texts, forms, and training methods need further studies. Our research suggests solving this problem based on systematic, multidisciplinary, technological, and competency-based approaches. The interdisciplinary approach focuses on the correlation of all studied courses. The technological approach pays attention to the development of a methodology that involves the use of mass media. The competency-based approach focuses on students’ acquisition of competencies as a result of the study. The systematic approach addresses professional training as a unity of content, structure, and functions.
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The Poly Code Character of the English Learners’ Dictionaries

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Abstract
The paper deals with one of the most relevant questions of semiosis in English lexicography. The article studies the mechanism of double encoding a message (verbally and pictographically) to optimize the perception, processing, and storage of information by the user of the dictionary. The aim of the given research is to determine the features of an English poly code dictionary entry as a communicative phenomenon of educational lexicography. The study is based on five lexicographic sources, traditionally called the big five. The research material includes 1640 poly code entries. The article suggests a new interpretation of a poly code entry as a threefold unity of a lemma (the headword), a verbal definition, and a picture. These three constituents jointly name, interpret, and visualize the meaning of a dictionary entry. The article also analyzes the configuration of a poly code entry informational potential in terms of increasing/decreasing of the information presented by the iconic constituent in comparison with the verbal one. The research proves that the whole set of poly code dictionary entries reflects a particular view of the world characterized by absolute anthropocentricity and specific Anglo-Saxon bias. The results of the performed research are significant for English language teaching and learning as they prove that pictographic illustrations that accompany verbal explanations are not purely ornamental. They optimize the readers’ activity of searching, understanding, and memorizing the necessary information.

Keywords: learners’ dictionary, lexicographical entry, poly code communicative phenomenon

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Introduction
The modern world is in a state of constant dynamic development raising the problem of successful communication among individuals, communities, and ethnic groups. The rapid process of globalization makes the world more connected and more dependent. Integration processes in the field of economy and politics caused the expansion of intercultural and interlingual contacts. The role of the language of cross-cultural communication is exceptionally high, and the English language is considered the lingua franca of today (Crystal, 2003).

Learning a foreign language is unthinkable without using various informational resources: textbooks, reference books, encyclopedias, and first of all, dictionaries. The communicative specificity of a dictionary of any type consists in its sporadic usage – it is not a book intended for reading from beginning to end. Instead, the user/reader is assumed to refer to this resource to obtain some specific information, and this activity requires individual communicative skills. Pictographic illustrations that accompany verbal definitions optimize the process of searching, understanding, and memorizing the necessary information obtained from learners’ dictionaries (Sanchez, 2010). Language teachers cannot afford to ignore such dictionaries because the teacher who finds the right illustration at the right moment owns a powerful tool. Of course, dictionaries are intended primarily for students’ self-access, and it is up to the teacher to ensure that his students can use dictionary illustrations effectively. The full potential of using dictionary illustrations in the classroom has not been explored yet. Still, the latest dictionaries have come up with some novel ways of representing lexical meaning visually. More picture glosses exist now than ever before. It is up to teachers and learners to start using them and to spread the word about what to do with them (Sanchez, 2010).

Thus, the study of a poly code dictionary entry is of real scientific interest. The research has been performed in the context of communicative linguistics. It deals with one of the problems of semiosis in English lexicography. The article studies the mechanism of double encoding of the message (verbally and pictographically) to optimize the perception, processing, and storage of information by the user of the dictionary. The main aim of this study is to determine the features of the English poly code dictionary entry as a communicative phenomenon of educational lexicography. A poly code entry is a threefold unity of a lemma (the headword), a verbal definition, and an illustration. These three constituents jointly name, interpret, and visualize the meaning of a dictionary entry. The findings of the performed research are significant for English language teaching and learning as long as it proves that pictographic illustrations that accompany verbal explanations are not purely ornamental. They optimize the readers’ activity of searching, understanding, and memorizing the necessary information. The results of the study are used in the educational process at Odesa I.I. Mechnikov National University, in particular, courses on the theory of communication and lexicography.

Materials and Methods
The research bases on five lexicographic sources, traditionally called the big five (Svensen, 2009). They are Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (C), Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (L), Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary (CL), Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (O), and Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (M). To achieve the above-stated goal, the researchers have used general scientific methods, such as the process of observation of empirical material,
its analysis, and inductive generalization. Simultaneously, the use of the deductive method, and the general theory of semiosis, enabled tracing the processes of specification and increase of information in a poly code message in the format of a dictionary entry. Specific linguistic methods were manifested in the definitional analysis to highlight semantic bundles of verbal definition and further search for their equivalents in the pictogram. The obtained quantitative data and their qualitative interpretation revealed absolute anthropocentricity of the picture of the world reflected in the poly code entries of the dictionary. The application of the process of consecutive selection enabled singling out poly code dictionary entries, which contain a verbal definition of the head word-lemma and a pictographic (in the form of a picture or drawing) presentation of a nominated and interpreted referent. The resulting sample is 1640 poly code entries (see Table one).

Table 1. The number of poly code entries in the English learners’ dictionaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dictionary</th>
<th>Number of entries</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>30.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>25.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cl</td>
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<td>12.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1640</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most representative sources for poly code entries are the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary and Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.

Literature Review

In English language learning, all learners need to obtain a wide range of linguistic knowledge, excellent communicative skills, and extensive knowledge of English vocabulary. First and foremost, a well-developed understanding of terminology assists learners to comprehend, communicate, and be successful in language acquisition. Among the wide variety of ways in vocabulary learning, either intentional or incidental, the use of dictionaries in the learning process is a useful strategy and an effective tool in the students' hands which provides quick and direct access to mastering unknown words in particular, and the English vocabulary in general. No doubt, dictionaries serve as the most reliable sources of information about terms crucial for language learning (Koca, Pojani, & Jashari-Cicko, 2014). Dictionaries provide learners with useful linguistic and cultural knowledge, especially when teachers are unavailable, and students have to learn by themselves (Walz, 1990). As students sometimes cannot ask their teachers about certain aspects of the language they wish to learn, and as they lack correct models to follow, the EMD (English Monolingual Dictionary) can help. The EMD can, therefore, allow them to assume some degree of independence in learning the English language (Manan & Al-Zubaidi, 2011).

In the first half of the 20th century, linguists tried to develop practical approaches to language instruction, moving away from literary and classical models toward models based on current usage. The era of English learners’ dictionaries, which are in the focus of our attention, began in the middle of the twentieth century. The communicative specificity of learners’ dictionaries addresses an exact segment of the readers’ audience. These are non-native English speakers, studying English as a foreign language, living outside the range of its distribution, and, therefore, beyond situational context. This fact determines the content and the form of presenting
lexicographic material, aimed at expanding the readers’ vocabulary and familiarizing him/her with the culture of the English-speaking society. Béjoint (2010) remarks, that in addition to a focus on more frequent words and their more ordinary meanings, on common collocations and syntactic patterns, the big five also feature: simplified definitions; accentuated information about both spoken and written usage patterns; pronunciation information, given in the International Phonetic Alphabet; generous use of examples; and the front section explaining how to use the dictionary, particularly its encoding schemes. The big five dictionaries were studied regarding prototype theory applied to definitions in the English learners’ dictionaries, focusing on analyzing the microstructures employed for sense differentiation and ordering (Jiang & Chen, 2017).

As for the study of pictographic elements in English learners’ dictionaries, Stein (1991) remarks that dictionary illustrations and their relationship to the definition are fascinating topics that, for a long time, had been ignored in lexicographic studies. There have appeared several studies dedicated to this problem (see, for example, Hartmann, 1992). Kłosa (2015) defines the lexicographic illustration as “A particular kind of image which is used in conjunction with a text and which decorates, illustrates, or explains the text” (p. 516). Lew, Kaźmierczak, Tomczak, & Leszkowicz (2018) comment on this definition and remark that of the three verbs featuring in this definition, *decorating* – an aesthetic function – is of secondary importance in a dictionary viewed as a chiefly utilitarian object (though decoration may be of value insofar as it contributes to the *symbolic* role of some dictionaries). Saying that an illustration *illustrates* is uselessly tautological. Thus, it is the third verb, *explaining* the text, which seems to express the central function of lexicographic image (Lew et al., 2018). However, these studies are focused either on the general correlation between the definition and the picture, as seen from the following quotation: “At best, there is a complementary relationship between the definition of a headword and the illustration, so that the whole meaning can be ascertained from the definition and the illustration, with the illustration completing the text and vice versa” (Kłosa 2015, p. 516), or they are focused on how verbal and pictorial elements within an entry compete for dictionary users’ attention, and how this competition affects meaning-extraction and retention (Lew et al., 2018). The present research analyzes the configuration of a poly code entry informational potential, the reasons for increasing/decreasing of the information presented by the iconic constituent in comparison with the verbal one.

**Results and Discussion**

**Non-verbal Communication Means in the English Learners’ Dictionaries**

Lexicographers note that every dictionary user faces three problems: how to find the right information, how to understand it (comprehend), and how to apply it (Tarp, 2010). Nonverbal means of communication help in solving the first two problems. Two semiotically different types of paragraphic standards are used in the learners’ dictionaries. These are printed and depictive non-verbal means. Printed non-verbal communication means are a compulsory component of an entry in any explanatory dictionary. These means include font, background and font color, icons, and symbols (*arrows, triangles, rulers, frames, boxes*). They mark different quanta of information in the entry, such as allocating the title word, individual seses of polysemic terms, their interpretations and linguistic examples, the zone of cultural information referents, etc. Printed non-verbal means help the user find the required package of information in the proposed lexicographic entry. Depictive non-verbal means of communication are an optional component of a dictionary.
entry. They include abstract-logical and pictographic ones. The first group contains charts, tables, histograms, formulas, drawings. They present information on some abstract relationships and logical relations among nominated objects. Thus they are mainly recorded in specialized and terminological dictionaries. Pictographic means offer images of a designated object or situation. Pictographic non-verbal elements include various types: a figure, a photograph, a diagram. Figures are the most popular non-verbal elements used in dictionaries. Besides the fact that they quickly interpret the meanings of the defined words, they contextualize the lemma, i.e., present a sketch in which the definition of the word becomes understandable. The user effortlessly recognizes the situation implied. Photos are not used in dictionaries as often as pictures. The problem is that photography is always individual. Landau comments on this tendency: “Whatever a photograph depicts, a zebra, a goose or a medieval church, it is always an image of a particular referent. While a drawing can combine the features of many individual referents, creating a distillation of typical elements” (Landau, 2001, p. 145). This is necessary for explaining the meaning of a word in a lexicographic entry which is always based on generalization. The word meaning is a reflection of general, constant, and stable hidden in various phenomena. The picture is more informative than the photo because it depicts details more clearly, while the background – in a more generalized way, without unnecessary information. An illustrative component of a poly code entry in the form of a diagram is relatively widespread in dictionaries. It can clarify verbally presented information and make it much more understandable.

The iconic nature of such communicative means helps to present: (a) the appearance of the referent, (b) its functional purpose, (c) its location in space, and (d) its position among other objects of the class. In other words, pictographic illustration helps comprehend the information encoded verbally in the lexicographic entry. Thus, the picture is often a more straightforward and time-saving way of explaining to a non-speaker an unknown word than its purely verbal definition. In the given work, the primary attention focuses on combining verbal explanation and pictographic presentation of the referent in the lexicographic entry. The latter is a poly code text. In a poly code lexicographic entry, a bunch of semantic components (semes) is explained semiotically twofold: through a verbal definition (through language signs), and through pictorial presentation (through iconic symbols). The two codes work in unison.

The verbal definition bears specific relationships with the pictographic presentation in the framework of a poly code text. The pictogram can: (a) duplicate a set of definitions, (b) transform them, (c) add new features, (d) establish paradigmatic relationships with other entries in the dictionary. Within the framework of the dictionary macrostructure a poly code entry is almost always an asymmetric phenomenon. It does not refer to the whole entry as a structural unit of the dictionary but to one seme (out of several) and the icon whose meaning it illustrates. On the other hand, asymmetry also indicates that the image often represents a more significant number of referents than mentioned in the verbal definition of the corresponding seme, adding the so-called information expanders.

The Informational Potential of a Poly Code Dictionary Entry
One of the tasks of the given research is to determine the amount of information potential of a poly code dictionary entry in a learners’ dictionary. In other words, the research answers the question: what happens to the information contained in the verbal part of the entry with a Poly Code Character of the English

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pictographic component? In such cases, the pictorial aspect of the entry focuses exclusively on the lexical semantics of the word. Information on its grammatical semantics, phonetic form, and style attribution remains the prerogative of the verbal component of a poly code entry and is not subject to visualization.

Having studied the amount of information potential of a poly code entry, we conclude that in some cases, there is an information balance between the definition and the icon (each definitional feature is pictographic). Still, in the vast majority of cases, such compensation is violated at the expense of loss or, conversely, an increase of quanta of information in the icon.

In terms of lexical semantics, several options are possible for altering the relevant information in the pictographic accompaniment of the verbal component: duplication of data using another (iconic) sign code; inconsistency of pictographic information with its source; reduction of information potential in the pictogram in comparison with the explanation; specification of verbally stated information of an abstract nature; increase in information potential.

Duplication of verbally expressed information using a different (namely pictographic) code is not very frequent. In this case, all the definitional features are reflected in the figure or diagram. The reflection may be realistic or schematic. The first option is observed, for example, in the poly code entry viaduct [a long high bridge, usually held up by many arches, which carries a railway or a road over a valley]. The single-object pictogram offers a drawing of just the same structure - a high and long bridge with numerous arches, thrown from one slope of the valley to another, a train travels across the bridge. The visual medium reflects quite a few cultural stereotypes. For example, an entry in the dictionary (M) interprets the meaning of the lemma answer somebody back [to reply too rudely somebody who has more authority]. The sense of snapping in a conversation with a more authoritative interlocutor is outlined in the form of a drawing in which a little boy with a furious expression on his face shouts to a frowning adult. The child’s violation of norms of behavior is reflected by the boy's facial expression and his cry (the word NO is given in caps in a cloud). This is a pictographic presentation of one of the definitional features: reply rudely. The other definitional feature: to somebody who has more authority is embodied in the figure of an adult, i.e., a more authoritative interlocutor. English-speaking, mainly British, culture disapproves of such children's behavior. The definition of the lemma contains no information about the age of the participants in the reference situation. The picture presents this quantum of information, which activates a specific behavioral pattern in the readers’ memory (children should not be bold to adults). Violation of this behavior stereotype makes the meaning of the expression to answer somebody back visual and memorable.

Sometimes the informational potential of two components of a poly code entry – a verbal and a pictographic one – is not entirely adequate to each other. One of such cases is the inconsistency of pictographic information with its correlate. In this case, the image of the referent is inaccurate, sometimes even erroneous. It can lack certain definitional features mentioned in the explanation. For example, in the dictionary (L), the lemma bundle has the following set of attributes [(a) a group of (b) things such as papers, clothes, or sticks that (c)
are fastened/tied together]. Of the three features: (a) group, (b) things, and (c) fastened/tied together, the pictogram offers only the first two, depicting in the pictogram the washed laundry dumped in the laundry basket, the tag under this figure reads: a bundle of washing. The information expanders on the icon are a bunch of letters (a heap of letters), stacks of CDs and books, a bouquet, and a bundle of banknotes (a wad of money). Thus, the associated attribute, (c) fastened or tied together in the illustration to the heading word (the lemma) bundle has no explication.

Such incidents in the presentation of information using a pictographic code happen because of the difficulties in preparing and editing lexicographic publications. However, there are systemic reasons for violating the informational correspondence of the two components in polycode entries. They lead to a decrease in the information potential in the pictogram compared to the verbal part of the entry. The main systemic reason for such a reduction is the limitations of the pictographic code as such. They lead to the loss of quanta of information included in the definition of sound, color (there are frequently no polychrome colors, only black and white), dynamics, cognitive activity, and others.

For example, in the Cambridge dictionary, the sound imitating lemma smash is defined: [to cause smth to break noisily into many small pieces]. The single-object pictogram depicts a plate breaking into many small fragments. The reader learns about the loud noise accompanying the action solely from the definition. The Longman dictionary in the rose entry verbally mentions the smell that the rose is famous for [a flower that often has a pleasant smell, and is usually red, pink, or yellow]. There are no pictographic ways to convey the definitional attribute of a pleasant aroma. Besides, there are limitations in representing the qualities red, pink, or yellow in a monochrome picture.

Sensory information about the taste characteristics of objects can be verbally transmitted using adjectives sweet, bitter, sour, etc. However, even in entries about food, i.e., different dishes, pastries, etc. dictionaries do not include such information in the definition, despite its crucial importance for grasping the essence of the nominated referent. Dictionary definitions list more or less detailed sets of ingredients that make up a dish, indicate how to cook it (cooked, baked, raw), and sometimes mention the origin of the meal (Japanese, Mexican). But the reader can only guess about the dish taste grounding his guess exclusively on his/her knowledge of the taste of the ingredients. For example, jam, cream, fruit, mentioned as the filling of Swiss roll, a layer cake, and sometimes a pie hint that the pastry should be sweet. At the same time, quiche, nachos, etc., should taste like cheese, vegetables, and meat (as long as their ingredients are cheese, vegetables, beans, meat). The pictographic component of such entries does not help the dictionary user to master this sensory information about the referents. The organoleptic characteristics of objects remain opaque for symbolic designation, either through verbal or pictographic codes.

Still, another example of pictorial encoding limitations is the definition of lemma dream: [an imaginary series of events that you experience in your mind while you are asleep]. The dictionary (CL) makes the corresponding entry a poly code one, supplying the verbal part with a pictographic part – a photograph of a person sleeping in bed. The only feature of the definition,
which undergoes pictographic illustration, is you are asleep. In contrast, the main definitional feature imaginary events experienced in the mind (during sleep) remains exclusively in a verbal presentation. The photo of a sleeping person in the entry dream does not differ from the picture in the entry of sleep; they could be interchanged easily. The limitations of the pictographic code in presenting mental referents are very significant.

The correlation between the informational potential of the verbal and pictographic parts of a poly code entry interpreting a lemma with generalized or abstract semantics is rather peculiar. An icon inevitably transforms such an information package into something concrete, into a particular embodiment of a widespread situation. Such transformations present the specification of information. This transformation takes place with the lemmas, which verbalize the concepts of a superordinate level of categorization. For example, the poly code entry predator in (L) explains the meaning of the word predator and refers to the thematically related word prey [an animal that kills and eats other animals > prey]. However, in nature, there simply does not exist a predator as such or just prey. Therefore, the pictogram of this entry steps down to the ordinate level and shows an eagle overtaking a fleeing hare. Visualization of the idea of a predator and a victim using prototypical examples (without naming them, mind you) contributes to a holistic perception of the whole situation with a specific set of typical participants.

The imbalance of information potential in a poly code entry most often manifests in an increase in the amount of information in its pictographic part. Icon adds information: a) to the referent, nominated by the lemma, b) about other referents associated with it by various relationships, and included in the icon as the informational expanders.

Information quanta, which are essential for the defined concept, are sometimes moved exclusively to the pictographic part of the poly code entry, unloading the verbal definition. They make it concise, yet preserving the informational potential of the whole entry. Considerable increases in the information potential of a poly code entry can be found in the learners' dictionaries. The orchestra lemma is defined as follows: [a large group of musicians using many different instruments to play mostly classical music. The person in charge of an orchestra is its conductor]. The pictographic component of this entry encodes additional quanta of information by iconic means: 1) the layout of the musicians in the orchestra; 2) grouping of instruments on the wind, string, percussion, etc.; 3) an image of the instruments included in these groups, and their place within the group; 4) the position of the conductor in front of the orchestra. Each quantum of pictographically transmitted information has a signature-tag (brass, string, percussion, etc., first violin, second violin, violas, cellos, etc.). Of all the features indicated in the definition, two are lost: musicians (there are no images of musicians in the diagram) and play mostly classical music (the musical style of the works performed cannot be pictographically expressed). Simultaneously, the pictogram expands and specifies the feature of many musical instruments (17 images of instruments and their names) and adds completely missing features mentioned above as information quanta 1-4. The poly code entry orchestra as a single communicative entity has a vibrant informational potential, transmitted to the reader through various channels optimizing its consumption. Considerable increases in the information volume of a poly code entry are often due to the associative relations among words. For example, the
Macmillan dictionary includes the poly code entry *organ*, explaining the meaning of the lemma *a part of your body that does a specific job, such as your heart or brain*, and illustrating it in the anatomic diagram of the internal organs. The pictogram has 18 information expanders: brain, heart, lung, stomach, kidney, etc.

So far as the learners’ dictionaries address the youth readership primarily, their educational orientation is also reflected in the analyzed entries. Dictionary (L) offers the entry *bedroom* *a room for sleeping in* and an illustration of it in the form of a picture, which, undoubtedly, depicts a youth, most likely a student bedroom. We register about two dozen information expanders there: these are interior items and computer, audio, and video equipment that directly characterizes the age and social status of the owner of the room (bookshelf, poster, stereo, computer, video recorder, scanner, printer, games console, etc.).

To control the cognitive activity of the readers’ decoding the iconic message, the illustrator uses arrows, which focus his/her visual perception, indicating that something in the picture deserves especial attention. As it is, for example, in the icon to the *trunk* lemma depicting an elephant, the arrow specifies where one can see the *trunk*. This phenomenon is widespread in educational dictionaries and is absent from the encyclopedias (which also manifest iconic components to some lemmas).

**Conclusion**

The main aim of this study was to determine the features of the English poly code dictionary entry as a communicative phenomenon of educational lexicography. A *poly code entry* is a unity of a lemma, a verbal definition, and an illustration. These three constituents name, interpret and visualize the meaning of a dictionary entry. The results of the research are significant for English language teaching and learning. Using pictographic illustrations in the learning process optimizes the readers’ activity of searching, understanding, and memorizing the necessary information.

Two semiotically different types of paragraphic means are used in the *explanatory* dictionaries. These are printed and depictive non-verbal means. As for the informational potential of a poly code entry, in some cases, there is an information balance between the definition and the icon (each definitional feature is pictographic). Still, in the vast majority of cases, such compensation violates at the expense of loss or, conversely, an increase of quanta of information in the icon. Pictographic illustrations that accompany a verbal explanation optimize the process of searching, understanding, and memorizing the necessary information.

