LANGUAGE ENVIRONMENT IN UNIVERSITY: ACCESSIBILITY, QUALITY, SUSTAINABILITY

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HOW TO MANAGE A LANGUAGE CENTRE

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Abstract

This paper begins by some background information on the higher education system in Finland, the University of Tampere, and the Language Centre. I follow this information by briefly describing the strategic planning process model, and my experiences of implementing strategic management. I will highlight the Pedagogical Framework and the internal organization of the Language Centre, which features different committees that have a central role and a great deal of responsibility. I conclude with some reflections on how the strategic management has worked, and on some of the conditions required to make it work. I also comment on the co-operational development work conducted by the staff.

Keywords: Language Centre, strategic planning, strategic management, leadership, pedagogical framework

Introduction

This article is based on the keynote speech I gave in Riga on 9 May 2014, for the 'Language environment in university: accessibility, quality, sustainability' conference. The topic – the strategic management of a Language Centre – emerges directly from my work as the Director of a Language Centre. The character of this article is therefore more of a reflection on everyday practices than the result of research. I shall describe some key issues in the management of a university language centre, together with some fundamental issues in strategic management in general. Most importantly, I describe some of the core issues regarding my own Language Centre and its latest developments.

During times of stability, it does not greatly matter how well organizations are led because, to certain extent, they will lead themselves. If there are enough resources and the organizational mission is relatively clear to the personnel involved, things more or less may run themselves. In the times of change, however, the structures and culture of management – or the lack of them – become more visible and significant.

The Finnish higher education system

The Finnish higher education system consists of two complementary sectors: the universities and the universities of applied sciences (formerly known as polytechnics). Finland currently has fourteen universities and twenty-four universities of applied sciences. The mission of the universities is to conduct scientific research, and to provide undergraduate and postgraduate education based on this research to educate students who will serve their country and humanity. In carrying out this

mission, universities must interact with the surrounding society and strengthen the societal impact of research findings and artistic activities. (Ministry of Education, www.minedu.fi)

Great changes are taking place in the Finnish university sector. Over ten years ago, the government introduced a Quality Assurance Policy for higher education, so the universities found themselves writing quality manuals and being assessed and audited by the Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council (Finheec). In 2010, a fundamental structural reform was introduced that resulted in the implementation of new legislation. Consequently, universities became independent legal personalities instead of being directly linked to the state administration, as was previously the case. The universities got the right – and also some obligation – to source some of their resources themselves. This process of structural change is still on-going today.

As one result of the reform, we have witnessed a diversification in the ways language centres are organized. Previously, they used to be the so-called independent institutes (i.e., non-faculty institutions), but now they can be combined with a faculty, an international unit, a study service unit, and so on. The new ways of organizing the language centres have seldom been the result of the language centres' own initiatives, but have rather come from the universities' top-level management. In Tampere, there were serious plans to merge the language centres of the city's two universities – the University of Tampere and Tampere University of Technology – with the language-teaching unit of Tampere University of Applied Sciences. For various reasons, the plan was shelved, but the idea still lives on and it will probably make a comeback.

Thus, the scenario for language centres is rapidly changing, and in the times of change, the role of management and leadership is crucial. Managers must lead the changes, or else the changes will end up leading the language centres.

Language studies in higher education degrees

According to the Finnish Government's Decree on University Degrees (794/2004), the student must demonstrate in studies included in education for a lower or higher university degree or otherwise that s/he has attained:

    (1) *Proficiency in Finnish and Swedish,*[1] *and*

    (2) *Skills in at least one foreign language needed to follow developments in the field and to operate in an international environment.*

Since their foundation in the 1970s, university language centres have been responsible for planning and organizing the language and communication tuition compulsory for degrees. In addition to compulsory studies, language centres offer language services and optional courses in many languages.

During their studies, students take at least three or four compulsory language courses intended to provide them with the requisite language skills for their studies and also for later in working life. These compulsory courses are designed according

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[1]   Proficiency in Finnish and Swedish is required of civil servants in bilingual public agencies and organizations under Section 6(1) of the Act on the Knowledge of Languages Required of Personnel in Public Bodies (424/2003), and which is necessary for their field.

to the wishes of the faculties (or schools) and departments, thus the courses teach the language with a specific focus on the special field of the students. These courses include tuition in writing skills, discussion skills, specialist terminology and the current affairs of the culture and/or area in question.

The University of Tampere

What is now known as the University of Tampere began life in 1925 in Helsinki as an institution generally referred to as a 'civic college'. When it moved to Tampere in 1960, the institution had fewer than 1,000 students; ten years later it already had almost 7,000. In 1974, it became a university, and therefore owned by the state. Today, the University of Tampere has about 15,000 students and 9 schools (which replaced the faculties in the 2011 reorganization of the University).

Since 1975, the Language Centre has been classified as an independent institute of the University of Tampere. It specializes in the teaching (and research) of Languages for Specific Purposes. Its main function is to provide teaching in the official languages of Finland (Finnish and Swedish) and in foreign languages as required by the degree programmes of the University. The Language Centre provides language and communication skills that, in accordance with the University's strategy, 'empower global citizens to succeed and make a difference in the world'.

At the University of Tampere, 15 ECTS credits of communication and language studies are included in the Bachelor's degrees, which is the average amount for Finnish university degrees. The studies consist of five credits in Finnish academic writing and oral scientific communication, four credits of oral and written academic and professional Swedish, and six credits of academic and professional skills in a foreign language, which for the majority of students is English.

The Language Centre organizes all compulsory language courses at the University. In addition, it offers a wide range of courses on intercultural communication and less familiar languages. Students can also practise their language skills independently at Language Centre's Self-Access Centre.

The strategic planning process

Below, I present a basic model for a strategic planning process. A strategic planning process (or cycle) can be divided up into ten or twelve different phases, from the initial preparations, through the implementation of new strategies, and finally to the evaluation of the process and its results, which then can be the start for a next cycle of strategic planning.[2] The time span for such a strategic planning cycle is typically three to five years. In a more simplified version, the steps are:

1. Clarify mandates and mission
2. Assess the organization's external and internal environments to identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats
3. Formulate strategies to manage these issues

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[2] See, e.g., John M. Bryson (2011).

4. Establish an effective organizational vision
5. Develop an effective implementation process

Mandates and mission

As already explained, some communication and language studies are included in all Finnish university degrees as compulsory studies. This may be the most important element