Learners’ dictionaries reproduce the specific picture of the world as universal phenomena are illustrated with the realia of the Anglo-Saxon civilization. The depicted reality appeals to the youth audience. For example, the definition of the concert is accompanied by a picture of the rock concert, the entry of the bedroom is illustrated by the image of the room, whose inhabitant is obviously young and probably studies at a college or university. Summarizing the results of the study, we conclude that the poly code dictionary is a useful information resource for learning English as a foreign language and for familiarizing with the cultural context of the English-speaking society.
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References


A Comparative Analysis of English and Chinese Reading: Phonetics, Vocabulary and Grammar

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Abstract
The article covers the issues related to the development of reading skills of the students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages). In the backdrop of linguistic differences between English and Chinese, this action research was conducted to investigate the components of the reading skills, which are to be developed within the Bachelor programs. The primary purpose of the article is to analyze the methodological background for teaching Ukrainian students to perceive information from authentic texts. The methods of induction and deduction enabled us to analyze and generalize the theoretical bases for the investigated topic, to systemize the results of the study (the reading tactics and strategies, classification of reading activities). The study was based on focused observation using the register as a tool for data collecting for two semesters each in three groups of third-year students at Ushynsky University. The total sample size was 54. The article presents an analysis of difficulties in reading English and Chinese texts: 1) phonological level – differences in sound pronunciation (English: /T/, /D/ /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.; Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants j, q, x; affricates zh, z; consonant r, etc.), the phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plision, lateral plision, loss of plision, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tone, erization); 2) lexical level – conversion (in English) and transposition (in Chinese), homonymy, polysemy; 3) grammatical level – the division of lexicon into parts of speech, different word order in English and Chinese sentences, (non)segmentation of English and Chinese syntagms/clauses/compound sentences, use of tenses, etc. The article contains some recommendations for English and Chinese reading classrooms.

Keywords: Chinese, English, reading skills, reading tactics and strategies, teaching tools

Introduction
Teaching mastery and innovations in the world educational systems are the vectors of the
development and integration of the modern academic society, which is, to a great extent, oriented
towards international activities in different spheres like socio-political, industrial, economic,
cultural, educational and scientific. Collaboration across countries is subjecting our society to
certain transformations into a harmonious “existence” within today's world space. That is why the
pedagogical component plays a prominent role in training future specialists who can communicate
constructively in social and professional areas using a foreign language.

A rapid flow of information, which is continually being renewed, makes it necessary to adapt
to modern changing requirements and contents of the professional field. It should be noted that
most information support is given in English (an international language). In contrast, the world
areas of technology, industry, and economy are connected with the Chinese language since they
are highly developed in the People’s Republic of China, and their products are disseminated
worldwide. On the other hand, a new generation of higher school students, who are “technically
intelligent”, quickly find and scan the information they need. A foreign language, being a bridge
between interlocutors, functions as an instrument for obtaining and exchanging information, which
seems to be impossible without reading skills and abilities. Reading skills alongside writing,
speaking/interacting, and listening skills constitute the communicative competence, which
enables interaction in all formats. To develop and master the mentioned competence and to
facilitate students’ language acquisitions in compliance with modern demands, we are to recognize
the fact that we deal with linguistic signs – unities of two dimensions: semantic and acoustic
images. They are perceived visually in the form of symbols and figures in writing, which are to be
deciphered consciously. Therefore, the related useful methodological background should be used,
especially reading tactics, strategies, and teaching tools aimed at developing reading skills.

The issue of language learning has been under the focus of many scholars (West, 1955;
Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Davies, 1995; Nuttall, 1996; Graesser, McNamara & Louwerse, 2003;
Mirolyubov, 2003; Nikolayeva, 2004; Perfetti, 2007; Srisunakrua & Chumworatayee, 2019;
Bilonozhko & Syzenko, 2020 and others) for almost two centuries. Alderson, Bilonozhko,
Chumworatayee, Davies, Graesser, Louwerse, McNamara, Mirolyubov, Nikolayeva, Nuttall,
Perfetti, Srisunakrua, Syzenkohave Urquhart, West, and others have studied the essence of reading
as a speech activity and developed teaching techniques on its better mastering. M. West (1955)
correlates reading with “getting ideas from a printed text, not making noise” (p. 26). The author
gives a psychological explanation for reading and puts forward the following provisions:

1. Students can master reading separately from speaking, in any case, not based on speaking.
2. Reading is a more accessible activity than speaking.
3. Reading at any proficiency level is of practical value, and hence the associated feeling of
   success increases students’ interest in a foreign language.
4. Reading is the primary way of engaging non-native speakers in the culture of native
   speakers.

Michael West views reading as a goal and a means of learning because, in his opinion, reading
creates possibilities for a significant increase in language practice in the process of mastering a
foreign language and establishing direct links between the concept and the word. That is the reason why it is advisable to start learning a foreign language with reading (West, 1955). Mirolyubov (2003) supports M. West’s method “read then say” in different modes: teacher–student(s), student–student(s). The educator recognized the ties between a book and brain, which enable reproducing speech in compliance with the content of a book (a text), its further rephrasing and producing. Nikolayeva (2004) associates reading with the process of audio decoding of “content-loaded” graphic characters, which constitute words, phrases, and sentences. Pentyliuk (2003) agrees with the proposed definition, emphasizes the vital role of reading in the formation of speech skills and specifies the essence of reading: “it consists in the decoding of graphic symbols, that is, the translation of a letter code into a mental image, which is implemented in outer or inner speech” (p. 143). We might assume that the content-related aspect of reading presupposes the understanding of information by the reader through decoding graphic characters and semantic links of the text.

The features of the reading given above prove its significance in learning foreign languages; however, the differences in linguistic characteristics of foreign languages that are studied simultaneously are not considered. It should be mentioned that in the framework of the recent studies initiated by the Council of Europe, the concept of plurilingualism has grown in importance in language learning. The members of the Council of Europe (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001) are convinced that plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of several languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. Plurilingualism enables a person to “build up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contribute and in which languages interrelate and interact” (pp. 4–5). In Anderson’s (Anderson, 2010) opinion, “the nature of what we read must have some relation to how we read, then text analysis must be relevant to theories of reading and to research into reading” (p. 1). Following the suggested viewpoint, we strive for a person to call flexibly upon different parts of the designated competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor in different situations.

Therefore, the purpose of this article is to analyze efficient teaching tools aimed at developing reading skills of the students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages) while using texts belonging to different functional styles. Correspondingly, we intend to review the pedagogical standpoints on reading tactics and strategies in the framework of particular reading activities. Then, we find it feasible to explore the characteristics of reading skills to be developed within the Bachelor programs and profession-oriented assignments alongside the teaching tools upon their development. We present some difficulties in reading/decoding English and Chinese and give solutions to how to overcome pedagogical implications.

**Literature Review**

There exist different classifications of reading activities. In compliance with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001), a reader obtains and processes written texts created by one or more authors, which explains the diversity of text composition, linguistic and extralinguistic content, functional orientation, etc. We can assume that the language user reads: 1) for gist; 2) for specific information; 3) for detailed understanding; 4) for implications, etc.
Therefore, they propose these reading types: 1) overall reading comprehension; 2) reading correspondence; 3) reading for orientation; 4) reading for information and argument; 5) reading instructions.

Taking the proposed types of reading into consideration, the reader is supposed to obtain the skills as follows: to perceive the written text (visual skills); to recognize the script (orthographic skills); to identify the verbal message (linguistic skills); to understand the verbal message (semantic skills); to interpret the verbal message (cognitive skills). We can take these skills as the basic ones for teaching English and Chinese reading, transforming the reading strategies and tactics as well as teaching tools in a due direction.

The analysis of literature demonstrates a vast classification spectrum of reading types. Thus, Barnett (1988) indicates that reading types involve: skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ones.

The Merriam-Webster’s Thesaurus (Merriam-Webster’s Thesaurus, 1828) gives a series of words related to reading: browsing, dipping (into), leafing (through), scanning, skimming, speed-reading, thumbing (through), turning over, devouring, gobbling (up), etc.

Brown (1994) suggested several types of reading for a language classroom according to the criteria “oral” and “silent”: A. Oral; B. Silent (I. Intensive: a) linguistic, b) content-centered; II. Extensive: a) skimming, b) scanning, c) global). The category of silent reading comprises intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading (or narrow reading) is needed to develop and practice specific reading skills or strategies. Extensive reading involves the reading of large amounts of material and includes reading for pleasure, or reading technical, scientific, or profession-oriented articles. The latter type of extensive reading is considered more academic, and it may involve two specific types of reading – scanning for key details or skimming for the essential meaning. After scanning or skimming, a reader is likely to get a global (or general) sense. Skimming is associated with rapid-survey reading, scanning – with search reading.

Long and Richards (1987) called intensive reading a “detailed in-class” analysis, led by the teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points, in a short passage. Palmer (as cited in Khadidja, 2017, p. 58) in Britain and West in India initiated the theory of extensive reading as an approach to foreign language teaching and reading, in particular. It is believed that both intensive and extensive reading can be practiced in the same class for collective discussions of the topic and developing other skills, for example, writing an outline, a review, an essay, etc.

Bilonozhko and Syzenko (2020) correlate the effectiveness of reading (in second language learning) with text comprehension. Srisunakrua and Chumworatayee (2019) highlight that two linguistic characteristics, syntactic simplicity, and verb cohesion, are to be taken into account for better text comprehension.

Transforming the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and the results of literature analysis into the framework of our research, we confirm the Ukrainian scholars’
The mode of overall reading comprehension is the most widespread in all spheres of life. It is based on authentic texts that contain information on the ethnic socio-cultural aspects of the language non-native speakers learn. The reading to oneself (or silent reading) is characterized by a high rate of familiarization with the whole text, by an accurate and detailed understanding of the main content. The purpose of the comprehensive reading is to achieve the most complete and accurate understanding of text information and to make critical digestion of this information (thoughtful reading). This mode involves purposeful content analysis based on complex linguistic phenomena and logical links, accompanied by a large number of regressions to gain the most accurate understanding. The purpose of the selective reading is to develop the ability to quickly review printed material (newspapers, magazine articles, various programs, reference books, and other pragmatically relevant material), to find specific information, concentrate on it for a complete/basic understanding of the content depending on the communicative tasks. The designated reading mode requires the skills you need to navigate the logical structure of the text, to identify and select new or specified information, and to integrate the information obtained from different sources into a coherent whole according to a specific problem.

The results received allowed us to compare the components of the perception process while reading authentic English and Chinese texts (see Table 1). As it is marked in Table 1, enormous implications arise when deciphering hieroglyphs (similar in writing) and desegmenting Chinese clauses/sentences.

Thus, linguistic differences between English and Chinese as second/third languages should be studied and considered when elaborating on methodological platforms for their efficient teaching/learning. It is desirable that teachers of English and Chinese should take into consideration the development of corresponding skills and the proper use of aids to make their teaching methods effective (see Table 1, Appendix A).

**Research Methodology and Design**

Based on the premise that English and Chinese are non-related languages and their linguistic differences stipulate different approaches to teaching/learning them since there is no one-for-one correspondence between their phonological systems (differences in the pronunciation of particular sounds due to some phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tone, erization), lexical features (alphabetic and non-alphabetic writing, conversion and transposition), grammatical characteristics (word order, (non)division into parts of speech, (non)segmentation of English and Chinese syntagms/clauses/compound sentences, use of tenses, etc.); this action research was initiated.

The methods of induction and deduction enabled us to analyze and generalize the theoretical bases on the investigated topic, to systemize the results of the study (the reading tactics and strategies, classification of reading activities). The study was based on focused observation using the register as a tool for data collecting for two semesters each in one (1) group of the third-year
students majoring in Chinese Translation Studies (15 students), one (1) group of the third-year students minoring in Chinese Translation Studies (15 students), and two (2) groups of the third-year students majoring in Chinese Language and Literature (24 students) at the State institution “South Ukrainian National Pedagogical University named after K. D. Ushynsky” in the period of 2018–2019 (academic year). The total sample size was 54.

To see students’ educational outcomes while reading English and Chinese texts, we employed the method of observation in view of the research insights as follows: As Basit (2010) has argued, “Observing the behavior of others is a natural phenomenon” (p. 118). Edgar and Manz (2017) regard observational methods as a broad category of research that cover the inductive observation of phenomena; they are used to understand the outcomes of experiments better. Portell, Anguera, Chacón-Moscoso, Sanduvete-Chaves (2015) consider that observational methods help establish a link between the expected outcomes and the specific measures that will be obtained with the observational study, which will contribute to the processing of the data under analysis. Observation allows the researchers to actually see what people do rather than what they say they do (Caldwell & Atwal, 2005; Mulhall, 2003; Walshe et al., 2012). Therefore, in this experimental study, we adopted a simple observation method to collect data. The students’ academic outcomes were documented in a register throughout this study. The students were taught how to comprehensively read Chinese and English texts belonging to different functional styles (both silent reading and reading aloud). In practical classes, they demonstrated their achievements and failures. Based on the observed results, the authors propose some remedial measures (recommendations) to overcome the frequently encountered linguistic problems.

In the following sections, linguistic differences between English and Chinese, which cause difficulty in reading authentic texts, are presented; some reading tactics and strategies, as well as educational assignments, are discussed.

Linguistic Differences between English and Chinese
It is known that English and Chinese are non-related languages. Therefore, there exist many differences at all linguistic levels: phonetic/phonological, lexical, and grammatical. The orthography of Chinese linguistics has its specificity in teaching students to read non-alphabetic phonemes.

A. Phonetic/phonological level
Germanic and Slavonic models of word reading are based on alphabetic writing. In contrast, a single Chinese character can function as a word and join with other characters to form a multicharacter word. Chinese characters, in their turn, can consist of radicals (smaller units/components) that have their pronunciation and meaning, like in the example. The character 物 (wù) meaning “thing” contains a radical 牛 (niú / “a cow,” “an ox”) on the left and the radical 勿(wù / “must not,” “do not”) on the right (it has two semantic components). A semantic radical suggests some aspect of the overall meaning. This phenomenon is widespread in Chinese. Regarding our example, the Chinese think that an ox can be called a thing.
On the contrary, in English, all morphemes are readable (like in Ukrainian and Russian). Ukrainians who learn Chinese as their second language encounter difficulty in identifying semantic radicals and the general meaning of characters when dealing with Chinese compound characters.

As for the English language, the phonetic pronunciation of morphemes/words has formed historically; pronunciation quality and quantity of some letter combinations differ from their letter components taken separately. For example, (s/t)ion is pronounced [(S)(q)n] (demonstration), ture [Cq] (picture), etc. Therefore, Ukrainian learners make phonetic errors, when articulating the words, which do not obey the general phonetic rules.

Other reasons why it is difficult for Ukrainians to pronounce words correctly are connected with the peculiarities of the English and Chinese sound systems and phonetic phenomena.

1. The sounds that differ in their articulation/pronunciation or do not exist in the system of Ukrainian phonetics. For example:
   - English: /T/, /D/ /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.;
   - Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants j, q, x; affricates zh, z; consonant r, etc.

   We agree upon Thakur’s (2020) assumption that “if one wants to talk naturally and effectively, he/she should learn to recognize and avoid phonological errors” (p. 32). No doubt, if one’s pronunciation is defective, the listener will not listen to her/his ideas, and careless pronunciation will annoy or amuse the listeners (Thakur, 2020).

2. These phonetic phenomena are not typical of the Ukrainian language (but for assimilation, reduction/elision, accommodation):
   - nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, accommodation, etc. (in English);

   Let us observe some examples:
   - English – feet [J] and fit [I], place [s] and plays [z]; mat [x] and met [e];
   - Chinese – 水 (shuí / water) and 誰 (shuí / who);

   八 (bā / eight), 拔 (bá / pull out), 疤 (bā / a scar), 罢 (bà / to stop, cease, dismiss someone).

   Mispronunciation of English and Chinese words can lead to phonological misbalance. Ukrainian students are apt to make these phonological mistakes: they neglect nasal plosion (didn’t, downtrodden), lateral plosion (should learn), loss of plosion (would defend), assimilation (at the corner) at the suprasegmental level. Learners pronounce “phonetically transformed” English sounds as their alphabetic invariants (allophones) – /dId(q)n(q)t/, /SVdWn/, /wVdDfend/, /etDq/.

   When dealing with Chinese reading, Ukrainian learners are prone to cross-linguistic interference. They read Chinese words that undergo erization in the English manner (塔尖儿...
/tǎjiān(r) – they pronounce the suffix “儿/r” like the English sound /r/), or they may over-aspirate Chinese non-aspirate consonants /d/, /g/, /b/, or disregard the rules of 变调 (biàndiào) – tonal modification/modified tones (e.g., 展览馆/zhǎnlǎnguǎn is to be pronounced zhánlángguǎn, the third tone in the first two phonemes is transformed into the second one). The described errors break the phonetic harmony at the suprasegmental level, within the speech continuum.

3. Stress, rhythm, and intonation

We can also observe many phonetic deviations when it concerns stress, rhythm, and intonation in the speech of Ukrainian students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) and Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). It should be mentioned that children at the age of five, on average, start learning English in Ukrainian. They are familiar with the English intonation contour to a certain degree. As for the Chinese intonation, it differs from the English one due to the tonality of the Chinese language. Therefore, Ukrainian learners tend to transfer the English patterns into the Chinese models and keep to descending or stepping heads followed by the Low-Fall when uttering affirmative sentences and special questions, or pronounce general questions adopting ascending heads followed by the Fall Rise. They are observed not to stress (to pronounce with the neutral tone) some final components of multicharacter hieroglyphs, or to violate the rules of tonal modification, which disturbs the rhythm of the Chinese language.

Thus, we may assume that phonetic-phonological level functions as a potential starting mechanism for further decoding of authentic texts.

B. Lexical level

One of the most specific features in the Chinese lexicology is the ability of words representing different classes of words to subdue to conversion (transposition), in other words – to belong to the classes of nouns and verbs simultaneously, for example, the word “跑/pǎo” (to run) can be translated like “a run” or “running,” “旅行/lǚxíng” – “to travel” (a verb) and “a travel” (a noun), “光/guāng” – “light” (a noun, an adjective, an adverb), “骄傲/jiāo'ào” – “pride” (a noun) and “proud” (an adjective), “谦虚/qiānxū” – “modest” (an adjective) and “modesty” (a noun), etc. In English, this phenomenon is not so widespread as in Chinese: “to warm” (a verb) and “warm” (an adjective), “to turn” (a verb) and “a turn” (a noun), “to drive” (a verb) and “a drive” (a noun), etc. We can hardly encounter this phenomenon in Ukrainian (or Russian).

Another factor that might affect the comprehensive understanding of authentic texts is connected with homonymy and polysemy of the English and Chinese words. Ukrainian learners fail to determine spheres of their use. Study the examples below.

The term “仪表板/yíbiǎobǎn” in electronics engineering means “a switchboard,” and in the telecommunications industry, it means “a control board.” The word “学/xué” has three interconnected meanings: 学技术/xué jìshù (to study: to study technique), 孩子学大人的样子
Furthermore, some hieroglyphs are hard to identify since there are many Chinese characters that look alike. For example, 成/chéng (to be a success), 戊/wù (the fifth), 戍/shù (border guard service), 戎/róng (weapon), 戌/xū (the eleventh terrestrial branch). This makes students fail to define (or guess) their meaning by the context. We recommend that Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners should be trained in reading (mini)texts, which contain similar hieroglyphs.

Polysemy is widespread in the English language throughout diverse spheres: to dress – to bandage a wound (medical terminology); to dress – to prepare the earth for sowing (terminology of agriculture); to dress – to decorate with flags (naval terminology). The word “right” has several homonymous representations: morally good, justified, or acceptable (an adjective; I hope we’re doing the right thing); a moral or legal entitlement to have or do something (a noun; She had every right to undertake those measures); to restore to a standard or correct state (a verb; Righting the economy demanded significant cuts in defense spending), etc.

It is significant to differentiate lexicon in compliance with the branch they belong to.

C. Grammatical level

Morphology

It is believed that words in Chinese in most cases do not differ morphologically. The phenomenon “parts of speech” is typical of Western (European) languages, English in particular. Let us consider some examples. The Chinese adjectives “骄傲/jiāo’ào” (proud) and “谦虚/qiānxū” (modest), when fulfilling the role of a subject, are translated into Ukrainian (and Russian) and English as nouns or the Infinitive and the Gerund into English:

1. 骄傲不好.
   Ukrainian: Гордія − погано. (Compare: Гордий − це погано.)
   Russian: Гордина − плохо. (Compare: Гордый − это плохо.)
   English: Pride is bad. (Or To be/being proud is bad.)

2. 谦虚是好品德.
   Ukrainian: Скромність − це хороша моральна якість. (Compare: Бути скоромним − це хороша моральна якість.)
   Russian: Скромность − это хорошее моральное качество. (Compare: Быть скромным − это хорошее моральное качество.)
   English: Modesty is good moral quality. (Or: To be/being modest is good moral quality.)

It should be mentioned that the division of lexicon into parts of speech in Chinese might have a relative character since Chinese words-hieroglyphs may perform different syntactic roles, which abstracts their morphological functions from the syntactic ones; in other words, in Chinese, the same word can fulfill different syntactical functions. For example, the word “多/duō” (much, many, a lot) can be used as a predicate, an adverbial modifier, an attribute, a verbal object, etc.
1. 工作多, 人少 – There is a lot of work, but there are few people (a predicate).
2. 多看书 – To read much (an adverbial modifier).
3. 来了很多 – A lot of people have come (an attribute).
4. 他总是吃得多 – He eats a lot (a verbal object).

Another Chinese word “all”/“都/dōu” is usually positioned after the subject in contradistinction with the English and Ukrainian languages where the word “all” is put before the subject. However, in Ukrainian (and Russian), it may have a relatively free position in a syntactical construction. Compare four sentences (in English, Chinese, Russian, and Ukrainian):

1. 父母都望子成龙.
2. All parents want their children to achieve success (to be/become successful).
3. Усі батьки хочуть, щоб їхні діти досягли успіху (Ukrainian).
4. Всє родители хотят, чтобы их дети добились успеха (Russian).

Thus, one can hardly observe any “part-of-speech-dividing” or a flexible transfer from one part of speech to the other one in Chinese. In English and Ukrainian, there is a strict division into parts of speech, which are represented by certain morphological features like the categories of number, gender, tense/time, voice, aspect, etc. Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners are to take into consideration the rules mentioned above. They should fulfill corresponding exercises.

Special attention is focused on the use of particles in Chinese, including aspect-related issues. In English, for example, the problems of the category of aspect (when dealing with verbs) are usually manifested through using particular tenses. Let us study the use of the Chinese particle “了/le.”

The use of the particle “了/le” after a verb or an adjective means completion of an action or change of a state (creation of a new situation):

1. 我写完这本书了. – I have written this book (completion of an action).
2. 下雪了 – It has started snowing (change of a state). (Or: It is snowing.)

To render actions which regularly take place and are taking place at the moment of speech or have been taking place for a definite period (started in the past), it is expedient to use the Present Simple Tense and the Present Progressive tense or the Present Perfect (Continuous tense), correspondingly, in English. In Chinese and Ukrainian, the designated actions are rendered using the verb in the present tense. In Ukrainian, the adverb “now” may be used to specify the time of an action.

English: I do homework (regularly). I am doing my homework (now). I have been doing my homework (for two hours).

Chinese: 我做作业.

Ukrainian: Я роблю домашнє завдання (зараз, регулярно, протягом двох годин).
The non-differentiation of the time aspects in Chinese and English texts causes distortions in reproducing the sequence of actions in the target language.

**Syntax**

It is known that there is strict word order in English and Chinese sentences, in contradistinction to Ukrainian. It depends upon a communicative type of a sentence (affirmative/statements, interrogative, imperative sentences, exclamations), types of clauses (Relative, Noun, Adverbial, Object clauses in English), constructions (constructions with the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Participle, the Absolute constructions – in English; Noun phrases, Prepositional phrases, etc. – in Chinese). Chinese syntactical structures subdue to many linguistic phenomena, which provide expressing diverse relations like these: location and distance, cause and effect (or reason and result), duration and frequency, which are to be taken into consideration.

While reading, for example, Chinese sentences with the inversed subject or adverbial modifiers, Ukrainian learners misuse intonation patterns; they substitute them by the ones typical of the sentences with standard word order Subject–Predicate–Object. Ukrainian learners often neglect to make a pause before the functional words “来/lái”, “去/qù”, and “而/ér” in sentences belonging to the Subject–把/bā (or Preposition)–Object–Predicate type. Some difficulties arise when students translate sentences containing the verb “有/yǒu.” They give a word-for-word translation. For example, 我有一个朋友会唱戏/wǒ yǒu yī gè péngyou huì chàng xì. Students translate it in this way: I have a friend, he can sing at the stage (instead of: My friend can sing at the stage).

A large number of complex and compound sentences in Chinese are built with the help of correlative conjunctions like 不但/bùdàn…, 而且/érqì; 不仅/bùjǐn…, 而且/érqì, 非但/fēidàn…, 而且/érqì (not only…but also), 不是/bùshì…, 就是/jiùshì (if not…then), 不是/bùshì…, 而是/érshì (not…but), etc.; single particles or conjunctive adverbs 也/yě, 亦/yì (and also), 又/yòu, 还/hái (and again), 才/cái, 方/fāng (and only then), 却/què (however), etc.; repeated particles 又/yòu…又/yòu, 也/yě…也/yě (and…and); correlative particles 又/yòu…也/yě, 既/jì… 又/yòu, 既/jì… 也/yě (and…and), etc. Ukrainian learners sometimes fail to differentiate the meaning and position of some connective words, for example, 不是/bùshì…, 就是/jiùshì (if not…then), 不是/bùshì…, 而是/érshì (not…but). These errors distort logical sense in the process of text comprehension.

Ukrainian students fail to detect and translate the sentences containing Absolute constructions while reading English texts. For example, they choose the wrong connective words, or misplace the clauses in sentences like “Two days having elapsed, the economists launched their financial project.” Ukrainian learners also make errors when translating compound and complex sentences with extended subjects and constructions with the Infinitive.

When Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners switch their codes from Chinese into English, they are apt to reserve the Chinese word order in their translation, on the one hand; on the other hand, they start stressing all the words regardless of the English phonetic rules.
To summarise, there are still a lot of linguistic issues to be mentioned when comparing English and Chinese against the background of a mother tongue (in our case, it is Ukrainian or Russian). The interference of Ukrainian (or Russian) hinders the better mastering of a second foreign language (foreign languages). Much practice in English and Chinese is sure to facilitate students’ academic success in foreign languages on condition that they are good at their mother tongue.

**Reading Tactics and Strategies: English vs. Chinese**

According to lexicographic sources, “a strategy” is associated with any organized, purposeful, and regulated line of actions chosen by an individual to carry out a task set or confronted.

In normative documents on teaching/learning foreign languages (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 2001), the authors correlate *strategies* with “a means the language user exploits to mobilize and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfill the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question most comprehensively or economically feasible depending on his or her precise purpose.” Thus, we can equate “a strategy” with the adoption of a particular series of actions to be undertaken in order to achieve maximum efficiency/effectiveness. The performance of communication and learning tasks seems very important in this respect as they involve certain language activities, which are accompanied by the use of strategies in communicating and learning. They (language activities) necessitate the processing of oral and/or written texts (through reception, production, interaction, or mediation).

Traditionally, speech activities include receptive – *listening* and *reading* (according to the channel of obtaining information) and productive ones – *speaking* and *writing* (according to the means and form of (re)producing information). That is why students’ educational speech activities should be planned and organized, taking into account the structural and functional peculiarities of each activity.

No doubt, the crucial role in reading is performed by the visual sensations that arise when receiving information and stimulate the action of the internal motor analyzer/speech and motor analyzer. The auditory sensations are also elements of reading since reading is accompanied by an internal speech that becomes a complete, expanded speech when reading aloud. A person who reads to himself/herself is sure to hear what he or she is reading. These sensations allow the reader to control the correctness of his/her reading.

It is expedient to mention that psychological aspects of reading (perception and comprehension) are directly linked to thinking and memory (both logical and mechanical): a reader, while perceiving a text, singles out essential links and synthesizes them into an integrated whole. A character and a comprehension level of a text, its completeness, depth, and preciseness influence the quality of its perception. We should mark that we deal with language/linguistic signs when reading texts; it presupposes a combination of the two starting points – a meaning-oriented one and an acoustic image. A language sign is perceived in the form of graphic symbols in writing.

Onyschenko (2002) tends to differentiate two main levels of text comprehension: a level of meaning (establishment of meanings of perceived language units and their direct links) and a level
of content (comprehension of text content as a holistic language unit). Therefore, the author
determines two groups of skills that involve text comprehension based on these simultaneous
processes – perceiving and comprehending. Hence, the scholar proposes to use the corresponding
strategies to develop the skills as follows: 1) skills related to the technical aspect of reading
(providing a direct act of perceiving graphic characters and correlating them with relevant
meanings); 2) skills that provide a meaningful aspect of reading: the establishment of semantic
correlations between the linguistic (language) units of the text, comprehension of the text as a
complete work of speech. The recipient focuses his/her attention on the semantic processing of the
text to comprehend its content. On the other hand, Onyschenko (2002) describes the act of reading
as “leap-frogging” movements of eyes along a row: a stop (for fixing the perceived information)
– a leap – a stop – a leap. In this regard, the reading strategy aims at gradual perceiving of
information – perceiving a word as a minimal semantically loaded graphical unit and correlating
it with a particular meaning due to the reproduction of its audial and motor image kept in long-
term memory (visual perception of a text is always accompanied by inner articulating); a word
meaning is correlated with the meanings of other words, a character of links between words and
contextual meaning is established; words are united into syntagms, syntagms – into a sentence;
sentences are united into bigger semantic units, the latter – into a holistic work of speech. Thus, in
reading, a syntagm is associated with the smallest semantic unit, which renders certain cognitive
and semantic links alongside with lexical and semantic meanings. We can affirm that the regressive
movements of eyes follow the progressive ones as the reader turns back to specify some details, to
make sure if the perceived information is correctly understood or to handle lexical and grammatical
complications, etc.

Perfetti and Liu (2006) pose stress upon the fact that “phonology is automatically activated in
reading words, whether it is “before” or “after” some moment of lexical access and whether it is
instrumental in retrieving the meaning of the word” (p. 225). Zhang, Yang, et al. (1999) suggested
a Universal Phonological Principle (UPP) stating that the pronunciations are activated while
reading at the earliest moment; in alphabetic systems, pronunciations of phonemes and phoneme
sequences are activated by letters; whereas in Chinese, pronunciations are activated by characters
(p. 858). However, Tan and Perfetti (1998) assumed that Chinese reading involves phonology both
at the word and text levels. Having analyzed the studied theoretical material, we share Perfetti’s
(2006) and Ying’s conception related to the Lexical Constituency Model (pp. 228–229), which
implements the assumption that orthographic, phonological and semantic constituents jointly
specify Chinese word identity. The authors highlight the principle that form-form relations are
more deterministic than form-meaning relations; the scholars are convinced that phonological form
will be retrieved more quickly than meaning given a graphic form input.

To enhance reading comprehension and to overcome comprehension failures, Oxford (1990)
offers a comprehensive classification of various strategies used by learners:

1) cognitive (include note-taking, formal practice with the specific aspects of the target
language such as sounds and sentence structure, summarizing, paraphrasing, predicting,
analyzing, and using context clues);

2) memory (include creating mental images through grouping and associating, semantic
mapping, using keywords, employing word associations, and placing new words into a
context);
3) compensation (include skills such as making inferences, guessing while reading, or using reference materials such as dictionaries);
4) metacognitive (are related to behaviors undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their learning and include directed attention and self-evaluation, organization, setting goals and objectives, seeking practice opportunities, self-monitoring, etc.);
5) affective (are used to lower anxiety and encourage learning, self-encouraging behavior in particular);
6) social (involve other individuals in the learning process and refer to cooperation with peers, questioning, asking for the correction, interaction, and feedback).

Bilonozhko and Syzenko (2020) transformed some of the reading strategies mentioned above into the ones suitable for the Generation Z (the generation of digital natives) learners: long-term practice; a clear connection with real-life contexts and situations; the use of authentic texts and life-related, meaningful tasks; a balance between extensive and intensive reading; the use of collaborative tasks and tasks promoting interaction and communication between learners.

In the line of the above, we single out four stages in text comprehension: 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text: character and word recognition (italicized and printed letters/words/hieroglyphs); 2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant; 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity; 4) the interpretation of the message in context (see Table 1, Appendix A).

At the first stage, Ukrainian learners focus on visual perception of a printed text (both English and Chinese): character and word recognition (font: italicized and printed letters/words/hieroglyphs); space between words, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs; indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs; non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.). This stage is a starting point for further semantic and cognitive understanding of the content.

The second stage is closely interrelated with the first one since learners choose their translation strategies and tactics judging by the title (if any) of a text and text composition (introductory part, main part, conclusion).

The third stage is associated with the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity. Ukrainian students usually cope with the deciphering of the English sentence segments since all words are written separately, and there are punctuation marks, which helps identify the logical and semantic boundaries within linguistic units. When dealing with Chinese texts, in contrast, Ukrainian learners encounter difficulty in “desegmenting” Chinese sentences, for Chinese sentences are segmented into clauses, even not into word combinations. Punctuation marks are the only markers, which facilitate marking the logical and semantic syntactical boundaries. Ukrainian learners happen to make errors connected with the desegmenting of word combinations and clauses, which causes semantic and logical distortions.

The title of a text predetermines its discursive orientation and linguistic peculiarities such as vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to;
grammar; stylistics (expressive means, stylistic devices), etc. The knowledge of the before
mentioned aspects enables students to navigate in a particular discourse and translate it adequately.
The students’ most common mistake is the wrong translation means used to render the contents of
authentic texts into the target language: 1) the substitution of the scientific style by the everyday
one; 2) the misuse of grammatical structures; the non-recognition of expressive means and stylistic
devices; 3) the failure to identify the meaning and etymology of homonymous and polysemantic
words/terms depending upon a sphere of their use, etc. The keynote attention must be paid to the
morphological background for combining radicals and into hieroglyphs in the process of reading
Chinese texts to avoid phonological and semantic errors.

The fourth stage pre-empts the results of interpreting the message in context. The correct
understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context
covers two planes: 1) the semantic and cognitive content of the message; 2) its implicit
background. The linguacultural background is one of the factors that facilitates the holistic
understanding of any text. Scientific, journalistic, and official (documentary) English texts contain
specific terms of the Latin and Greek origin, most of them being international. Students may guess
their meaning by their morphological markers and etymology. However, learners make semantic
mistakes due to their ignorance of terminology and/or historical background. When reading
Chinese texts, it is difficult to identify specific (or international) terms according to their
etymological markers since the designated terms are subordinated to solely Chinese morphology
and philosophic background. Therefore, Ukrainian learners are apt to miscode their semantics. We
support Day’s (2015) opinion concerning the efficiency of blending the extensive and intensive
types of reading. Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners have an opportunity to analyze and synthesize
linguistic and extralinguistic aspects, to identify the necessary information, and to use (electronic)
dictionaries and other programs of computer-aided translation.

The initiated study enabled us to elaborate on the strategic and tactical support to be
acknowledged while teaching Ukrainian students to read Chinese/English texts. One should
differentiate between the two notions – “a strategy” and “a tactic.” We associate a strategy with
the top of a hierarchical system subordinated to the primary goal. In contrast, tactics are the tools-
actions aimed at fulfilling intermediate tasks to contribute to the achievement of the set goal. By a
reading strategy, we understand a general plan involving a corpus of specific means the language
learner exploits to activate and manage his/her visual-perceptive, comprehensive, linguistic and
extralinguistic resources, to mobilize reading skills and procedures, to successfully fulfill the goal
in the most rational way within a particular discourse. A reading tactic is a tool enabling the
realization of a reading strategy in compliance with the primary goal, a set of concrete intermediate
reading activities-operations used to reach the set goal. We have correlated the requirements of the
European Commission to the learning outcomes, the reading skills to be developed in particular,
with the proposed stages of text comprehension and types of reading so that we could adopt
corresponding reading strategies and tactics (see Table 2).

It should be mentioned that the higher personal resources are the more effective results a reader
may achieve.
Overall, we can assume that to implement any reading tactics within a particular reading strategy a reader needs a set of developed reading skills (see table 1), background knowledge and personal qualities as follows: cognitive abilities, good memory, compensation skills, metacognitive abilities, abilities to lower anxiety in affect-related situations, social experience, etc.

**Educational Texts and Assignments**

In view of the above considerations, communication can be considered the motive for reading as a communicative activity, and the main task of reading is an active and independent receipt of information. The amount of information received per unit of time is much more than the amount that can be “processed” during listening. This fact is explained by the higher “bandwidth” of the visual channel of perception and the individual reading rate. The understanding of the text/discourse content is facilitated by the mechanism of “guesswork”; prediction of plot unfolding; the mechanism of logical understanding based on logical-semantic, lexical-grammatical and situational-semantic analysis which is formed and mastered in the process of reading aloud; the mechanism of inner speech hearing, that is, the inner speaking of the text.

The issue of teaching reading techniques occupies an essential place in the sphere of teaching/learning native and foreign languages. We define *reading technologies* as a comprehensive set of mechanical skills for the rapid perception of graphic images of words, their automatic correlation with the sound pattern and meanings of these words. The specificity of developing reading skills depends on the individual psychophysiological and age characteristics of a person, his/her level of command of native and foreign languages, a functional and stylistic orientation of the text, specialist’s proficiency, a type of reading, *etc.*

Having studied major linguistic problems of Ukrainian learners, it is expedient to summarize the above findings and offer some remedial measures that might guarantee favorable academic outcomes. We suggest specific pedagogically significant recommendations in the field of reading Chinese and English texts.

Suggested corrective measures as solutions to Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners’ problems encountered in the process of reading (and comprehending) English and Chinese texts

The following corrective measures, implemented with the Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners (the third-year students majoring/minoring in Chinese/English Translation Studies and the third-year students majoring in Chinese Language and Literature), facilitated the improvement of the participants’ reading skills.

1. Pre-reading exercises are useful; they help overcome phonetic, lexical, and grammatical problems. We recommend that both EFL and CFL learners fulfill the assignments involving consonant/vowel oppositions/alternations to avoid the cross-interfering of their mother tongue and a foreign language. It is efficient to do these groups of exercises: 1) to analyze the morphemic structure of words; to transcribe the words containing “difficult” affixes; to fill in missing sounds in transcriptions; to read tongue twisters and reproduce them (English and Chinese reading); 2) to analyze the structure of multicharacter words (hieroglyphs); to differentiate hieroglyphs, which are similar in writing; to make up word combinations and sentences with multicharacter words
(hieroglyphs); to use them in dialogic speech (interacting); to write short dictations (Chinese reading).

We can recommend that learners fulfill the assignments, which facilitate the improvement of students’ pronunciation skills, especially when it concerns reading the sounds, which are not typical of learners’ mother tongue. Consider for illustration the following examples of specific sounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction: Read the terms. Let your groupmate read the terms, listen to him/her. Swap your roles and analyze phonetic errors, if any.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Thermometer, therapy, tether, theragnosis, ethnicity, ethacridine, whither, theralite, aethanol, thesauri.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. An audio-visual perception is an effective means of teaching learners to read (as a speech activity) when the user simultaneously receives an “audio support” and reads a text (perceives it visually): he/she monitors the text while listening to it; watches a TV program, a movie, a subtitled video; uses the latest technologies (media, CD ROM, etc.). It is advised that learners should listen to authentic records to prevent them from making phonetic and phonological mistakes. Listening to authentic texts provides for better imitating a foreign speech and avoiding these errors: the negligence of nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation at the suprasegmental level; the misuse of authentic intonation patterns (English reading); the negligence of erization, tonal modification; the over-aspiration of non-aspirate consonants (Chinese reading). Another assignment, which is recommended, is intoning phonopassages and recording the learner’s reading to analyze his/her phonetic and phonological errors.

3. Pre-text exercises related to the use of vocabulary should be fulfilled before reading authentic texts. Vocabulary is the style-marker; therefore, it is desirable to consider the lexical component before the comprehensive reading and translating of authentic texts: to specify the scientific and/or non-scientific spheres of word usage; to analyze word combinations and grammatical structures within certain functional styles, etc.

It is also feasible to train students in differentiating the meanings of homonymous and polysemic words. See the examples below.
**Instruction:** Read the sentences. Analyze the types of terminological homonymy. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If the four impedances are diodes, altering current applied to the <em>bridge</em> is rectified into direct current.</td>
<td>1. 用工业制成品和半制成品的出口来替代传统的初级产品的出口，以增加外汇收入，带动工工业体系的建立和经济的持续增长。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. This type of air-driven artificial heart was approved in 1990 by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for being used as a <em>bridge</em> to transplantation, but not for permanent use.</td>
<td>2. 中国已经开始用带动装置的人造卫星。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The rotor creates a <em>bridge</em> between the central terminal and each outer terminal, which is connected to its spark plug with thick wire.</td>
<td>3. 整个切割、脱粒部件的传动系统采用一台收割用发动机，经各部件中的传动轴及皮带、皮带轮，带动各部件工作。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Pre-text grammar exercises activate learners’ concentration on the correlation of lexical and grammatical aspects as an integral unity. At the morphological level, learners can be offered to determine parts of speech in English sentences and to determine syntactical functions of words in Chinese texts. As the category of time is actualized differently in English, Chinese, and Ukrainian, we would propose that Ukrainian learners should do a series of exercises covering the issues of the tense/time aspect and analyze differences of the tense use in the languages under study.

At the syntactical level, it is advised to identify and translate the constructions with The Infinitive, The Gerund, the Participle, and the Absolute constructions in English texts; to detect and translate Noun phrases and Prepositional phrases in Chinese texts. Compound and complex sentences in English and Chinese texts should be analyzed in reading classes.

5. To become a qualified Sinologist or a Germanist, Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners are encouraged to be practiced in reading diverse texts belonging to different functional styles and genres. They gain background knowledge and master their linguistic skills. Thus, we can recommend these functional styles to be used while selecting educational texts: literary (fiction, poetry, drama), documentary, scientific, technical, and sociopolitical journalism.

In the opinion of psychologists, the efficiency of assimilation and memorization of the read information is provided on condition that reading and other speech activities are combined, that is, listening to audio texts, recording the read information, reproducing the read information in the written form (summarizing, annotating, abstracting, etc.) and orally (making up dialogues, roleplaying, reporting, interviewing, etc.). The proposed learning activities contribute to the development of compressing skills and increase productivity.
6. To generate the proposed reading strategies (see Table 2, Appendix B), involving the above recommendations, we used the corresponding reading tactics. We selected texts of different functional styles and genres. These teaching tools were useful: interactive discussions, roleplaying, the use of information technologies, teamwork, project-based activities, profession-centered assignments, etc.

Let us consider some tasks aimed at developing reading skills in English and Chinese.

**Strategy 1.** To understand the main content of a text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 1. Culture: Universal and Specific Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Read the Chinese text “文化的力量” and fulfill these assignments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Look through the text and identify key radicals, italicized, and printed hieroglyphs. Analyze the text structure and its segmentation into word combinations, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs. Find out if there are any numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc. in it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Correlate the meaning of the key radicals and multicharacter words (hieroglyphs) with the main idea of the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Identify culture-marked elements (historical events and “colorful” figures, interesting geographic locations, cultural monuments, mythological figures, literary heroes, etc.), analyze and explain their content and specifics. Find their equivalents in the target language (Ukrainian).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Write a retelling of the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Make up a dialogue with your groupmate on the proposed topic (in Chinese).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Organize a round-table discussion regarding the cultural heritage of China and Great Britain versus the Ukrainian one (in Chinese and English).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Strategy 2.** To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 2. In the World of Science</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Read the Chinese text “三維照相定量評估全口義齒修復前後部軟組織變化的研究” and fulfill these assignments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Study the logical structure of a text, detect the information regarding the main functioning principles of the gadgets described...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Strategy 3. To promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 3. The Literary Contest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Make up two groups of students. Read the authentic poetry: “Changgan xing” («The River-Merchant’s Wife: A Letter» by 李白 / Lǐ bó).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Study all the text constituents at the linguistic (taking into consideration the functional style of the Chinese text, morphological background for combining radicals and/into hieroglyphs, vocabulary, grammar, stylistic devices, and expressive means) and non-linguistic levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Recite the poems artistically in Chinese.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Translate the proposed poetry into Ukrainian in rhymes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We hope that the above-represented pedagogical remedial measures and assignments will be of use both to teachers and students.
Conclusions
This paper has traced the development of reading skills of the third-year students majoring/minoring in English and Chinese (as non-native languages) at a Ukrainian institution of higher education and underlined the linguistic differences between English and Chinese, which caused particular difficulties. The recurrent problems were observed at the phonetic/phonological, lexical, and grammatical levels. At the phonetic/phonological level, the learners mispronounced the sounds, which do not exist in the Ukrainian Language (English: /T/, /D/ /w/, /N/, /x/, etc.; Chinese: the alveolo-palatal consonants j, q, x; affricates zh, z; consonant r, etc.); they neglected the phonetic phenomena (English: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion, assimilation, reduction/elision, etc.; Chinese: tonal, erization); they transferred the English intonation patterns into the Chinese ones and failed to use the tonal modification, and vice versa, they accentuated English words, which are not supposed to be stressed. At the lexical level, the Ukrainian EFL and CFL learners had difficulty in deciphering the semantic meaning of some homonymous and polysemantic words belonging to different branches. At the grammatical level, the Ukrainian students faced challenges in detecting parts of speech, reproducing the sequence of actions in the target language because of their ignorance of the time aspect in English and Chinese; the learners could not detect the syntactic boundaries between word combinations and clauses (Chinese reading); they failed to differentiate the meaning and position of some connective words, for example, 不是/ bùshì..., 就是/ jiùshì, 不是/ bùshì..., 而是/ érshì (Chinese reading); they made errors when translating compound and complex sentences with extended subjects, the constructions with the Infinitive, and the Absolute constructions (English reading). The university instructors collected the examples of the students’ academic failures through personal interaction with the students during English and Chinese reading classroom activities and fixed their data in the registers. Subsequently, some pedagogically essential recommendations have been suggested in order to improve the Ukrainian students’ reading skills and prevent emerging further linguistic deviations.

To contribute to the students’ academic success, we have correlated the reading strategies (to understand the main content of a text; to comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding; to promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information) with the reading tactics and these teaching tools: interactive discussions, roleplaying, the use of information technologies, teamwork, project-based activities, profession-centered assignments, etc. The educational texts representing different functional styles and genres have enabled the Ukrainian learners to widen their worldview in terms of their background knowledge. The audial perception of authentic texts has proved to be an effective means of teaching the learners to pronounce specific sounds correctly, to imitate English and Chinese intonation patterns, and to read.

We have observed the requirements of the European Commission to the learning outcomes (the reading skills) with the types of reading and stages of text comprehension: 1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text: character and word recognition (italicized and printed letters); 2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant; 3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity; 4) the interpretation of the message in context.
Finally, we may resume that this paper sets a background for further development of a system of activities and tasks, which could facilitate the integrated learning of foreign languages.

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References


**Appendix A**

**Table 1. The perception process while reading authentic texts: a comparative analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</th>
<th>Perception process while reading authentic English texts</th>
<th>Perception process while reading authentic Chinese texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stages</td>
<td></td>
<td>1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text:</td>
<td>1) the understanding (perception) of a printed text:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• character and word recognition (font: italicized and</td>
<td>• radical and Chinese character (hieroglyph-symbol)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>printed letters);</td>
<td>recognition (font: italicized and printed hieroglyphs);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• space between words and (sub)paragraphs;</td>
<td>• space between word combinations / clauses / sentences and (sub)paragraphs;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs;</td>
<td>• indents at the beginning of (sub)paragraphs;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of</td>
<td>• non-linguistic units (numerals, figures, units of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>measurement, formulae, equations, etc.)</td>
<td>measurement, formulae, equations, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) the identification of the text, complete or partial, as relevant</td>
<td>2) the identification of the text:</td>
<td>2) the identification of the text:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• title (if any);</td>
<td>• title (if any);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• text composition (introductory part, main part,</td>
<td>• text composition (introductory part, main part,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>conclusion)</td>
<td>conclusion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity:</td>
<td>3) the semantic and cognitive understanding of the text as a linguistic entity:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The text as a linguistic entity</td>
<td>segmentation of sentences; adequate logical correlation of all text constituents representing different linguistic levels; vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to, the etymology of words; grammar; stylistics (functional style of a text, expressive means, stylistic devices)</td>
<td>segmentation of clauses/sentences; adequate logical correlation of all text constituents representing different linguistic levels; morphological background for combining radicals and into hieroglyphs; vocabulary (including word combinations and phraseology), vocabulary levels words belong to, the etymology of words; grammar; stylistics (functional style of a text, expressive means, stylistic devices)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) the interpretation of the message in context</td>
<td>4) the interpretation of the message in context: correlation of the semantic and cognitive content of the message with its implicit background; understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context</td>
<td>4) the interpretation of the message in context: correlation of the semantic and cognitive content of the message with its implicit background; understanding of the specificity of the context and the meaning of the message within the context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The skills involved</td>
<td>perceptual skills; memory; decoding skills; inferencing; predicting; imagination; rapid scanning; referring back and forth.</td>
<td>perceptual skills; memory; decoding skills; inferencing; predicting; imagination; rapid scanning; referring back and forth; navigating in the logical structure of a text; orientating (in a text) skills; background knowledge.</td>
<td>perceptual skills; differentiating skills (when dealing with hieroglyphs which are similar in writing); memory; decoding skills; inferencing; predicting; imagination; rapid scanning; referring back and forth; navigating in the logical structure of a text; orientating (in a text) skills; background knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The proper use of aids</td>
<td>dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual); thesauruses; pronunciation dictionaries; electronic dictionaries, grammars, spell-checkers, and other aids; reference grammars.</td>
<td>dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) with pinyin-decoding; thesauruses; electronic dictionaries, grammars, spell-checkers, text editors; programs of computer-aided translation; reference grammars.</td>
<td>dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) with pinyin-decoding; thesauruses; electronic dictionaries, grammars, spell-checkers, text editors; programs of computer-aided translation; reference grammars.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix B

**Table 2. Reading tactics and strategies: English vs. Chinese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th><strong>English</strong> strategies</th>
<th><strong>English</strong> tactics</th>
<th>№</th>
<th><strong>Chinese</strong> strategies</th>
<th><strong>Chinese</strong> tactics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>To understand the main content of a text</td>
<td>1*. To perceive a printed text: italicized and printed letters/words; the beginning and the end of (sub)paragraphs; numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>To comprehend the main content of a text</td>
<td>1*. To perceive a printed text: radicals; italicized and printed hieroglyphs; the beginning and the end of word combinations, clauses, sentences, and (sub)paragraphs; numerals, figures, units of measurement, formulae, equations, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. To detect keywords and word combinations related to the main idea of a text within non-complicated grammatical structures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. To detect key radicals and multicharacter words (hieroglyphs) related to the main idea of a text within non-complicated grammatical structures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. To interpret the semantic loading of the perceived message in correlation with the implicit background of the context.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. To interpret the semantic loading of the perceived message in correlation with the implicit background of the context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding</td>
<td>1. See Tactics 1 above.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>To comprehend the whole text (in details): the most complete and accurate understanding</td>
<td>1. See Tactics 1 above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. To comprehend the meaning of all text components at linguistic and non-linguistic levels and to logically correlate all its components taking into consideration the functional style of a text, vocabulary, and grammar.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. To comprehend the meaning of all text components at linguistic and non-linguistic levels and to logically correlate all its components taking into consideration the functional style of a text, morphological background for combining radicals and / into hieroglyphs, vocabulary, and grammar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the perceived information in correlation with the implicit background of each concrete word/word combination and situation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | To promptly and quickly review printed material: searching for specific information | 1. See Tactics 1 above (as quickly as possible).  
2. To detect the information under search differentiating it from the most general one and to comprehend the content of pragmatically relevant material at linguistic and non-linguistic levels.  
3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the information under search. | 1. See Tactics 1 above. | See Tactics 1 above (as quickly as possible).  
2. To detect the information under search differentiating it from the most general one and to comprehend the content of pragmatically relevant material at linguistic and non-linguistic levels.  
3. To adequately decode and interpret the semantic loading of the information under search. |

*Reading tactic 1 representing Reading strategy 1 (in both English and Chinese reading) is typical of Reading strategies 2 and 3 (in both English and Chinese reading, correspondingly)*
Trends and Applications of English Language Teaching and Learning in Ukraine Context: A Case-study Method in Teaching English for Specific Purposes for Ukrainian Students

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Abstract
The article is devoted to the analyzing the main methodological principle, which focuses on the technological support of the educational process regarding teaching foreign languages for specific purposes. The law lies in the fact that the methods used in teaching foreign languages should be considered from their most significant effect to achieve educational goals. The research work aims at analyzing the technological support of the process of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes. We consider this support as an essential component of professional training. While working on the paper, we used the following methods of pedagogical research: theoretical analysis and generalization of literature on the research problem; theoretical forecasting methods; a sociological survey (questionnaire, interviews) of students and teachers; testing; mathematical processing of the results of questionnaires and interviews. We developed and used several cases for students of different specialties in our teaching practice. Our development of cases and our teaching experience in the research field proved the effect of the use of the case-study method and its main advantages. We highlight the main question for further developments in the research field as the problems for developing and solving for the effective implementation of this method in teaching practices.

Keywords: case-study method, communicative competence, languages for specific purposes, Ukrainian students

Introduction
The Council of Europe has proposed the basic methodological principle, which prioritizes technological support for professional education while studying foreign languages by the states – members of the European Union; this principle serves for holistic, systemic training in the issues of foreign language education. Its essence lies in the fact that the methods, used in the process of a foreign language teaching, should be considered from their most significant effect to achieve educational goals. These goals should be consistent with the needs of each student regarding their social context. According to Kotkovets (2012), the teacher focuses the process of a foreign language teaching on the formation of professional language competencies of students. To master communication in a foreign language, students should achieve professional foreign language communicative competence. A sufficient level of the development of this competence should provide students with the opportunity and the success in communication in the professional, labor, and domestic spheres in typical communication situations. The teacher clearly and specially selects these communication situations for the class, regarding the possibility of the occurrence of these situations in the professional (and not only professional) activities of a graduate of a higher education institution. We think these priorities to highlight the training of a competent person who can find the right solutions in specific educational, life, and (in future) professional situations.

Therefore, the aim of our research paper is to analyze the technological support of teaching the English language for specific purposes as an essential component of the education of future specialists in different spheres. A significant number of different innovative methods and technologies have been used in recent years to make the process of teaching foreign languages (for specific purposes, likewise) more effective. The use of these innovative methods and technologies also helps achieve educational goals. And the case-study method is one of them. In our teaching practice, we developed and used several cases for students of different specialties. This experience assured that this method, as a kind of the technological support of teaching, is substantially effective. We also found out and formulated the problems (or obstacles) for solving in further developments regarding the method under our research.

Data collection and analysis
While working on the article, we used the following methods of pedagogical research:
– The theoretical methods. We analyzed and generalized philosophical, psychological, pedagogical, methodological, and educational literature on the research problem for comparing various approaches of scholars to the selected issue. We determined the theoretical foundations and conceptual categorical apparatus in the research sphere. We used the method of speculative forecasting (the hypothesis of the research). This method helps determine the further dynamics of increasing in the effect of teaching a foreign language for specific purposes using the technique of case-study. We used the method of expert assessment to specify indicators and levels of the formation of foreign language communicative competence of future specialists.
– The empirical methods. We used a sociological survey (a questionnaire and an interview) of the students and teachers of the chair at the starting point of our pedagogical experiment. During the test, the students were divided into two groups: a control group (in this group we organized the teaching process following the methodology traditional for Ukraine) and the experimental group (in this group we mostly used the case-study method). To identify the dynamics of the learning process using the technique of case-study, we conducted testing of the students.
The statistical methods. After the test, we mathematically processed its results. The results of our test confirmed the effect and feasibility of the usage of the case-study method in teaching English for specific purposes. The students of the experimental group showed a significant positive dynamics in the formation of the communicative competence: a cognitive component of the communicative competence increased by 13%, a communicative-activity component – by 16%.

Main text

Our own experience as a teacher (at a secondary school and a university) of the English language convincingly testifies that new Ukrainian school (a higher educational institution in our case) is a consequence of the Soviet school. So it has several shortcomings, generated by that Soviet school (now we call it a “traditional educational system”). One of these shortcomings is the unwillingness of the students to learn. A university does not sufficiently develop the abilities that graduates need for self-determination in the world for making decisions about their future to be active and mobile subjects in the labor market. We support the point of view of Bondaruk (2011), who believes that if we want to overcome the crisis of modern education system in Ukraine we should reform it. This reform lies in the process of forming a fundamentally new educational system. This system will gradually replace the “traditional” one. It is not enough to use only the “traditional” lesson to ensure cooperation between the students and the teacher, and develop students’ creative abilities, their gradual and systematic involvement in the independent cognitive activity. Unfortunately, at English lessons, the teachers, as a rule, use only a primary textbook or a workbook to study and practice new material, which makes the learning process monotonous and uninteresting. Therefore, we are sure that the English lessons should not be reduced to mechanical reproduction and practicing the skills (Bondaruk, 2011).

The process of leaving the “traditional” Soviet school, the technological support of the educational process will, by all means, lead the teacher to apply a wide range of modern innovative methods and technologies, the technique of case-study in particular, in the process of students’ foreign languages education.

Many domestic and foreign scientists of have devoted their works to studying the theory and practice of the use of the method of case-study. There is rich experience in its research and use in various foreign countries by such researchers: in the field of interactive learning – Abercrombie (1971); Nae (2017); teaching skills – Scrivener (2011); communicative approach – Savignon (2005); sociology – Burawoy (2009), Glaser (2000); theory and practice of case-study – Alpi (2019), Durepos (2010), Eisenhardt (1989), Ellet (2007), Erskine (1998), Hancock (2016), Mills (2010), Wiebe (2010), Yin (2014), and others.


At the same time, we have some questions:
– Are the teachers of foreign languages (for specific purposes, in particular) aware of the need to apply innovative methods and technologies in the educational process?
– Is there a sufficient theoretical and methodological database for the development and practical use of the specifics of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes?
– Is there a thoroughly studied and developed issue of pedagogical conditions for the use of technological support to train future specialists for their profession-oriented communication in a foreign language?
– Are the results of the research of the ways how to increase the effect of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes justified and proved?

We pay significant attention to the communicative approach to teaching foreign languages when we speak about the formation of students’ foreign-language communicative competence. It is precisely the language-communicative activity that is the object of training in this approach. We connect the search for effective communication learning methods with the communicative needs of future specialists. We consider the formation of foreign-language communicative competence to be a significant component of language training. The communicative competence helps specialists integrate into various language groups, and feel confident in any communication conditions.

A communicative approach (Richards, & Rodgers, 2014) to teaching a foreign language helps prepare students to model speech interactions, use the word as a means of social action and interaction in specific communication situations. Communicative competence depends on knowledge of a language and on the ability to use it depending on the event. There are two communicative approaches to learning a foreign language:
1) the thorough organization of the curriculum;
2) methodology, i.e., the use of a word in a real communicative situation has generated some trends relevant for teaching a foreign language:
– the communicative orientation of all types of learning;
– the main subject in the learning process is not the teacher, but the student (in this case we are talking about the “student-centered approach”);
– students’ interest in the learning process following their interests, abilities, and needs;
– teaching methodical materials are submitted on a case-thematic or functional basis;
– the main activities of students are pair work (a dialogue), group work (a polylogue);
– the communicative approach to learning a language has generated an unusual attitude towards a mistake that should not be feared.

The organization of the educational activities based on a communicative approach provides for three primary conditions:
1) the orientation of student’s learning is not to obtain language knowledge, but to develop skills that provide the ability to carry out foreign language speech activity in acts of communication;
2) the implementation of the principle of a communicative group. It means the communicative nature of the exercises, used in the educational process for developing speech skills. The tasks of various levels are most appropriate; the best ones are the exercises of a high level for the assimilation of a language material and development of speech skills in a real communicative situation, as well as those exercises that meet the purpose of training – i.e., to develop a communicative competence;
3) the formation in students of the incentive-motivational phase of activity creates a need for foreign language communication. This creation requires a high positive motivation. Very often speech activity cannot begin at all without such a motivation. At the same time, the effect of a speech activity increases when the students have a high positive motivation (Podzygun, 2017).

The educational (and not only) activities aimed at communication, at the desire to speak out, at the interaction with the interlocutor are of essential significance when using the case-study method in teaching students a foreign language for specific purposes. At the same time, we strengthen the role of students as equal partners and subjects of the educational process; we help increase the motivation for learning; we create a “real” communication environment; the forms of presenting language and speech material become more diverse, and we provide immediate feedback.

The next necessary approach to teaching a foreign language, of course, is interactive learning (Bakhreddinovna, 2020). When we speak about interactive teaching (foreign languages in particular), we mean that there is a constant, active interaction of all participants in the educational process. The teacher and the students are similar, equivalent subjects of learning. We achieve learning outcomes by the mutual efforts of the participants in the educational process. The interactive learning activities include the organization and development of dialogical speech aimed at understanding, interaction, solving problems that arise in the learning process.

We agree with Koval (2011) that interactive learning of foreign languages is, first of all, learning in dialogues. Interactive learning is mutual learning (a collective one, a group one, one in cooperation), where the student and the teacher are equal subjects of education (Koval, 2011).

The case-study method (Yin, 2014), that is, the method of situational learning with the help of specific examples, is related to interactive teaching methods; we also call this technique a way of imitation. In the learning process, a situation (an activity) is created that imitates real-life processes. A case is a description of a specific event used as a pedagogical tool; it is both a type of a task and a source of information for its implementation. Thus, the case-study method is a method of the interactive approach to learning. The purpose of this technique is to teach students to address difficult situations and at the same time to learn and apply existing knowledge, that is, not only to memorize something but to understand and use the information acquired, to build algorithms and schemes for addressing the case (Dindarenko, 2010).

We also consider it equally important to pay attention to the subject-subject approach in learning (Grigorieva, 2018), directly related to the dialogical interaction of the participants in the educational process. The dialogue of equal communicants allows them to solve the problems of the development of each of the communication participants. We clearly understand that to improve the educational process and its content, based on the approaches to learning mentioned above, we should have not only desire of a teacher. Of course, one should consider the pedagogical conditions associated with the organization of the learning process, its methodology, and technological support.
One of the essential pedagogical conditions, which contributes to the effectiveness of the organization of teaching a foreign language for specific purposes, including the use of the case-study method, Kukharuk (2006) considers the creation of convincing motivation. It is vital to identify the leading motives for learning. As a rule, a cause for learning lies in cognitive interest, which goes through different levels in its development: from curiosity (due to the novelty of educational material) to study of the essence of phenomena, and, finally, to solving educational and cognitive tasks (Kuharuk, 2006).

We agree that the effect of the usage of the case-study method in the process of learning a foreign language also depends on the student needs; these needs determine their educational activities. First, there is a need, then we form motivation, we define a goal, we set tasks, we perform specific actions, and after all, we have the result (Atanov, 2003). The dynamics of case technologies is dependent mainly on the development of students’ interest in the case. An interest is a form of manifestation and expression of such activity incentives as motives, needs, and goals. In the learning process, cognitive interest, based on the student’s need for new knowledge, is of great importance. One shouldn’t equate the interest with the motive; the interest can be considered as a variation of motivation (Kostyuk, 2015).

We mentioned the pedagogical conditions, the observance of which directly affects the effectiveness of the educational process. To these conditions, we can also add the need for methodological support, and the need for careful selection of the learning material for the discipline “a foreign language for specific purposes.” It is essential to consider the professional motives of students, their interests, needs, and goals.

Today, the case-study method is a sufficiently researched pedagogical technology. It is a teaching technique that uses work with real situations from different fields of human activity. Cases are based on factual material or are close to the actual case. The case-study method has a significant pedagogical effect. It helps develop features of a personality. Among these features we can name the ability to analyze and diagnose problems, the ability to form and express one’s position clearly, the ability to communicate, to discuss, to perceive and evaluate the information that comes in verbal and non-verbal forms (Surmin, 2015).

A case is the event that happened in a particular field of activity and was described by the author to provoke a discussion in a foreign language in the classroom, to encourage students to discuss and analyze the situation and make decisions.

The purpose of this method is to put students in a situation where they will need to make a decision. The students should identify significant and secondary facts, choose the main problems, and develop strategies and recommendations for further actions. Moreover, the students should be ready to present their thoughts in a foreign language when discussing a case in the classroom, defend their views, and reconsider their initial decision when it becomes necessary. When addressing the situation, the students not only use the knowledge they’ve got, but they also show their personal qualities, their abilities to work in a group. They also demonstrate how they understand the case and their knowledge of a foreign language.
Learning with the help of the case-study method involves immersing students in a specific situation where they can find a practical application for their knowledge. The work in a given case allows the students to “use” the system of intellectual, social, and other relationships of the participants involved in this situation, which is formed and developed with the cooperation of the communicants. Obeying the norms of coordinated actions and the norms of behavior of the participants in the specific events defined by the learning situation, during the analysis, evaluation, and resolution of this situation, the student becomes a specialist within the framework of a given activity aimed at learning the content of the training (Kotkovets, 2012).

The analysis of the sources on our issue allowed us to generalize the classification of cases and determine:
– event cases (they provide information about a particular situation. We usually use them in the class to illustrate a specific idea or raise a question for discussion),
– exercise cases (they provide students with an opportunity to put the acquired skills into practice),
– and situation cases (in other words, classic cases that require analysis of the situation).

As for the presentation of information, the scholars distinguish cases into:
– a structured case – the case gives the minimum amount of additional information. When working with such a case, the student must apply a specific model or formula; there is an optimal solution in the tasks of this type;
– small notes, containing, as a rule, from one to ten pages of a text and one or two pages of applications. Cases of this type introduce only vital concepts and, when analyzing them, the student must also rely on his knowledge;
– significant unstructured cases of up to 50 pages; they are the most difficult of all types of educational tasks of this kind. The information in them is very detailed, including data, which are entirely unnecessary; the required information, on the contrary, maybe missed; the student must identify the existing problem and the necessary information that can help solve this problem;
– innovative cases; when considering them, the performers are required not only to apply the knowledge already acquired, theoretical and practical skills but also to offer something new; the students act as the researchers (Sidorenko & Chuba, 2001).

We can successfully use the case-study method in the classes of a foreign language for specific purposes. This method involves all types of speech activity: reading, speaking, writing, and listening comprehension. At the same time, the students conduct their activities in a foreign language in the conditions of the “real” professional environment created in the classroom. We also want to note the following: when the students study a foreign language for specific purposes with the help of the case-study method, they not only activate their knowledge of a foreign language, they also explain practical professional questions.

Among the main advantages of using the case-study method in learning a foreign language for specific purposes, we can determine the following:
1) The method increases the level of knowledge of a foreign language as a whole. (The use of professional terms in a foreign language and their understanding is more effective than merely memorizing them since it requires the ability to use them during conversations, discussions, and reports).
2) The method develops creative thinking, makes the students think in a foreign language.
3) It helps students prepare their skills in presentations, that is, to present their work in a foreign language publicly.
4) It teaches students to formulate and actively use various types of questions.
5) The method develops the students’ ability to discuss and reason their answers; it contributes to the development of speech without reliance on the finished text.
6) It improves students’ skills in professional reading in a foreign language and information processing skills.
7) It teaches how to work in a team and to produce a collective decision.
8) The method allows the students to fully solve the individual and group self-work (Mozharovska, 2014).

Thus, regarding everything given above, we can suggest using such types of cases when teaching a foreign language for specific purposes:

– Practical cases, which, in the methodology of teaching English, can be associated with popular conversational topics, such as “a business trip,” “choosing a venue for the conference,” “business ethics,” “marketing,” “free trade,” etc. The task of the case is analyzing a specific situation and similar situations modeling. Each case should include an informative aspect in the form of a problem text (an article) as a subject for discussion, the active vocabulary for the analysis, the necessary grammatical structures, and the models of possible dialogues.

– Analytical training cases. When the students work on this case, they are to read the theoretical material, analyze lexical and grammatical structures, memorize and train new vocabulary, and, finally, state the problem. In addition to philological tasks, the articles (the texts) expand their professional knowledge and develop their reading skills in original and adapted (depending on the group) texts. After reading and analyzing the book, the students do the work they do on other cases: they work in groups, prepare individual projects or broad discussion in groups.

– Comparative research cases. The teachers use them in the classroom to study the country-study aspects and the problems of cultural differences between the countries of the language the students learn and Ukraine. The teacher can present for students’ analysis the information related to business styles in different countries, features of conducting international advertising companies, a comparative study of educational systems in different countries, and career prospects in foreign countries. While working on the case, the students can use Internet resources, specialized sites, scholarly and specialized literature in a foreign language (Shovkoplyas, 2013).

We developed and used in our practice several cases for teaching English for specific purposes for students of different specialties. Usually, we presented the tasks to the instances (the name, the goal, the history, the components of the case, the summing up, etc.) in the form of the presentation slides. Here are some examples of these cases:


– Specialty: Management of an educational institution (a secondary school). Case: The organization of competition for receiving a grant to create a new type of a secondary school (a gymnasium, an academy, “a new Ukrainian school,” etc.).

– Specialty: Law. Case: A Round table devoted to violations of human rights in the legislative acts of the times of the USSR.
Conclusion
Summing up, we think it necessary to say the following. If we want to overcome the drawbacks of the post-Soviet “traditional educational system,” we should do our best to reform our new educational system intensively. In this process, we consider it fundamentally essential to adhere to technological support of the educational process and some approaches to teaching English for specific purposes at a higher educational institution (in our case). To these approaches, we attribute a communicative approach, an interactive approach, and a subject-subject one. In our opinion, the case-study method never better corresponds to this technological support and these approaches. We developed several cases for teaching English for specific purposes for students of different specialties. We also conducted the test when using these cases in our teaching practice. The results of the test show positive dynamics in the formation of the communicative competence of the students. These results allow us to assert that the case-study method contributes to the effectiveness of teaching a foreign language for specific purposes.

Simultaneously, realizing all the advantages and educational possibilities of the case-study method when teaching a foreign language for specific purposes, we cannot but pay attention to the fact that for the effective implementation of this method in teaching practices, it is necessary to solve several problems. In this, we agree with Surmin (2015), who emphasizes the need to address the following issues in Ukraine:
1) It is necessary to retrain foreign language teachers to help them overcome their psychological barriers, develop their skills in building, and using cases.
2) It is essential to provide educational and methodological literature prepared both by case developers and teachers who use cases in the educational process.
3) It is necessary to establish case database in different disciplines at universities, to establish a library or a laboratory of cases, to provide the exchange of cases among the departments.
4) It is necessary to ensure an integrated approach to the choice of forms and methods of teaching. It helps create a learning framework, attractive for students, for their practical training.
5) Formation of creative teams for the development and adaptation of training cases.
6) Interdisciplinary and inter-chair coordination in the issues of applying interactive technologies and methods of education.
7) It is necessary to improve, develop pedagogical skills of teachers, and form their style of behavior as a trainer-instructor.
8) Conduction of scientific and methodological conferences, training courses on the development of cases.
9) The study and dissemination of the advanced foreign and domestic practices in the use of the cases-study method.
10) Significant promotion (financial bonuses as well) for the teachers who develop cases; enhancement of the communication of specialists in the field of case development and use.

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References


Linguistic Essence of the Process of Borrowing: French and English Language in Contact

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Abstract
The research presents linguistic aspects of the process of French borrowing, its main extralinguistic reasons and key stages, and other French borrowings that were adopted into the English language in the course of its development. Particular attention is paid to the definitions of borrowing as a lexicological phenomenon offered on account of various scholars and based on several lexicographic resources. The article also focuses on numerous French borrowings in contemporary English, their grammatical and structural nature. The suggested classification of the distinguished linguistic units is given after a Spanish linguist Capuz. The article includes the general outline on the subject of borrowings, various aspects of loan classifications. The core part of the research was the typology of linguistic borrowings, like formal, morphological, semantic, lexical, syntactic, phraseological, and pragmatic borrowings. The authors analyzed the most important periods in history, like Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. All periods can be characterized through means of typical for them words. In the course of analysis, the following types of French borrowings have been established: formal, morphological, semantic, lexical, syntactic, and phraseological. The English vocabulary stock was compiled from different semantic fields and historical periods, starting from the Old up to Present Day English.

Keywords: borrowing, classification, French, historical periods, the English language

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Introduction

If anyone ever asked a question to name a single essential language feature that would be valid for every language, the possible answer could be: an alteration. Lexical or grammatical changes emerging within any language happen at different rapidity and intensity in its continuous development. Some languages are characterized by numerous changes and are easily visible. Others have some alterations, but they are less discernible, as there are not so many. That’s why some transformations are distinct, and others are more subtle. However, something that is definitely when we speak about any language development is that the change is always present there, making any language a living being.

There are many ways of enriching any language by new lexical units and grammatical structures. It is a well-known fact that language lexicon can be broadened through numerous morphological processes, like compounding, affixation, incorporation, conversion, back derivation, an internal modification, or reduplication. Apart from strictly morphological processes, there are so-called word-manufacturing processes. Among them, we distinguish clipping, blending, acronymization. It is worth mentioning that borrowing has always been very productive in the course of English language development. Considering the peculiarities of the English language borrowing process, we will conclude that over centuries many quite different languages influenced the English language, some of them just a little. Others wielded a considerable impact on its lexicon. For example, beginning from its earliest times, the languages that significantly affected English were Latin, Greek, Celtic, Scandinavian, and French.

The French language, like all other world languages, has its essential characteristic features, like special word-order, lexical stock, and pronunciation. Among the lexicon, some areas are more developed than others. They are the areas of cuisine, army, and law. Other lexical fields, however, cannot be treated as more deficient because the number of cases is impressive too. It is important to stress that both lexical areas are continually developing, and any lexical unit can serve as a source for enriching other language vocabularies.

In the twentieth century, other languages, like Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, German, or Russian, also contributed to enriching the English lexicon. Besides, one cannot but stress that there are no limits to borrowing lexical items from other languages. Every language may benefit from another language vocabulary stock. Some languages serve more as sources for others; however, some languages are almost addicted to such loans. Linguists believe that there are over 120 different languages that contributed over centuries to the enrichment of the English vocabulary stock. Among them, many other well-known languages as mentioned above. Some, however, are somewhat exotic, as exemplified by Crystal (1995), as Tswana, Tibetan, Xhosa, or Zulu. But the two main language-contributors to the English vocabulary stock, to our minds, are Latin and French.

The process of borrowing can be realized in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate communicative contacts between people) and written speech (by indirect language interaction through documents, books, etc.). Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times, written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally (e.g., L. inch, mill, street) are usually short, and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption.
Written borrowings (e.g., Fr. communiqué, belles-lettres, naïveté) preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound form; their adaptation is a long and laborious process.

The core aim of the linguistic investigation conducted for the present research is to present illustrative exemplars of French loans adopted into English over time.

All French borrowings were analyzed as far as the lexical components are concerned. Some exemplary paradigms were also given additional information through definition in Present-Day English and the etymological note, confirming their French origin.

Every research triggers some theoretical as well as practical values. This investigation of the semantic nature reveals that French has always been a great source of borrowings. Each period in history brought some valuable loans into English.

The theoretical part of the thesis provided a systematized outline of the issues concerning borrowings as a lexicon enriching process. What is more, the historical account of the loans also gives information as to the reasons for such procedures. For example, the Norman Conquest brought vocabulary connected with war, administration, and law, whereas the technological revolution enriched the tongue into words from the areas of technology, science, and medicine.

The practical aspects of the present thesis are of both scientific as well as educational. The data and findings can be used for educational purposes at schools. The results can also be utilized for further linguistic procedures.

**Literature Review**

Interest in studying the problem of borrowings was observed only at the end of the 19th century. The basis for new research was to reorganize the thousand-year-old traditions of the synthesis of language theories from modern cultural and linguistic ideas. More than one generation of scientists devoted their works to this problem, calling the same phenomena (the result of the process of borrowings) in different ways (borrowings, foreign words, or loan words).

The process of *borrowing* has been defined by Hock & Joseph (2009) as: “an adoption of individual words or even large sets of vocabulary items from another language or dialect” (p. 241) which, as said by them, is a “very common result of linguistic contact.” Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams (2002) unanimously stated: “a borrowing occurs when one language adds a word or a morpheme from another language to its own lexicon.” (p. 512) Moreover, the authors maintain: “pronunciation of the borrowed item is often altered to fit the phonological rules of the borrowing language.” (p. 512) McArthur (1992) wrote: borrowing is taking “a word or phrase from one language into another, or from one variety of a language into another.” (p.141) In a word, the abstract noun *borrowing* refers to speakers adopting words from a source language into their native language. “Loan” and “borrowing” are, of course, metaphors because there is no literal lending process. There is no transfer from one language to another and no “returning” words to the source language. There are also many definitions of *borrowing* as a particular linguistic unit, which is the results from this process. For example, the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2005) defines the notion of borrowing as: “a word […] taken from […] another language and used in their own.”
Moreover, Graddol (2000) writes that one may discuss the process of borrowing if “language A uses and ends up absorbing a linguistic item or feature which was a part of language B, and which language A did not have” (p.33).

What is the most crucial from all the above-mentioned definitions is the fact that one language is receiving a lexical unit while the other one serves as a donor. An interesting detail is included in the second part of the definition presented by McArthur (1992) above, who states that borrowing can also occur between different variants of the same language. For example, it can be a loan word from Australian English or American English into British English.

As language borrowing is too complicated, then the question arises, what are the reasons for this process? To our minds, the grounds are manifold. There is a necessity for adopting concepts along with the terms identifying them, as various cultures blend. These are items that are not presented in the recipient language. Therefore it is less complicated to adopt the concept rather than trying to formulate a new term. Frequently, there are cases when there is a need to present some specific ideas or objects, like the ones from fauna and flora.

As there are many reasons for the process of borrowing in general. Hence, there are also different types of adopted words according to the degree of their assimilation into the recipient language. For instance, Hughes (2000) proposes four kinds of borrowings:

1. Guest words – words, which remain their original meaning, orthography, and pronunciation. For example, the Italian word “diva” was adopted into English as “diva.”
2. Foreign words – words that are only partially assimilated to the recipient language though sometimes are challenging to be recognized as borrowings.
3. Loan words – words incorporated into the recipient language to a great extent so it is almost impossible to identify them as borrowings, like the words “street” or “bishop.” Such loan words virtually become native words and sometimes are mistreated as ones.
4. Calques – words called loan translations, as they involve rendition from one language to another, like “world view” translated literally from German “Weltanschauung.” By the way, the terms (“a guest word,” “a foreign word,” and “a loan word”) constitute examples of calques themselves, as they are translated literally from German words “Gastwort,” “Fremdwort” and “Lehnwort.”

Consistent with many scholars, the process of borrowing is usually divided into two types according to the nature of the very process: direct and indirect. The former deals with a lexical unit, which serves as a native word for the language from which the borrowing takes place. The latter one, on the other hand, already exists as a loan word in the language from which the borrowing occurs. Fromkin (2002) explains the mentioned notion of a native word as “one which history or etymology can be traced back to the earliest known stages of the language” (pp. 504-505). For example, let us take the word “feast,” which can be easily traced back to the Latin form “festum.” However, the word was borrowed into English from French. So, it can serve as an example of direct borrowing from French, but at the same time, it is also an example of indirect borrowing from Latin.
In other words, direct borrowing happens when one language adopts a word from a foreign language in a straight line, like an English “omelette,” which has been taken over from French without any large phonological or orthographical changes. On the contrary, indirect borrowing happens when a lexical unit is borrowed from the source language to another language, as a direct borrowing. Then, the same item is re-borrowed yet to another language and further even to another language, this time, however, as an indirect borrowing. It is worth mentioning that the process of indirect borrowing is unlimited in terms of the number of languages, which can adopt it. The said lexical unit can be re-borrowed many times, but only the adoption form of the source language can be called a direct one. Finally, adopting the item each time to another language, some orthographical and phonological adjustments can be made to fit it into the recipient language.

Methodology

This research aims at investigating the French borrowings appearing in the English lexicon from the Old English period to the present days. It comprises the analysis of those borrowings and an examination of their level of integration into the lexis of Modern English (from a phonological and morphosyntactic and lexical point of view).

The first step of our analysis was to distinguish the main types of assimilation according to the structure. They are phonetic, grammatical, and morphological. Phonetic assimilation is the process of adjusting the phonetic form of the borrowed word to the sound system of the recipient language. Words that are not assimilated phonetically retain their foreign pronunciation. Grammatical assimilation is the conformation of a borrowed word to the morphological or grammatical standards of the receiving language.

The second step was to distinguish the main types of assimilation according to the meaning. They are semantic borrowings, lexical borrowings, and syntactic borrowings.

Data Collection Procedure

In the frame of lexicological findings, some scholars maintain that the term “borrowing” is highly under-defined. For example, Stražny (2005) claims: the term “borrowing” is, in some ways, an unfortunate metaphor … (p. 620). Why would such a hypothesis ever arise? The author explains that neither the source language is ever asked if it wishes to lend its vocabulary stock to another language, nor the recipient language ever repays them in any way. Therefore, the author believes that the term is quite ambiguous and unfortunate.

Over half a century earlier, another great scholar, Jespersen (1964), wrote: linguistic “borrowing” is nothing but imitation (p. 208).

The idea is that any form of lexical borrowing happens when two languages come into contact. In that case, very often, people show at least a substantial degree of bilingualism. In other words, they have some knowledge of both the source language and a borrowing language. To make a word become a loan, the borrowing language has to gain something new from the source language. It usually occurs when there is a gap in the vocabulary stock. If not, the language would be able to survive on its lexical stock. Stražny (2005) constitutes a borrowing frequently implies
itself “for either reasons of necessity or reasons of prestige” (p. 621). The reason for both necessity and prestige are in much detail described below.

Reason of Necessity

Communication seems to be the essential aspect of human life. We communicate with one another at various levels, on different subjects, and in multiple places and under other circumstances. Sometimes we come across a new, unknown concept that we cannot express in our mother tongue, as such ideas do not exist in our conceptual world, in our mind, in our culture. Still, the necessity to put it into familiar words is extreme. That’s why we borrow terms, words, and other names of new ideas from other languages and incorporates them into our native language so that the act of communication is preserved. What is of vital importance is the objectivity and not subjectivity we should rely on in borrowing.

Ever since the Middle English began, various social and intellectual barricades disappeared, so new borrowings could freely enter the English language. These were mostly lexemes connected with discoveries on the grounds of science and technology. When traveling became famous, also words relating to sea travel, navy as well as foreign words of fauna and flora of the countries visited, came into English. Stražny (2005) offers an illustrative example of the necessity of the borrowing of the word “kangaroo”:

The English word, kangaroo, was borrowed into English from the Australian Aboriginal language Guugu Yimithirr when Captain Cook and his crew were making repairs to their ship on the northeast coast of Australia, and none of the crew ever learned to speak Guugu Yimithirr. Most probably, the word was brought into English after one of the crew pointed at an animal and was told by one of the local Aboriginals that the animal concerned was a “kangaroo.” In fact, the Guugu Yimithirr word gangguru refers specifically to the large black kangaroo. (p. 621)

Reason of Prestige

In the history of the English language, in the post-Conquest period, it was treated as inferior to the French language, which was the language of wealth, educated members of upper society. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the French language became the official language in England. Some scholars believe that it was even stigmatized – definitely, it was seen as a lower language spoken mostly by artisans, peasants, and ordinary workers. On the other hand, French was the language of the nobility and the court. The first French borrowings were terms connected with war, fare, court, law, soldiers, army, crown, country, piece, justice, office, government, parliament, and state. Hence, it must have had a significant influence on English. French, therefore, perceived as a higher or prestige language, was the language to imitate, as Brinton and Arnovick (2006) elucidate. There was almost no end to the French words that continued to pour into English up to the 16th century: chair, table, furniture, dinner, supper, soup, jelly, sausage, to fry, to boil, joy, pleasure, delight, comfort, dress, color, flower, fruit, desire, castle, mention, beauty. Now in modern lexicology, the situation of two languages existing side by side is called a diglossic context. Hock (1991) maintains the two-fold division into the inherited ancient tongue and the vernacular form of the borrowing tongue. The explanation the author offers states: “this special coexistence
between ancient prestige language and modern “vernacular” is now commonly referred to as diglossia” (p. 620).

Why would people use importance as a motivator to use borrowed lexemes rather than the native ones, if they exist? There are two types of distinction that can be identified: the individual prestige and the collective one. The former deals with the speaker’s personal and individual choice to utilize a particular word. Some people prefer to use borrowed lexemes as they sound more prestigious, hence more advanced. The latter one, on the other hand, seems to be more complicated as it involves the overall desire to enrich the lexicon of the native language, which the speaker may perceive as too vernacular. The words from a more prestigious language will always be transferred into the language that is seen as less prominent. The other way round process appears improbable.

*Adoption vs. Adaptation as Key Stages of the Process of Borrowing*

Any language, which borrows lexical units from other ones, may face a problem of integrating the new words into its lexical stock. Scholars identified two significant procedures that can be applied to the cases in question. These are two language strategies known as adaptation (also called complete nativization) and adoption.

What is the difference between these two at first sight similar notions? When a lexical unit is adopted, the words are imported with all the features of the source language, and they are not modified in any way. Diverge peculiarities of phonological, morphological, and grammatical nature remains within the borrowed lexical units, hence enter the recipient language, too.

Similarly to the adopted word, also in the case of adaptation, borrowed lexical units are incorporated into the borrowing language as well as its linguistic system. The assimilation of such words occurs on various levels of linguistic nature: among them numerous changes in phonetics, orthography, or morphology. Stražny (2005) brings to light an example of “croissant,” the pronunciation of which varies from one person to another and is related to the fluency of French of the speaker. Hock (1991) also clarifies that a “borrowing can lead to the introduction of new phonological rules, such as the [k/s] and [g/j] alternations in electric: electricity, allegation: allege which entered English from loans from French” (p. 623).

Comparable situations occur as far as morphology is concerned. An appropriate example, “court-martial,” is brought by Hock (1991). The expression is of French origin, and it contributed to a new form of attaching plurality in English. The lexeme “court –martial” does not take the plural marker at the end, like most English nouns, but it attaches to the first element – “court-s martial.” Nevertheless, in a colloquial variety of language, the regular form of “court martial-s” is also known, used, and widely accepted. So now and then, we may come across some cases where the French influence is more significant. Hock (1991) also describes two different methods of building degrees of comparatives in both languages: English and French. It is visible that the French pattern plus ‘more’ + simple adjective has been effectively relocated into English as the pattern more + adjective. The following examples illustrate the issue discussed:

(a) beau → plus beau (French)
(b) beautiful → more beautiful (English) (p. 383)
The a model mentioned above, taken on from French become started existing side by side with the traditional native way of forming comparative and superlative degrees, which involves adding the inflectional suffix -er in comparative and -est in superlative forms of adjectives, like in big – bigg-er – bigg-est, or hot – hot-ter – hot-est. What are the guidelines for using either of the two patterns? The compromising solution has been successfully found and applied in modern English grammar the following way:

(1) Monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives ending in -y, as they are principally native, take the inherited native ending -er for comparative and -est for superlative degrees. There are also some examples of disyllabic adjectives ending in -er. The following examples illustrate the aforementioned patterns:

(a) monosyllabic adjectives: old – older, fast – faster – fastest, short – shorter – shortest;
(b) disyllabic adjectives ending in -y: tasty – tastier – tastiest, happy – happier – happiest, heavy – heavier – heaviest (there is a vowel modification of -y into -i-);
(c) disyllabic adjectives ending in -er: clever – cleverer/ more clever – cleverest – most clever, bitter – bitterer – bitterest.

(2) Other disyllabic and polysyllabic adjectives forming comparative and superlative degrees in the descriptive way, borrowed from French, as in the examples:

(a) disyllabic adjectives (in particular those ending in -ing, -ed, -ful and -less): car[ing] – more car[ing] – most car[ing], gifted – more gifted – most gifted, care[ful] – more care[ful] – most care[ful], use[less] – more use[less] – most use[less], complete – more complete;
(b) polysyllabic adjectives: colorful – more color[ful] – most delicious, delicious – more delicious – most delicious, generous – more generous – most generous.

To facilitate the choice of the form of comparative and superlative degrees of comparison of adjectives, Hock (1991) puts forward a proposition to use a universal pattern, which would be “(native) -er goes with monosyllabic, (borrowed) more, with polysyllabic.”

It is worth mentioning that the inclusion of new lexemes into the borrowing language always triggers some other processes. One such procedure is called nativization and is of vital importance for the subject matter. Nativization is the process of adapting a borrowing into a recipient language. Nevertheless, not every single lexical unit undergoes a full nativization. Such a procedure may occur partially and at various speeds. There are definite stages that most borrowings experience in the process of their full adaptation:

(1) initially, borrowings or loan words are italicized, glossed, or quoted to demonstrate their unfamiliar origin;
(2) to use borrowings in a broader context – the words, nonetheless, are still sensed as foreign items, and they are recognized as such;
(3) borrowed item is wholly integrated into the recipient language and felt like native lexeme, even though it is still of a foreign origin.

At some point, loan words can also be used metaphorically, treated as a higher level of semantic comprehension. For example, the English word “plumber” (originating from Anglo-French plummer, plommer and Middle French plommier, plombier). Durkin (2005) writes: “in the 1970s, English plumber comes to have a specific metaphorical meaning (originally in the context of the Watergate scandal) “a person employed to investigate or prevent “leaks” of information from a government office, department, etc.”” (p. 323).
Now and then, the loan item is borrowed for the second time. It may happen at different times of language development and with diverse meanings. Stražny (2005) provides an example describing the transformation of the word “chief,” which originates from the Old French “chef,” meaning “boss” or “head.” Nonetheless, later it was also borrowed for the second time as the word “chef,” this time from Modern French expression “chef de cuisine” and the meaning “head of the kitchen” (p.623).

Sometimes a still unfamiliar borrowed word is roughly associated with a native word resembling it only in a sound form. The change of a borrowed word based on a fancied analogy with the same well-known word/phrase is called joke/false etymology: for example, “cutlet – to cut – to cutlet.”

To sum it up, assimilation is the process of adjusting a word to the phonetic and lexico-grammatical norms. We distinguish three main types of assimilation: phonetic, grammatical, and lexical. Phonetic assimilation is the process of adjusting the phonetic form of the borrowed word to the sound system of the recipient language. Words that are not assimilated phonetically retain their foreign pronunciation. Grammatical assimilation is the conformation of a borrowed word to the morphological or grammatical standards of the receiving language. If a loan word is grammatically assimilated, it acquires English paradigms and categories. Lexical assimilations are the conformation of a borrowed word to the lexico-semantic system of the recipient language. If a loan word participates in word-building according to the rules of the English language, we can say it is a lexical assimilated word. By the way, a borrowed word may develop a new meaning in the receiving language.

Discussion
Since the very beginning of lexicology studies, scholars have attempted to classify various borrowings from different languages. Therefore there are many classifications that can be found in numerous linguistic sources. Nevertheless, the procedure of simplifying them and outlining their typology has always been loaded with some obscurity. For example, Capuz (1997) mentions French scholars, who offered their classifications of borrowings. Among them: Clyne (1977) registers borrowings at the subsequent eight levels of the linguistic system: phonological borrowings, prosodic borrowings, graphemic borrowings, morphemic borrowings (transference of bound morphemes), morphological borrowings (transference of morphological patterns), semantic borrowings (transference sememes), lexical borrowings (transference lexemes), and syntactic borrowings (transference syntactic rules). Humbley (1974) offers the following six classes of borrowings: “graphic and phonetic borrowings, morphological borrowings, semantic borrowings, lexical borrowings, syntactic borrowings, and phraseological borrowings” (pp. 53-64), which are quite similar to the previous one. Capuz (1997) is a young Spanish scholar who also proposed his classification of borrowings. It consists of seven types of borrowings, which are described and exemplified below.

Formal borrowings
They are considered relatively infrequent. What is more, they entail both phonological or orthographic changes. The said alterations, as maintained by Capuz (1997), “affect the form (significant) and not the meaning (signifié)” (p. 84). Examples of formal borrowings can be found...
in the language used in advertising, for instance: common bewilderment of *sh* and *sch* (*schreiben* – *shreiben*) that can be recognized in the German-speaking immigrants who live in the English-speaking countries, like England, for example: “appear[…] to be a hyper characterisation of neutral units following well-known features of a prestigious foreign language” (p. 84).

**Morphological Borrowings**

They are habitually portrayed as an uncertain category as some linguists reject the possibility of transferring morphemes unswervingly between languages. On the other hand, it is widely accepted as real that there is a likelihood of borrowing morphemes indirectly from one language to another. It happens when a particular morpheme enters the recipient language along with the lexeme to which it is attached. Then it may begin its own life as a productive affix used in the derivation of new words in the borrowing language. Such morphemes can serve as examples of affixes of all types. Some of them may become highly productive in the borrowing language. Others may remain infertile. The next stage of adaptation for morphemes in question is when they are entirely accepted and become “known.” When they intertwine into a new language system and, as underlined above, grow to be productive. The situation for the recipient language happens to be much simpler if it receives from the donor language pairs of words, with and without an affix, like in the examples: cigar/ *cigarette*, or statue/ *statuette*, which are borrowings from French.

**Semantic Borrowings**

It entails a process of transmitting of sememes or specific units of meaning. Capuz (1997) identifies three major types of semantic borrowings, which are the following:

(1) **Homologs** – both items, from the source language and recipient language, demonstrate some analogy in meaning. However, their forms remain dissimilar. This type of borrowings is often called “semantic loan translation” or “semantic calque,” as it is a model of proper translation. Both lexemes share their primary meaning, but only one of them carries additional symbolic sense. The supplementary figurative sense meaning, however, can also be transmitted to another language. For instance, the English word “hawk” has its primary meaning “bird of prey.” In English, nonetheless, it also had an additional symbolic sense “hard-liner politician,” and that meaning can be borrowed by other languages.

(2) **Analogs** – both words, as the name suggests, preserve some analogy in sense and form. Consequently, it is much easier to see the semantic transaction between them, and they are undoubtedly more frequent and widespread than homologs. Examples of semantic meaning are extensively unearthed in translations as well as in the language used by bilinguals. Very often, such examples are generally identified as “false friends” of a translator/ interpreter. For instance, Capuz (1997) illustrates this idea by providing as an example an English word “conventional” with its primary meaning “customary, traditional.” However, as the author appends “in political jargon, it has developed the sense of “non-nuclear (weapons)” that is “traditional (weapons)” (p. 84).

(3) **Homophones** – both lexemes show similarity in the form, but not the meaning. They are analogous as far as orthography and pronunciation are concerned, but the meaning remains different. For example, the English word “grocery” has its primary meaning, “grocer’s shop.” It was spread into American Portuguese “grosseria,” which has the primary meaning
“rude remark.” The new meaning carried along with the borrowing, however, is a “grocer’s shop.”

**Lexical Borrowings**

In linguistics, borrowing (also known as lexical borrowing) is a word from one language is adapted for use in another. In that case, the word that is borrowed is called a “borrowing,” “a borrowed word,” or “a loanword.” It is interesting to mention that the English language has been described by Crystal (1995) as an “insatiable borrower.” More than 120 other languages have served as sources for the contemporary vocabulary of English. On the other hand, present-day English is also a significant donor language – the leading source of borrowings for many other languages. Stražny (2005) observes the interface between two languages and maintains, “when different languages come into contact with each other, some degree of lexical borrowing inevitable takes place” (p.462). It is a widely acknowledged truth that lexical borrowings are among the most frequently identified loans. At the commencement, all borrowings were recognized and categorized as linguistic ones. Capuz (1997) offers to divide them into three groups:

(a) *Importation* – this is the most direct transmission between languages. Both the form and the meaning are imported without any additional amendments. For example, CD-ROM, club, pop, best-seller, poster, show, and countless other examples in various areas of everyday life.

(b) *Loan blends or hybrids* – these are lexical borrowings that involve both “importation” and “substitution” or, in other words, “transfer” and “reproduction.” Therefore, Capuz (1997) proposes a subdivision into three types of loan blends or hybrids:

- transferred stem + reproduced derivative affix, like in words: *filth-y* (En) → *fil-sig* (Ger), or *swing-ing* (En) → *swin-ant* (Fr);
- native stem + transferred affix, like in words: *four-age* (En) → *Futter-age* (Ger);
- hybrid compounds, as in various anglicisms, like in words: *porte-containers* (Fr), *manager de carretera* (Es), or *tenis de mesa* (Es).

(c) *Substitution or loan translation* – an example of lexical borrowing, which is a “complete morphemic substitution of lexical units of the language,” as Capuz (1997) elucidates. The paradigm in question always entails two or more elements. First, they are identified and analyzed, and then they are rendered into a recipient language. Contrasting to semantic borrowing, a loan translation deals with formulating a new lexeme in the borrowing language, like in the example of “grate-ciel” (Fr) “sky-scraper,” this happens to be a novel compound in French (p. 87).

**Syntactic Borrowings**

It deals with relationships between lexemes and other words. It is the form of the morphemic substitution that is always adopted. Syntactic borrowings entail various grammatical relationships, predominantly issues of agreement, dependence, and order. Capuz (1997) proposes two types of syntactic borrowings:
(a) **Syntactic Innovation** – this is the case where the structure is completely unidentified in the borrowing language. For example, estar siendo + passive participle in Spanish can stand as a syntactic borrowing from the English form am/is/are + being + passive participle.

(b) **Syntactic Borrowing of Higher Frequency** – when the form is known and recognizable in the borrowing language. Nevertheless, it is relatively rare and limited to particular distributional contexts.

Similar to syntactic borrowings, *phraseological borrowings* also involve a morphemic substitution, known as *loan translation*. As underlined by Capuz (1997), it “must imply a metaphor, an image,” “both the model and the loan translation must be idiomatic, with a global sense which cannot be derived from the addition of the senses of its constituents.” Some lexical loan translations carry not only the primary meaning but also some shades of it, which are conversational. They can be subdivided into three types:

(a) **Locutions or lexical idioms** – these are either nominal cases, like *round table* (En) → *mesa redonda* (Es), *cold war* (En) → *guerra fría*, *beautiful people* (En) → *gente guapa* (Es), or adverbial cases, like *somehow* (En) → *de algún modo / de alguna manera* (Es).

(b) **Lexical and syntagmatic idioms** – these are founded on a verbal construction, like *to play a role* (En) → *jugar un papel* (Es), or *to be in the same boat* (En) → *estar en el mismo barco* (Es).

(c) **Statements** – these come as examples of formulae, cliché, or sayings as well as proverbs (Capuz, 1997, pp. 90-91).

**Conclusion**

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between people) and written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.). Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times, written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally are usually short, and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound form. Their adaptation is a long and laborious process.

Assimilation is the process of adjusting a word to the phonetic and lexico-grammatic norms of the language. We distinguish three main types of assimilation: phonetic, grammatical, and lexical. Phonetic assimilation is the process of adjusting the phonetic form of the borrowed word to the sound system of the recipient language. Grammatical assimilation is the conformation of a borrowed word to the morphological or grammatical standards of the receiving language. If a loan word is grammatically assimilated, it acquires (get) English paradigms and categories. Lexical assimilations are the conformation of a borrowed word to the lexico-semantic system of the recipient language. If a loan word participates in word-building according to the rules of the English language, we can say it’s a lexical assimilated word.

In this research, we present the following classification of French borrowings in contemporary English: *phonological borrowings*, *prosodic borrowings*, *graphemic borrowings*, *morphemic borrowings* (transference of bound morphemes), *morphological borrowings* (transference of morphological patterns), *semantic borrowings* (transference of sememes), *lexical borrowings* (transference of lexemes), and *syntactic borrowings* (transference of syntactic rules).
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Humor Application in Teaching English to Future Lawyers of Ukraine

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Abstract:
In the twenty-first century, foreign languages have become exactly the means of “survival” in the conditions of world community formation and global thinking. The successful development of a person ready for “survival” is a process of entering into a foreign culture. The most objective solving of the problem of students’ acquaintance with a foreign culture, as the authors believe, is modeling real intercultural intercourse situations: that is, intentional confrontation of situations of native and foreign cultures. The creation of the model of foreign culture is one of the basic requirements of foreign language teaching as a means of “survival.” It requires working out new components of teaching-methodical complexes, both in content and form. Students’ preparation for acquisition of foreign culture is one of the unique objectives of contemporary higher education. Motivation is one of the main factors on which students’ proficiency depends. Students’ interest in learning foreign languages can be arisen by some new methods of teaching. Humor application during English classes at universities is essential because studying peculiarities of English and American humor the learners of foreign languages are ready to enter the system of international and world cultures and behave naturally either in British or American societies. English humor is an integral part of British and American society, so its knowledge is necessary for learners of English as a second language. Humor usually requires a specific style and is based on surprise. It means that something relevant to the audience is present and goes something different from what the audience expected. Our pedagogical experiment with the application of humorous texts during English classes resulted in increasing students’ motivation, broadening their mental outlook, and knowledge of a foreign culture.

Keywords: Communicative competence, English language, foreign culture, humor competence, knowledge and skills, motivation, police officers.
Introduction.

Today the Law System of Ukraine is interested in highly-qualified, all-round developed specialists mastering not only their specialty but foreign language as well. They should be prepared to enter the system of national and world cultures. That is why improving foreign languages skills at Universities of Internal Affairs are of the most considerable significance nowadays.

High level of mastering different languages, the degree of speech skills and habits development is a necessity today. This problem in external methodology has become especially topical in the twenty-first century because of the growing interest in international partnerships.

The primary function of the word is serving as a means of communication. International intercourse is realized directly or indirectly through the written language that is through printed or hand-written texts. Therefore, the educational universities' curricula sets forth the following practical requirements: the instruction should be such that the graduates can learn a foreign language in simple everyday subjects using the speech material dealt with in the course of studying, can read and understand without a dictionary a natural text in the foreign language and with the occasional help of a dictionary if the book presents moderate difficulties and can express in the written form simple thoughts (writing a short letter).

In other words, the practical objective means not only communication; it also knowledge, skills, and habits of the technological character. The educational objective of foreign language teaching consists of the principles of morality uncalculated in students through instruction in the foreign language.

The cultural goal implies the following tasks: widening the students' general outlook, developing their abstract thinking, cultivating the sense of beauty, and their appreciation of art. Reading English texts, acquainting the students with life, and culture of the English-speaking nations, and with their manners and customs will contribute to the mental growth of the students. Later, the ability to read English and American authors in the original and authentic texts in the English language reflecting the culture of the countries where the language is spoken will serve the students as a means of attaining a higher general educational level. Reading good authors in a foreign language will develop their feeling of beauty. Widening their philological outlook will result in the unconscious and conscious comparison of the international and the native languages.

The personality's developing aim is connected with the development of students' language abilities, their culture of speech behavior, general educational skills, stable interest to language learning as well as positive emotions, will power, memory, etc. That is why students learn to guess, to transfer their knowledge and skills into a situation based on the problem-search activity, to find differences, to be logical, to be able to enter, continue and finish communication, to be prepared for overcoming difficulties, and working hard, etc.

At present the strategic objective is emphasized. This one reflects the social order of society. It presupposes the formation of the second language personality that is a person, who is not only mastering a foreign language but who can reflect the surrounding world using the foreign language. The student is supposed to know the system of the language and be able to use it in his communication. Besides, the personality has to know all the notions and be able to put into practice
his aims, interests in the process of his speech activities. All the issues mentioned above allow the second-language personality to participate in intercultural communication (Vitin, 1997).

The role of humor in conducting lessons cannot be overestimated. Nowadays, universities are equipped better either with technical aids or with literature, which allows students to get comprehensive education.

English lessons give teachers a lot of space for creative work. The variety of tasks and activities meant for achieving the aims of foreign language teaching (practical, educational, cultural, personality developing, strategic) is not limited and depends on the teacher's professionalism. But still, the atmosphere at the English lesson is far from good. Students get bored and tired of routine work in the classroom too quickly which results in the low level of mastering the language. One of the possible ways out of this situation is the application of humor into language teaching.

Those persons engaged in foreign language learning know well that the appropriate introduction of a joke in the course of classes cannot only revive student's flagging interest but can contribute to his understanding and mastering of the subject matter as well. But still, humor being included in textbooks has not been regarded by scientists and educators as a very essential constituent part of the educational process.

This slip makes realizing the goals of foreign language teaching much more difficult. Moreover, two of them – socio-cultural and strategic ones cannot be achieved in the full volume. The person who studies English and is going abroad to one of the English speaking countries should realize the unique place of humor in British society. The Englishmen use humor in their everyday life not even in funny situations instead of the abusive words and indignant intonations. Besides, no one can be considered a second language personality without being able to use humor adequately in a certain situation.

But the thing is that a teacher as the main leader of the training process should be well aware of all the genres of the English humor, and the techniques of explaining how it functions in any definite situation. For that purpose, jokes, aphorisms and different works of verbal art can be used. They are reading prose and verses by Jerome. K. Jerome, Maurice Baring, Pelham Grenville Wodehouse, Victor Sandom Pritchett, Mark Twain, Henry Graham Greene, Edward Lear, Lewis Carroll, Rudyard Kipling, T.S. Eliot can contribute significantly to broadening students' outlook.

So, studying humor during English classes is very important because knowing the peculiarities of English and American temper the learners of foreign languages are ready to enter the system of international and world cultures and behave naturally either in British or American societies.

It stands to reason that mood, like any other abstract notion, is versatile. Although issues of humor were investigated by such sciences as linguistics, psychology, philosophy etc., it is still not studied to a great depth. Humor usually requires a particular language. It is based on surprise. Its essence lies in two ingredients: the relevance factor and the surprise factor. It means that
something relevant to the audience is presented first and then goes something different from what the audience expected.

Understanding of humor is based on three factors: the case of communication, the sender, and the receiver of the message. The result of a humorous act is the level of understanding the situation by the participants. There are three types of the programs vital for its understanding: cognitive, formal and emotional. Emotional schemes are more important for understanding the sense in humorous discourse than in other types of conversations.

In recent years humor as a socio-cultural phenomenon has been paid much attention too. It led to the foundation of the International Society for Humor Studies (ISHS), the scholarly organization dedicated to humor some researches.

Cultural characteristics influence humor peculiarities greatly. English humor known all over the world gives ample proof of this fact. It is an integral part of British society, which annoys and frightens foreigners very often. English dry sense of humor is called “understatement.” Americans’ love for imaginary stories has led to “overstatement.” In stock, people in both countries express their passion for practical jokes, puns, understated quips, parodies (burlesque), and frequent use of different kinds of irony. British also tend to nonsense, whimsical and black humor while Americans use a lot of slang and enjoy slapstick and physical comedy.

**Literature Review.**

Different aspects of humor attracted attention by English and American scientists. Willis Ken (2002) considered sense of humor from pragmatic and political aspects. According to psychiatrist Dr. Mailloux (2002), humor in psychology fulfills three main roles: being funny; expression of feelings or thoughts; a hostility transfer mechanism. Roeckelein J. E., Martin, Rod A. (2002) dedicated their investigations to psychological aspects of humor.

H. W. Fowler (1937) considered that most instances of verbal irony are sarcastic suggesting that the term “sarcasm” is more widely used. Bogel V. in his scientific works studied irony, inferences and other aspects of humor. Today scientists consider humor as a sociocultural phenomenon (International Society for Humour Studies (ISHS) Scientists study its role in business, entertainment and health care and how humor varies according to culture, age, gender, purpose and context. Russian scientists Dubovitskaya T. D. (2002), Vitin Zh. L. (1997), Livergant A. (1986) considered theoretical and methodical aspects of humor application at English lessons.

**Specificity and Problems of Teaching a Foreign Language at Non-linguistic Department**

English classes conducted in the academic groups, where English is not the primary subject, are aimed at mastering English as a means of communication in the network of the chosen profession. The main peculiarities of studying a foreign language in these groups are:

**Practical orientation**

Future police officers study a foreign language to get additional information concerning their future job. It presupposes the coordination of English lessons with significant subjects. During first English classes students get acquainted with general terminology and terminology
concerning their future profession. For this purpose, general scientific and popular scientific texts, as well as texts in the network of a chosen profession, are included.

The succession of education. The English syllabus at University rests upon the knowledge, habits and skills acquired in secondary school.

Few hours for class work. This fact increases the importance of self-education, especially with the help of educational technology. The efforts of teachers working in such groups should be focused on the methods of rational explanation of difficult themes checking up home assignments and correcting students' mistakes.

Language requirements concerning four types of speech activity are defined in the syllabus in the following way:

Reading: 1) reading original texts concerning definite specialty with the partial help of the dictionary; 2) finding out in a voluminous text the specified information, retelling it or writing the paper.

Speaking: 1) making up monologue utterances of different types (description, narration, reasoning, and argumentation); 2) taking part in discussions on scientific, professional and socio-cultural topics.

Writing: 1) ability to compile a business document, to express the plot of the text in the form of a summary or a plan; 2) ability to answer the given question in the written form.

Audition: “1) ability to understand the content of a text or message while listening to the audio record or communicating with the teacher or group; 2) ability to single out the main information in the text that was listened to” (Shchukin, 2007, p.148).

Thus, the realization of the main aims of Foreign Language Teaching (practical, educational, personality developing, cultural, and strategic) depends on the coordination of actions of students and a teacher. It means that students should spend more time working hard, possibly only if they are highly motivated. That is why all activities during English classes should be communicative and motivating. Examining the motivation of the academic work, the authors note here that the notion “motive” is closely connected with the notions “aim” and “need.” Interaction of these notions is known as the motivation sphere. This term includes all kinds of impulses: needs, interests, aims, stimuli, inclinations, and guidelines.

Scientists single out a set of motivation brands. Within the framework of non-linguistic departments, the following types are of particular interest:

1. communicative motivation, which bases on the need for communication.
2. linguistic cognitive motivation, which focuses on learning language phenomena.
3. profession-oriented motivation, which bases on getting professional knowledge utilizing foreign languages.
4. country-research motivation, which depends on the subject matter and personal interest of a student” (Dubovitskaya, 2002, p.42-45).

Success in mastering a foreign style in its cognitive function depends on acquiring the feeling of the language, obtaining complete satisfaction of cognitive motives while studying a
foreign language, forms a stable interest in learning it. Using a foreign language as a means of getting specific information (reading newspapers, magazines, and explanatory dictionaries) makes a foreign language indispensable in learner's cognitive activity, and, at the same time, a foreign language itself increases students' cognitive activity. Thus, it leads to increasing the motivation for studying a foreign language.

The objective of the article – analyzing humor as linguistic and sociocultural phenomenon. The objectives of the article - analyzing scientific, methodical and pedagogical literature; investigating the peculiarities of British and American humor; singling out and analyzing the basic language means used in humorous discourse.

Methods.

In the our research following methods of investigation are used: theoretical methods devoted to analyses of scientific, methodical literature; contrastive linguistic method aims to provide the establishment of valuable theoretical and practical results on some aspects of British and American humor; empirical methods dealing with questioning, testing and experimenting to check the cadets' knowledge of British and American culture.

Results.

As numerous investigations show, motivation for studying a foreign language among students of Ukrainian non-linguistic departments is not high. As a result, they don't develop their language habits and skills independently. They read literature on major subjects only in their native language and a lot of useful information in English, which can be used for their studies, remains aside. It prevents students from progressing neither in their specialty nor in foreign languages. Besides, students are not ready to participate in intercultural communication, to take the floor at the international conferences not only because their language skills and habits are not developed enough but also because they don't feel confident and secure when talking to foreigners. Thus, students should watch authentic movies and read original books, which will help them to understand the way of the behavior and thinking typical for English-speaking countries, carefully analyze them and take the opportunity to participate in intercultural communication in reality. Thus, we see that all the competencies (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, socio-cultural, social and strategic) being the constituent parts of the communicative competence are equally crucial for the educational process at higher schools.

Discussion. Selection and Systematization of Humorous Material

As it stated before, motivation is one of the main factors on which students' proficiency depends. After the profound analysis of this phenomenon and its significance for the society, we have decided to apply humor at English classes at the university to persuade if its powerful influence could make the educational process more effective.

It aims at telling the effectiveness of complex exercises containing the elements of humor. Our pedagogical experiment consisted of two tasks. The first task was to reveal the level of students' motivation and its type (extrinsic or intrinsic), and their ability to work, which is essential for the students of law faculty. The second task was to work out and apply the set of exercises containing humorous elements. The third task was to investigate changes in students' motivation...
and ability to work independently after introducing funny activities. The fourth task was to analyze the results of the experiments and approve or disapprove our hypothesis that humor application at English classes at university increases students' motivation. We put in the forefront the objective of working out and approving the complex of exercises containing the elements of humor.

The pedagogical experiment consisted of stating, forming, and controlling stages. The authors decided to divide students of law department who study English for particular purposes into three groups.

The stating stage aimed to reveal the level of students' motivation and its dominating type (extrinsic or intrinsic), and the level of students' ability to work independently. The results of questioning were the following: in all three groups the level of intrinsic motivation was deficient. The extrinsic type of motivation prevailed.

We concluded that such results were unpredictable. As the authors said before, students of non-philological faculties are not likely to have very high motivation in studying a foreign language. As to the level of students' ability to work independently in all three groups, it was rather deficient. However, we consider that their interest in English learning can be arisen by some new methods of teaching.

To appreciate a cultural joke, learners must be familiar with the cultural practices of a nation, society, or community. The example of a cultural fun the research presents below:

(a) – Do you know what I got for Father's Day?
   – No, what?
   – The bill for Mother's Day.
(b) Father's day always worries me. I'm afraid I'll get something I can't afford.

Having defined the level of students' motivation and the level of their ability to work independently, we came up with the second stage of our experiment that is the forming stage. Jokes and humorous anecdotes are pedagogically useful because the texts are short and provide students with light reading and opportunity for listening comprehension in class, in the language laboratory, through the Internet. The brevity of these texts may provide a refreshing change from those longer reading assignments – short stories, plays, and novels. To increase students' lexical competence as rapidly as possible the vocabulary that is part of humorous material was introduced before the presentation of puns of this type.

Learners have to know that in some English speaking countries, special days are set aside to remember mothers and fathers to perceive the humor in (a, b). In the USA, Father's Day comes after Mother's Day. Both (a, b) involve a stereotype shared by individual members of the society that only men pay the bills and are supposedly the sole providers. It also imputes some irresponsibility to wives and children in their buying habits. The text also points to materialism and the superficiality of giving presents in the culture. Cultural jokes serve as mirrors of the sociocultural practices of the society and can inform the learner how some members of the community view themselves.
The joke is successful for members of the culture because these two special days occur relatively near one another. Father's Day is approximately one month after Mother's Day. The humor of this joke would undoubtedly be lost in a culture where these days are not celebrated (Stopsky, 1992, p. 68).

Proverbs are cultural jokes reflecting the way of thinking in the English-speaking society. The most famous are the aphorisms by Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde. Their aphorisms represent British wit in a full sense.

The present legal reasons for divorce are ridiculous. Bad temper is a better ground for divorce than adultery.

(Attributed to Shaw by Elbert Hubbard)
A doctor's reputation is made by the number of eminent men, who die under his care.
(Pearson, Postscript)
The Devil: An Englishman thinks he is moral when he is only uncomfortable.
(Man and Superman, Act III)

When an Englishman is sentimental, he behaves very much as an Irishman does when he is drunk. (John Bull's Other Island, Act II)

We learn from experience that men never learn anything from experience.
(Winston, Quintessence)
Love is a gross exaggeration of the difference between one person and everybody else.
(Reader's Digest, Oct. 1938)

What nonsense people talk about happy marriages! A man can be pleased with any woman, as long as he does not love her.

(The Picture of Dorian Gray)
A bad woman is the sort of woman a man never gets tired.
(A woman of No Importance)

If one could only teach the English how to talk, and the Irish how to listen, society would be quite civilized.

(An Ideal Husband)
Gossip is charming. But scandal is gossip made tedious by morality.
(Lady Windermere's Fan)
“One must be serious about something if one wants to have any amusement in life”
(The Importance of Being Earnest) (Humor i satira Irlandii, 1986, p. 320)

The work with aphorisms is performed in different ways. For example, they can learn by heart and discuss them. Students can write compositions on the topics of proverbs because they make people think about many essential things. During our educational experiment, the work with sayings was organized in the form of a game. The students of the second course were to learn the
proverbs at home, and in the classroom, they had a competition. The group was divided into two teams. The team, which started the game, was to say the first part of an aphorism, and the second team was to add the rest. This game was very dynamic, and the students enjoyed it.

Idioms are as aphorisms the indicators of one's mentality and British people, and primarily Americans widely use them in their speech. But students find it challenging to remember the idioms which have no correspondence with their language. We consider that emotional factor plays a significant role in English classes. So, to make the learning process more effective, we analyzed humor in English idioms.

Many idioms turn out to be funny as they reveal different sides of a phenomenon hidden from our eyes before. So, a teacher should pay attention to the meaning of such idioms, which will make students remember these expressions quicker. For example, to hit the ceiling – get angry or excited; shake a leg – to hurry; white elephant – something useless;

To pull the wool over one's eyes – to deceive, to dupe; a face so ugly it can stop a clock – a very unattractive look;

as merry as a cricket – cheerful; to talk through one's hat – to lie;

as complacent as a cat – self-satisfied; on the ball – quick, prompt, efficient, an excellent track record – a good service record; to play one's cards right – to take the most advantage from a situation, to lose touch – to lose contact; to be fired – to be discharged (Kunin, 2000, p. 288).

The work with the following expressions at English classes was organized in the following way: after finding out the meaning of the following expressions, a student got a card with the phrase in it, and he had to use all his acting skills to explain the meaning of the expression without words. The group was to guess what phrase that students had chosen. It should be noted, that due to emotional factor during English lessons the group remembered the phrases very well.

The website Jokes in Levels (https://www.jokesinlevels.com) is used for listening skills development. The jokes are in three levels of difficulty (Elementary, Intermediate, and Upper-Intermediate). There is a placement test on the site.

Cadets/students listen to a joke, except for the last sentence. The task is to guess the end of a joke or funny story.

If it is not possible to listen to the recording, activities with website materials can be organized as follows:
1. Pair work. Give both of students a printed copy of the joke at their level.
2. Students read the joke aloud. The first student reads one sentence and explains it into their language. The second student reads the second sentence and also explains it. They keep changing after one sentence and continue this way until they read the whole text.
3. One student reads the whole trick to their partner. Their partner tries to understand. Then their partner reads the joke to them.
4. If there are more students in the class, four or more, you can give one joke to half of the class and the second joke to the second half of the class. When they finish point 3., they can tell their joke to somebody from the other half of the class.

We also applied humor at English lessons: cultural jokes, word-based humor, and professional humor. The tasks for the students were much more complicated.

The difficulty of word-based or linguistic-based joke is to understand it; students should know the language very well. In word-based jokes, such phenomena as polysemy and homonymy are widely used.

Word power is fundamental to the comprehension of humorous discourse, but «humor competence and joke competence» are also essential. Learners do not always develop jokes and humor competence in a foreign language immediately, but, with sufficient input in humorous texts, this competence can be nurtured for steady development during the study. Another type of pun, the puzzle, is also appropriate at the advanced level. This type is more difficult for foreign language learners for they involve reference to two different meanings of a word or a play on two different word meanings. There are some examples below:

- When is a boat like a heap of snow?
  - When it's a drift.

- When does a cabbage beat a beet in growing?
  - When it gets ahead.

- Why is the attorney like a minister?
  - Because he studies the law and the profits.

English has a large stock of phonological jokes that bring together different meanings of a specific word or relate different word sense that sound alike. The learners have to know about the existence of «snowdrifts» and boats, “a drift”, about cabbages that come in “heads”, that is, “a head of cabbage”, “a head of lettuce” as distinguished from winning a competition, beating someone in a game or contest means «getting ahead». There is a play on the homophony between “beat” as a verb with the meaning to defeat and “beet” as a noun referring to a type of vegetable.

In the next example, humor derives from the contrast of two homophones in English, namely: profits» (the unexpected or surprise remark) and “prophets” (the expected one).

Translation of humor for Ukrainian students is indeed a challenge and highly creative for the translators must know the target and source languages and foreign culture exceptionally well. In dealing with the translation of television programs from English into other languages, the researcher states that, in some instances, “… the original jokes will have to be rendered as jokes that work as such which means that entirely different jokes may have to be substituted for the original ones” (Stopsky, 1992, p. 79).

Besides word-based jokes, cultural jokes were widely introduced. But they were connected with the students' future profession. Learning the topic “Crimes and Punishment. in the Court”
students got acquainted with numerous jokes about attorneys. Pictorial humor was also used as additional aids in teaching that topic.

Here are some examples of jokes about lawyers:

An Observation by Sandra Day O'Connor
(https://tdhollis.wordpress.com/2012/07/27/friday-funny-lawyer-joke/)  
“There is no shortage of lawyers in Washington, DC. There may be more lawyers than people”.

The Hundred-Dollar Bill
Santa Claus, the tooth fairy, an honest lawyer, and an old drunk were walking along when they simultaneously spotted a hundred-dollar bill lying in the street. Who gets it?
The old drunk, of course, the other three are mythological creatures.

A Reasonable Fee
A man phones a lawyer and asks, «How much would you charge for just answering three simple questions?»

The lawyer replies, “A thousand dollars.”
“A thousand dollars!” exclaims the man. «That's very expensive, isn't it?”
“It certainly is,” says the lawyer. «Now, what's your third question?”

Two Kinds of Lawyers
There are two kinds of lawyers: those who know the law and those who know the judge.

Mark Twain notes...
“It is interesting to note that criminals have multiplied of late, and lawyers have also, but I repeat myself”.

Bad Reputation
“Isn't it a shame how 99% of the lawyers give the whole profession a bad name” (Wright, 1996, p. 49)

Questions about Lawyers
“Q: How many lawyer jokes are there?
A: Only three. The rest are true stories.
Q: What's wrong with lawyer jokes?
A: Lawyers don't think they're funny and other people don't think they're jokes.
Q: If you have a bad lawyer, why not get a new one?
A: Changing lawyers is like moving to a different deck chair on the Titanic.
Q: How does an attorney sleep?
A: First, he lies on one side and then on the other.
Q: What's the difference between a lawyer and a leech?
A: When you die, a leech will stop sucking your blood and drop off” (Wright, 1996, p. 50).

Besides professional humor, students of law department study English proverbs and sayings as it is an integral part of British and American culture. Apart from traditional ways of learning them, the so-called anti-proverbs can be used for checking students' critical thinking.

Table 1. Sample of Tasks for Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anti-proverb</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence makes the heart wander.</td>
<td>Absence makes the heart grow fonder.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chaste makes waste.  
Time wounds all heels.  
Where there’s a will, there’s a relative.

Haste makes waste.  
Time heals all wounds.  
Where there’s a will, there’s a way.

As a result, the atmosphere at the lessons became friendlier, vivid, and that all the students worked actively both in the classroom and at home.

**Conclusions:**

Humor is a very significant phenomenon for consolidating human relationships in different spheres of life. English humor is an integral part of British and American society, so its knowledge is necessary for all learners of the English language.

Our research work aims to analyze humor as a linguistic and socio-cultural phenomenon and to approve the complex of exercises containing the elements of humor.

Our research work hypothesizes that humor application during English lessons increases students' motivation and their ability to work independently.

Our research paper consists of two main parts. The first one is devoted to theoretical aspects of humor analysis.

The second part presents the complex of exercises based on humor for developing oral and written speech habits, skills and stimulating students' interest in learning English.

The following methods were used in our research work: theoretical: analyzing scientific, systematic, and pedagogical literature on the problem; empirical: questioning, testing and experimenting.

Our pedagogical experiment resulted in increasing students'/cadets' motivation, broadening their mental outlook and knowledge of a foreign culture.

In such a way, our hypothesis was practically confirmed by the results which have been obtained, and fixed in the second part of our research paper.

Thus, we hope humor will be applied in the educational process more widely which will result in students' proficiency and consolidating relations between students and a lecturer.

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References


Binary Opposition “Man-Machinery” in R. Bradbury Science Fiction Works: A Cognitive Linguistic Approach

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Abstract
This paper focuses on cognitive-linguistic features of the binary opposition “man-machinery” in the science fiction works by R. Bradbury. The article aims to determine the means of the verbal representation of “man-machinery” and build frame models of its components in Bradbury’s science fiction writings. The study contributes to the stylistic and linguo-poetic analysis of binary oppositions in fiction texts, idiostylistics and genre theory. The study relies upon linguistic, stylistic, and discursive analyses as well as cognitive linguistic analysis to ensure the reliability and validity of the obtained results. Furthermore, four-stage algorithm methodology used in this research allowed the author to define a general literary context of the analyzed works, select the research material, analyze the identified means of binary opposition “man-machinery,” and model frames of its components. The obtained results reveal that the linguistic embodiment of the components of the binary opposition “man-machinery” is based on the use of the lexical – direct and figurative, stylistic, and discursive means of nomination. The study reconstructs the concepts – the constituents of the megaconcepts MAN and MACHINERY and on the basis of anthropocentric perception compares their conceptual domains, namely as physical, psychological, mental, and social phenomena. The research reveals conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY as a tool for constructing a science fiction model of the world in Bradbury’s texts within three parameters: space-time coordinates, cause and effect relationships, and valorative indicators. The introduced methodology of binary opposition analysis is perspective within the scope of science fiction, fiction texts and films.

Keywords: binary opposition, cause and effect relationships, conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY, frame modeling, science fiction model of the world, space-time coordinates, verbalization means of binary opposition components, valorative indicators

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Introduction

Binary opposition is presented as a universal principle of organizing the sign systems in the human world. Researchers from ancient philosophers to modern linguists have tried to comprehend the essence of binary perception, and, in particular, structuralists of the 20th century, specifically Trubetskyo (Trubetskyo, 1969), the founder of binary oppositions theory in phonology. Later, binary oppositions were researched in the fields of lexicology, stylistics, linguistic literary studies, cognitive linguistics.

Despite considerable advances in researching binary opposition as a characteristic feature of perceiving reality and thinking, there have been very few works that have provided studies on the binary opposition of science fiction texts in terms of cognitive linguistics and linguistic poetics. Therefore, this research aims to define verbal realization means of the binary opposition “man-machinery” by modelling frames of oppositional megaconcepts MAN and MACHINERY as a tool for building a science fiction model of the world in R. Bradbury’s science fiction texts.

The following sections cover analysis and linguistic interpretation of the verbal representation means of the constituents of the binary opposition “man-machinery” in science fiction works by Bradbury as well as peculiarities of the conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY. Reconstruction of the concepts – the components of the megaconcepts MAN and MACHINERY enables deeper understanding of the writer’s perception of man and machinery in his science fiction works. Building frame models of the MAN-MACHINERY components in Bradbury’s works ensures its content characteristics. The research compares three parameters to investigate MAN-MACHINERY as a tool for constructing a science fiction model of the world in Bradbury’s science fiction texts: space-time coordinates, cause and effect relationships, and valorative indicators.

Finally, the paper discusses the results of the linguistic cognitive research of the science fiction works by R. Bradbury and the interpretation of the obtained data. As a result, the study of the binary oppositions has obtained broader scope and perspectives, particularly in science fiction texts and in terms of cognitive linguistics as well as linguistic poetics.

Theoretical Background of the Research

Psychological and Philosophical Background of Binary Perception in the Human World

Considering the experience of scholars in the field of psychology, philosophy, and linguistics, binary opposition is represented as a universal principle of organizing the sign systems in the human world. Binary oppositions are embedded in human thinking evolutionarily and are conditioned by the peculiarity of signals transmission in the human brain causing stereotyping of the surrounding world within the framework of binary oppositions. The philosophical and logical background of binary thinking dates back to ancient scientists. Structuralists (Barthes, 1975; Baudrillard, 2000) introduced binary opposition as fundamental to human perception and culture. Philosophy and logic consider binary thinking to be connected with the binary perception of the surrounding world. Two objects can be determined by contrasting each other, which is typical for a scientific paradigm where phenomena are categorized basing on binary oppositions (Malinovich, 2011; Maslova, 2011; Ostrenko, 2014; Tetior, 2016).
**Binary Opposition in Language Systems**

The term “binary opposition” was first introduced to modern linguistics by Trubetskoy, (Trubetskoy, 1969) who developed binary opposition theory in phonology. He offered a system of binary oppositions of phonemes, which have characteristics like sense distinctive ability, a common basis for comparison, and balanced representativeness in the language phonetic system. Later, binary oppositions were studied in the field of lexicology: synonymy, antonymy (Denisova, 1996; Krapivnik, 2010; Willners, 2001), lexical and semantic groups, lexical and semantic fields (Akhmad&Chmel, 2015; Aliefirenko, 2013; Deese, 1965), stylistics: antithesis, oxymoron, metaphor, metonymy (Arnold, 2002; Fass, 1997; Johnson&Lakoff, 2003; Truszczynska, 2002/2003) linguistic literary studies: binarity as the basis of plot formation in the literary work, e.g. “life-death”, “good-evil” (Odintsov, 2004; Khaitrudinova, 2012).

**Conceptual Opposition as Main Principle of Reality Categorization**

Cognitive linguistics paradigm uses the term oppositional concepts (Ponomariova, 2008; Romashenkova, 2012; Semegyn, 2012) determined as mental units that reflect the multivector axiological content of two opposite realities and are linguistically and culturally marked. According to a cognitive linguistic approach, the conceptual opposition model leads in interpreting social interaction and has universal grounding in different cultures. This is proved by regular systems of conceptual binary oppositions in different cultures (Antonova, 2016; Dubchak, 2011; Prykhodchenko, 2017; Sakharova, 2007). Binary oppositions are “two-member units whose left component is positively marked and right component is negatively marked, which presupposes mandatory axiological meaning of the opposition” (Sysoiev, 2010, p. 270).

**Research Methods**

The research is developed on the basis of linguistic poetics methods and cognitive linguistic analysis in the form of an algorithm consisting of four stages.

The first stage study reveals a general literary context in which the science fiction novels and short stories by Bradbury were created using linguistic poetics analysis. A genre analysis of the writer’s science fiction texts highlighted their peculiarities. Bradbury’s science fiction focuses not only on the technical advances but also the technical progress considered by the author as a component of consumer society with moral and psychological consequences being crucial for the writer. Therefore, Bradbury’s texts are psychological texts based on science fiction full of symbolism and philosophy.

The second stage involved selecting the research material: a continuous sample of 2,187 means of nomination of the binary opposition “man-machinery”, of which 1,117 units nominate man and 1,070 nominate machinery. Almost equal distribution of the nomination means proves that both man and machinery are equally important for the author in an attempt to reveal the interaction between them. Thus, such endeavors can be considered one of the main genre features of Bradbury’s science fiction works.

The third stage of the study applied linguo-stylistic and discursive analysis of identified means of opposition “man-machinery”. Results enabled a comparison of the components’ content of this binary opposition in the Bradbury’s science fiction writings.
Cognitive linguistic analysis and frame modelling of the MAN-MACHINERY components in fourth stage revealed them to be megaconcepts – the highest level of abstraction concepts that have hierarchical structure (Nikonova, 2008; Prykhodko, 2013) and provide detailed information of the above-mentioned conceptual binary opposition. The reconstructed information made it possible to characterize conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY as a constituent of Bradbury’s world model represented within three parameters: space-time coordinates, cause and effect relationships, and valorative indicators.

**Results**

The research results revealed that the linguistic embodiment of the binary opposition “man-machinery” components in the writer’s works is based on the use of lexical, lexical and stylistic, and discursive means of nomination. For each type of means, the subgroups are distinguished on the basis of functional and thematic parameters, the thematic groups are systematized, and the most essential characteristics of the man and machinery represented by such nomination means are identified. It was determined that the basis of nomination of the components of binary opposition “man-machinery” is lexical means of direct nomination (59.26%), while the share of means of figurative nomination is 29.08%, and discursive means constitute only 11.66%.

The lexical means of direct nomination (59.26%) used as a means of verbalizing the binary opposition “man-machinery” in Bradbury’s science fiction works are intended to name objects of the fiction world, their actions, states and essential characteristics, and represented by means of direct substantive (20.94%), attributive (26.29%) and processual (12.03%) nomination. The means of direct substantive nomination are formed by concrete and abstract nouns, whereas the means of direct attributive nomination are formed by adjectives, present and past participles, adverbs and attributive groups with internal predication. Lastly, the means of direct processual nomination are verbs of denoting actions and states.

The associations that emerge in the writer’s consciousness in relation to man and machinery are represented by the means of figurative nomination – tropes (29.08%), distributed according to the type of meaning transfer into the groups of metaphorical (28.72%) and metonymic (0.37%) means. The means of metaphorical group are represented by metaphor (e.g. “I just sat in my car, smiling, feeling of that flannel with my ears. I felt drunk with Freedom!” (Bradbury, 1953b, p. 3) – to demonstrate an emotional state of “man”), personification (e.g. “His wife paused in the middle of the kitchen and watched the stove busy humming to itself, making supper for four.” (1950, p. 1) – to demonstrate action features of mechanical appliance able to act like man), epithet (e.g. great python – to nominate fire hose), and simile (e.g. “The Nose [of the City] sifted and worried this air, like a connoisseur busy with an ancient vintage.” (1951, p. 157) – to demonstrate mechanical city ability to act like man), while the metonymic group is presented by metonymy and synecdoche. Metonymy is used to reveal the qualitative features of the component “machinery” of the binary opposition “man-machinery” and emotional state of the component “man” of the binary opposition “man-machinery”: “He felt his body divide itself into a hotness and a coldness, a softness and a hardness, a trembling and a not trembling, the two halves grinding one upon the other.” (1953a, p. 10). Synecdoche can be exemplified by interpretation of the walls of the house as the absent interlocutor by one of Bradbury’s main characters, symbolizing his loneliness, that
is his emotional state: “Of course I'm happy. What does she think I'm not? he asked the quiet rooms.” (1953a, p. 4).

A tool of demonstrating how man and machinery “fit” into the fiction reality created by the author is the means of discursive nomination of “man-machinery” (11.66%) that do not have a clear syntactic structure. The following example of “machinery” demonstrates its signs of emotional state (3.92% of the identified units). As Bradbury created it to replace people in science fiction texts, it acquires certain features of a person: “Braling Two gestured irritably. “And when you come back from having a good time, back in the box I go.” (Bradbury, 1951, p. 153). In this abstract, a marionette is created to replace a man, which shows sadness because it is a substitute and cannot exist independently. Describing the situation that the marionette is hidden whenever the original person is present, the author accentuates that even created to imitate man, machinery cannot experience and demonstrate the emotions of a person.

Analysis, systematization, and comparison of components’ different levels of “man-machinery” verbalization in Bradbury’s science fiction works distinguished the common and distinctive features in the nomenclature and thematic groups of these means, leading to the following conclusions: man is presented through the inner world, while machinery, whose purpose and actions perform for or in relation to humans, is presented through external signs and its communication with other characters. Both man and machinery are described through the prism of their perception by a man; therefore, the “man-machinery” features are anthropocentric.

Bradbury’s inventory of thematic groups of “man-machinery” made it possible to reconstruct the concepts – the constituents of megaconcepts MAN and MACHINERY. These megaconcepts are structured in the form of frames composed of concepts-slots, grouped into parceles that form conceptual domains. The basis for comparing the conceptual domains of the megaconcepts MAN and MACHINERY and their components is anthropocentric perception of man and machinery in the writer’s works.

The following conceptual domains were compared: 1) “man as a physical phenomenon” (28.11%) and “machinery as a physical phenomenon” (76.82%); 2) “man as a psychological phenomenon” (44.13%) and “machinery as a psychological phenomenon” (7.66%); 3) “man as a mental phenomenon” (21.66%) and “machinery as a mental phenomenon” (1.68%); 4) “man as a social phenomenon” (8.51%) and “machinery as a social phenomenon” (13.83%). Comparing these conceptual domains was performed both on the basis of common and distinctive features in the nomenclature of parceles and concepts-slots within the conceptual domain as well as on the sense content of its constituents.

An analysis of Bradbury’s MAN-MACHINERY as a component of the science fiction model determined that machinery has a wider range of possible actions and is more active than man, while man is superior to machinery regarding the ability to interact psychologically or emotionally with the world, the broader range of mental qualities of a man compared to machinery, and the ability to become a full member of society that is inaccessible for machinery. MAN-MACHINERY is considered a tool for constructing a science fiction model of the world in Bradbury’s science fiction texts. There are three parameters of the science fiction model of the world to be compared: space-
time coordinates (physical parameters, movement in space, physical interaction with the outside world, mutual influence of human and technology, and the ability to change in time), cause and effect relationships (socialization and perceiving the world) and valorative indicators (ethical evaluation, aesthetic evaluation, aesthetic and ethical evaluation and utilitarian evaluation).

It is revealed that, within the space-time coordinates, the most important aspect is the dynamics that is manifested as an emotional one for the man and as the physical one for machinery:

Table 1. *Organization of space-time coordinates of the conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Space-time coordinates</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MAN</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MACHINERY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical parameters</td>
<td>– naturality</td>
<td>– mechanisms and their components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– originality</td>
<td>– imitation of man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement in space</td>
<td>– slowness</td>
<td>– speed, smoothness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– use of the own body resources</td>
<td>– use of the technical devices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– restrictions</td>
<td>created by man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– great dynamics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical interaction</td>
<td>– slight activity</td>
<td>– significant activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with the outside world</td>
<td>– inner world direction dominated</td>
<td>– outside world direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>over outside world direction</td>
<td>dominated over inner world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– sound perception</td>
<td>– sound production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutual influence of</td>
<td>– almost does not affect machinery</td>
<td>– negative effect on man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>human and technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to change in</td>
<td>– wide range and significant dynamics</td>
<td>– restricted psychological and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>of psychological and emotional</td>
<td>emotional state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>state</td>
<td>– unable to change in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– able to change in time under</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>certain circumstances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within the framework of cause and effect relations, a person is characterized by a high level of socialization and an empirical way of perceiving the world; in contrast, machinery is characterized by the inability to socialize and analytically perceive the world:

Table 2. *Organization of cause and effect relations of the conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause and effect relations (processes schemes)</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MAN</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MACHINERY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>– social hierarchy</td>
<td>– no social hierarchy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Within the framework of valorative indicators, a person can receive both a positive and a negative evaluation. In contrast, machinery is usually perceived negatively since the person is considered as an individual creature, endowed with a wide range of possibilities and states, and overuse of technology destroys one’s personality and makes technology harmful for society:

Table 3. Organization of valorative indicators of the conceptual binary opposition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valorative indicators</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MAN</th>
<th>Parameters of an opposition concept MACHINERY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethical evaluation</td>
<td>– can be positive and negative</td>
<td>– mostly negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– positive evaluation of a person who restricts use of technology and is able to understand the surrounding world</td>
<td>– negative evaluation is connected with the person's fear of machinery power and inability of machinery to have the emotions of a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– negative evaluation of a person who over-relied on technology does not pay attention to living being and nature around</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic evaluation</td>
<td>– can be beautiful and ugly as man is created by nature, its appearance is genetic and cannot be controlled by man</td>
<td>– in most cases – beautiful as it is created by a person who is able to create any appearance of machinery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic-ethical evaluation</td>
<td>– light colours and diminutive forms represent positive evaluation</td>
<td>– light colours represent positive evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian evaluation</td>
<td>– usefulness of a person for other people is not considered</td>
<td>– created by man, the main purpose of machinery is to be useful to people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– as machinery is automatized its features can be evaluated both positively and negatively</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Science fiction works by Bradbury oppose man and machinery forming different vector phenomena despite having a common basis. “Man” receives more positive evaluation and dominant position over “machinery”. The linguistic interpretation of the components of “man-machinery” proves that they are actualized in the science fiction by Bradbury at lexical, stylistic and discursive levels. This paper reveals the conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY as a
tool for constructing a science fiction model of the world in Bradbury’s science fiction texts within three parameters: space-time coordinates, cause and effect relationships, and valorative indicators.

The suggested methodology has potential application in discourse studies, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. The obtained results contribute to linguo-stylistic studies of binary oppositions in fiction texts and enrich the system of knowledge of idiostyles. Frame modelling and comparative analysis of the structure and content of the constituents of the conceptual binary opposition MAN-MACHINERY strengthens the positions of cognitive linguistics in the sphere of semantics analysis as well as contributes to genre theory and linguistic poetics.

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Rhetoric Strategies in the Presidents’ Speeches: Ukrainian versus English

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Abstract
The article focuses on the prominent stylistic devices of the language, gives their definitions, and examines the effectiveness of their use in the political speeches of the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Presidents of Ukraine, and the President of the United States of America. It studies the rhetorical strategies that help the speakers to achieve the desired goal effectively, and add persuasiveness to the addresses. The article aims to reveal the similar tendencies in rhetorical speeches used by the political leaders. The research method, which includes two stages, has been presented. The first stage consisted of material collection. The second stage consisted of two sub-stages of the study and included the description, and the systematization of the obtained data. The significance of the research lies in the fact that the similar traits in political speeches in different countries have been defined. The further studying of the political speeches of the political elites can enable to deepen the knowledge about rhetorical strategies in the sociolinguistic aspect.

Keywords: discourse, English, linguistics, political texts, rhetorical devices, Ukrainian

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Introduction
In the modern world, the degree of politicization of society has been growing in recent decades. Peoples are involved in inter-party struggles, election campaigning, the political debates, they monitor the significant political events all over the world. More and more political words enter the vocabulary; politicians tend to use more rhetoric devices in their public speaking. Moreover, one of the most notable features of the pragmatic political texts is a large number of manipulative techniques. As Demyankov stated (2002), the primary purpose of the political discourse is to persuade the addressee and motivate to action (p. 33).

The discussion will be easier, if we explain some important terms to use. The modern scholars distinguish between the discourse and the text. Wodak (2009) argues that “discourse implies patterns and commonalities of knowledge and structures, whereas a text is a specific and unique realization of discourse” (p. 39).

In political discourse, rhetorical figures have a specific purpose: to create a particular rhythm of a phrase or a whole piece of text, to highlight the most essential semantic elements of speech, to mobilize attention, impose ideological values, increase emotional influence and level of consciousness manipulation. According to Ŷefimov (2004), rhetorical devices can be divided into several groups according to the type of sentence model transformation: 1) ellipsis, nominal sentences, aposiopesis, asyndeton, parceling, 2) repetition, enumeration, tautology, polysyndeton, and parallel constructions, 3) change of word order, separation of members of the sentence, 4) rhetorical questions. In Klyuyev’s (2001) opinion, there are ‘micro’ figures of speech, such as metathesis, prosthesis, alliteration, etc.; and there are ‘macro’ figures of speech, which, in turn, are divided into constructive devices (parallelism, anaphora, epiphora, etc.), and destructive devices (inversion, ellipse, parceling, etc.).

The importance of the topic is due to the growing role of political discourse in the world, and the lack of works on the comparative study of Ukrainian, American, and British politicians’ speeches. It is hypothesized that the rhetorical devices have national features, for example, specific figures of speech are more characteristic for certain cultures. Therefore, this research fills the research gap to the literature on political linguistics.

Literature Review
Since the primitive states, the power of the words of nation leaders have always influenced on the feelings of other people and that was used by the rulers of any society. The first scientific studies devoted to problems of political communication appeared in the days of antiquity. Some questions about language and politics were described in the works by Plato (1894), Aristotle (1999), Cicero (2014), and other ancient philosophers. Political linguistics in many countries at the present stage of development of scientific thought is represented by researches carried out at an interdisciplinary level. The achievements of cognitive linguistics, sociolinguistics, text linguistics, stylistics, and rhetoric are actively used in political linguistics. Studies of various aspects of political linguistics are based on the works of such scientists as Demyankov (2002), van Dijk (1997), Edelman (1964), Hahn (1998), Kovalevskaya (2001), Kondratenko (2007), Lakoff & Johnson (2008), Petlyuchenko (2009), Wodak (2009), and others.
It must be mentioned that the political discourse became the object of the scientific studies of Demyankov (2002), van Dijk (1997), Fetzer (2013), Kondratenko (2017), Serazhim (2002), and other scientists. One of the priority areas of modern research in political linguistics in Ukraine is devoted to the political discourse.

In Ukrainian studies, the discourse has been actively studied since the 90s of the last century. The political discourse was considered in Didenko’s dissertation research (2001); in particular, the researcher analyzed political speeches as a type. In the monograph by Kondratenko (2007), general theoretical and applied aspects of political discourse are highlighted; in particular, the concept of political discourse and political communication is defined. In the monograph by Petlyuchenko (2009), the features of the speech of Ukrainian and German political leaders are presented with the help of the linguistic and discursive approach, particularly, the verbal and non-verbal specificity of oral appellative discourses of modern politicians in Germany and Ukraine is revealed. Specific attention is paid to the paralinguistic features of the speech of political leaders.

According Mesenyashina et al. (2016), the primary function of political discourse is the power struggle. In this regard, Didenko (2001) divides all political speeches into parliamentary, pre-election, party, congratulatory, festive. Studying the semiotics in the political discourse, Sheigal (2000) describes the following categories of genres: 1) ritual genres (inaugural speech, anniversary speech, traditional radio address); 2) orientation genres (party program, constitution, presidential message on the situation in the country, report, decree, agreement); 3) agonal genres (slogan, advertising speech, election debates, parliamentary debates) (p. 330). Mesenyashina et al. (2016) claims, that in all political addresses, the suggestiveness dominates over informativeness.

The Rhetoric Peculiarities in State Leaders’ Speeches

The verbal means of expression are often used in public speeches of Ukrainian Presidents (1st. Leonid Kravchuk (1991–1994), 2nd. Leonid Kuchma (1994–2005), 3rd. Viktor Yushchenko (2005–2010), 4th. Viktor Yanukovych (2010–2014), Acting. Oleksandr Turchynov (2014), 5th. Petro Poroshenko (2014–2019), 6th. Volodymyr Zelenskyy (2019–Present)). The number and quality of rhetorical devices of all Presidents of Ukraine are different. In general, in the world, the most recognizable figures, which are in demand, should be evident to the average citizen, understandable to them, and therefore very useful. According to Fedoseev (2018), these are the figures based on various repetitions, among which the most popular are anaphora and parallelism, and based on the omission of any component of the expression of the reduction figure, the most popular of which is the ellipse.

There are lots of repetitions in every speech of Ukraine’s presidents and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom. According to Didenko (2001), the repetitions actualize and fix in the mind of the addressee the keywords, they increase the perception of the content, and stimulate the public. For example: “In fact, the barrack, built 70 years ago, we have to rebuild in 18 years into a normal house. Although all the structural elements were intended for the barracks, the architects were used to building only the barracks” (Yushchenko, 2009). The third President of Ukraine called the former Soviet Union and its communist system a recurring token ‘barracks’ in a figurative sense, with a negative connotation, as opposed to the modern state system, represented in the image of an ordinary house. The rhetoric of the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Boris Johnson (2019
— present) is always associated with topical issues that concern to millions of British citizens. For example, speaking about the COVID-19 pandemic, he says: “It is now almost two months since the people of this country began to put up with restrictions on their freedom – your freedom – of a kind that we have never seen before in peace or war” (Johnson, 2020). The repetition of the word freedom is used to enhance the expressiveness of the appeal. A kind of repetition is an anaphora, designed to perform similar functions, and, besides, it can help to organize rhythmic text, make it easier to perceive. All analyzed Ukrainian and British speeches are saturated with anaphors. For example, “A nation that has managed to survive and preserve itself in the fiery crucible of revolutions, two devastating world wars, fratricidal conflicts, severe famines, and repressions. The people who took the blow of Chernobyl and shielded humanity from the global catastrophe. A nation that felt united” (Kuchma, 1999). Anaphora strengthens the sense of patriotism, the importance of the people, such as, in Johnson’s statement: “We must protect our NHS. We must see sustained falls in the death rate. We must see sustained and considerable falls in the rate of infection. We must sort out our challenges in getting enough PPE to the people who need it, and yes, it is a global problem, but we must fix it” (Johnson, 2020). Like all types of repetitions, parallel constructions are designed to expand the sentence model. For example, “Throughout my life, I tried to do everything to make Ukrainians smile. Now I will do everything so that Ukrainians at least do not cry anymore” (Zelenskyy, 2019). On the one hand, the syntactic parallelism, that is the arrangement of words in several phrases in an identical order, allows the speaker to make the element of the text as expressive as possible. On the other hand, it helps to add more deep meaning and emotions to the speech; the description becomes fuller, voluminous, and bright.

The figures of addition include the amplification standard in Presidential speeches, and the accumulation of homogeneous elements of language helps to enhance expressiveness and emotionality. For example, “The country is in a complicated situation - the lack of a state budget for the current year, huge debts on foreign borrowing, poverty, a collapsed economy, corruption” (Yanukovych, 2010). Amplification with the injection of negative emotions is combined here with asyndeton (the lack of connectors between homogeneous members). Gradation often helps Presidents increase their emotional impressions when listing their achievements or the wrongdoing of previous governments. For example: “It is in line with European standards that we have reformed education, launched a new system of fair external testing in higher education institutions, joined the Bologna Process, and entered the single European educational space” (Yushchenko, 2009), and “Bit by bit, day by day, by your actions, your restraint and your sacrifice, we are putting this country in a better and stronger position, where we will be able to save literally thousands of lives, of people of all ages, people who don’t deserve to die now” (Johnson, 2020).

A kind of elliptical construction is zeugma, that is, a stylistic device in which one statement agrees with several logically heterogeneous members of the sentence, in which case the effect of unreasonable expectation can be created, and if the information has a direct and symbolic meaning, in other words, an interesting language game. For example, “It is a great honor to address free people who hold in their hands not only the Ukrainian flag but also the fate of their country” (Yushchenko, 2005). It combines the expression literally ‘hold the flag’ with the phrase ‘hold the fate’, which has a symbolic meaning.
In political discourse, there are often evaluative judgments that form the antithesis. According to Mesenyashina et al. (2016), estimates are characterized by a pronounced polarity based on binary oppositions, for example: “We have become further from Moscow and closer to Europe” (Poroshenko, 2019). This statement does not allow for the possibility of parallel cooperation. Plahotnaya (2012) argues, that the antithesis is usually used to contrast their ‘correct’ actions or qualities with ‘wrong’ actions or qualities of their opponent to influence the decisions of voters (p. 92), for example: “It was a kind of first aid to the state, which suffered not because of its inability to compete successfully in the modern world, but solely because of the selfishness of the previous rulers” (Yanukovych, 2010).

Rhetorical questions are designed to attract attention and impress, but their use is closely linked to the speaker’s temperament. For example: “A year ago in New York, we discussed threats to the international future, made plans and forecasts. But could anyone at least imagine that 2020 would stage such a crash test for the planet? “(Zelenskyy, 2020).

There are 12 great and outstanding political speeches in American history, which are considered well-known. Among them are speeches by 11 American presidents and one of the most famous speeches of Martin Luther King (“I Have a Dream” speech). One of the 11 presidential speeches mentioned, the 12th belongs to Barack Obama. In the texts of the 44th President of the United States, there are many rhetorical figures which are mentioned below.

An example of the effective use of rhetorical questions is Barack Obama’s speech at George Mason University on 21st Century Economy: “… The first question each of us asks isn't, “What's good for me?” but “What's good for the country my children will inherit?”(Obama, 2009). This example harks back to President Kennedy’s inaugural speech of January 20, 1961, when he said, “And so, my fellow Americans: ask not what your country can do for you – ask what you can do for your country” (Kennedy, 1961). It was instantly recognizable to Americans and enhanced its impact. The speech in general, was about the present and future of each person in particular and the country. These rhetorical questions effectively combine the needs of all people for a happy end, from the President and every grown-up to each child and all young generations, whose future depends on the actions of adults, namely those to whom the above-mentioned speech is addressed.

In the following examples, we can see that Barack Obama uses the rhetoric questions not only while he is talking in front of the students, the youth, but also at the international meetings and summits when he addresses the politicians of the most powerful countries in the world. For instance, “And what the American people care about I suspect are the same thing that the British people care about, and that is, are you putting people back to work? Are businesses growing again? Is business – is credit flowing again? And, you know – and that’s just true concerning this summit. But when it comes to our Afghanistan policy, the question is going to be, have we made ourselves safer; have we reduced the risks and incidents of terrorism?” (Obama, 2009). Barack Obama uses the rhetorical questions to enhance the expressiveness of speech as one of the universal sociolinguistic methods of influencing the addressee. In this way, Obama says it is absurd to think that without radical change, the spread of terrorism or weapons will stop.
There is evident that the texts of Barak Obama’s speeches contain an abundance of rhetorical appeals, as well as rhetorical exclamations, among them, is “Hello America!” in Pre-Inauguration Address at the Lincoln Memorial. All the expressions mentioned above have an expressive means, inherent in Obama’s speeches (and all American Presidents’ rhetoric).

Thus, a characteristic feature of the texts of political speeches of the leaders of the United States, Ukraine, and Great Britain is a wide range of lexical and syntactic means used by the speaker. In Barack Obama's rhetoric, the use of various rhetorical figures creates novelty and uniqueness of images, which works effectively in the mentioned language situations. Boris Johnson often uses repetitions, which serve to provide higher efficiency of speech impact. A significant number of rhetorical questions, repetitions, metaphors are found in the speeches of Viktor Yushchenko, Petro Poroshenko, Volodymyr Zelenskyy. The Presidents Leonid Kravchuk, Leonid Kuchma, and Viktor Yanukovych often use such rhetorical devices as gradation and antithesis.

The Rhetorical Figures in the Ritual Genres
First of all, it must be noted, that the development of a typology of genres of political discourse is one of the debatable issues in political linguistics. Secondly, as stated above, there are some types of ritual genres, that is, the inaugural speech, the anniversary speech, the traditional radio address, etc. In this paper, we consider the first two types. Inaugural speech constitutes the verbal component of an integral communicative event of a ritual nature, i.e., the inauguration of the President. In many countries of the world, the newly elected president comes into force as the head of state only after the inauguration ritual, which provides for the mandatory issuance of a ritual text, for example, the president's oath.

Because the inaugural speeches are considered to be perhaps the most famous texts in terms of all the US presidents, they are seen as a kind of action plan that the people's representatives proclaim to the country. For example, Barak Obama, in his inaugural speech, addressed the audience with the words ‘My fellow Americans’ (Obama, 2013). This appeal immediately unites all listeners, representatives of the nation. Barak Obama thus encourages listeners to partner, which always contributes to a more effective solution to the outlined tasks. Later in the same speech, the President used another rhetorical device: ‘You and I’, the address, which in our opinion, unites an even wider audience, in fact, all those who are in the country but do not have citizenship: “You and I, as citizens, have the power to set this country's course. You and I, as citizens, have the obligation to shape the debates of our time – not only with the votes we cast, but with the voices we lift in defense of our most ancient values and enduring ideals” (Obama, 2013).

Anniversary speeches are a kind of the usual greeting genre, which we understand as a greeting on behalf of a political leader on a holiday or celebration. If we talk about the present President of Ukraine, the emotional Volodymyr Zelenskyy, for example, ultimately builds his New Year’s speech on rhetorical questions (there are 62 of them) in combination with the anaphora ‘Who am I?’. For example, “Who am I? A former photographer defending the country in the east? A former physicist who washes dishes in Italy? Or a former chemist who builds a skyscraper in Novosibirsk? Who am I? Anyone who has lived abroad for ten years and loves Ukraine on the Internet? The one who lost everything in the Crimea and started from scratch in Kharkiv? An IT guy who dreams of fleeing the country? Is he a prisoner who dreamed of returning home?”
Zelenskyy, 2019). Fedoseev (2018) claims, that the speech figures act not just as a means of linguistic expression, but as a means of the structural and semantic organization of discourse. (p. 50).

In anniversary speeches, various rhetoric devices are often used. For example, in the address, we meet the technique which is called hyperbaton. This is the separation of related stories, the unusual order of words in a sentence to highlight its individual elements. For example, “Today of all days, I want us to remember those Christians around the world who are facing persecution. For them, Christmas Day will be marked in private, in secret, perhaps even in a prison cell” (Johnson, 2000). Anaphora, reflecting the emotional mood of a political leader, is actively used both in the inaugural speeches and in anniversary speeches. For example: “Ukraine was known to the world. Ukraine has become popular. Ukraine has become desirable, even fashionable in the world” (Yushchenko, 2006). Another example of anaphora is in Boris Johnson’s speech: “My job is to make your streets safer – and we are going to begin with another 20,000 police on the streets, and we start recruiting forthwith My job is to make sure you don’t have to wait three weeks to see your GP, and we start work this week with 20 new hospital upgrades, and ensuring that money for the NHS really does get to the front line. My job is to protect you or your parents or grandparents from the fear of having to sell your home to pay for the costs of care …”(Johnson, 2019). Considering the examples of anaphora in the Greeting Easter speech, the fifth president of Ukraine Petro Poroshenko quotes the lines from the Apostle Paul: “One Lord! One faith! One baptism! And for us, it is another Motherland, because we are united by God and Ukraine” (March, 2015). Anaphora, in this passage, helps to emphasize the emotional mood of the speaker, increases the persuasiveness of the statement about the practicality of unity. To structure the speech, a repetition of one syntactic construction is used at the beginning of the sentence. This contributes to the concentration of the addressee.

Very often, modern politicians somewhat metaphorize their speeches with the same aim of reinforcing what they say. Metaphor is the transfer of signs and characteristics of one phenomenon to another to reveal the essence of the latter and achieve a particular aesthetic effect, the imagery of language, for example: “We believe that America’s prosperity must rest upon the broad shoulders of a rising middle class. We know that America thrives when every person can find independence and pride in their work; when the wages of honest labor liberate families from the brink of hardship” (Obama, 2013).

Metonymy is the replacement of one phenomenon by another, contiguous in essence. The third President of Ukraine Viktor Yushchenko was the only President to deliver the inaugural speech, not in the Verkhovna Rada (the building where the Ukrainian deputies meet for regular and ceremonial sessions), but on the Independence Square in Kyiv. That’s why, the list of addressees has expanded significantly. In total, five appeals were submitted in one speech, ranging from the generalized official name ‘Ukrainian people’ to the specific metonymic request ‘Khreschatyk’ and ‘Maidan’. Priority is given to the Ukrainian people as the most crucial addressee, after that, there is the appeal to guests, and in the last, there is the metonymic addresses. On the one hand, the choice of the metonymic form of the talk depersonalizes the addressees, that is, people who gathered during the inauguration on the Independence Square and Khreshchatyk.
Street in Kyiv. On the other hand, the separation of such addressees highlights the role of the Orange revolution in 2004 and the participants of those political events.

A large number of inaugural speeches are built on the principle of gradation. The speaker starts from a neutral emotional level, which gradually increases and by the end of the address, it may acquire the character of an emotional appeal, for example: “...we close the opportunity gap, giving millions of young people the chance to own their own homes and giving business the confidence to invest across the UK because it is time we unleashed the productive power not just of London and the South East but of every corner of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland the awesome foursome that are incarnated in that red white and blue flag who together are so much more than the sum of their parts” ...” (Johnson, 2019).

The use of antithesis (a rhetorical device in which two opposite ideas are put together in a sentence to achieve a contrasting effect) is not very often in the speeches of Presidents. Semantic oppositions are usually used in anniversary speeches, for example: “Dear nation, during my life, I was doing my best to make Ukrainians smile. I felt that it wasn’t just my job; it was my mission. In the next five years, I will be doing everything, Ukrainians, for you not to cry” (Zelenskyy, 2019).

Politicians also use various comparisons, personifications, for example: “No one in the last few centuries has succeeded in betting against the pluck and nerve and ambition of this country. They will not succeed today. We in this government will work flat out to give this country the leadership it deserves, and that work begin now.” (Johnson, 2019).

Depending on the purpose of the speech, the end should evoke certain feelings in the audience (anger, delight, hope, etc.), to confirm what the speaker said. For example: “And whoever you are, wherever you are, and however you’re celebrating, have a very happy Christmas, and I’ll see you all again in the New Year.” (Johnson, 2019).

All these rhetorical figures (and we have listed only the most effective and most commonly used ones), in principle, help enhance the impact of the politician’s speech. Any of these techniques can be especially useful both in anniversary speeches and in inaugural addresses.

Conclusion
Thus, the analysis showed a wide usage of rhetorical devices (figures of speech) in the Presidents’ speeches. We conclude that in the addresses of the Presidents of Ukraine, the President of the United States of America, and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, rhetorical devices help to attract attention, diversify the presentation, help to highlight the main idea of the address. The most common are repetitions, anaphors, antitheses, ellipses, but rhetorical questions belong to the individual style of the speaker.

We see prospects for further comparative researching of the rhetorical devices in the political texts of orientation and agonal genres in Ukraine, the USA, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Such study reveals the way the politicians use the linguistics and stylistic constructions in the addresses.
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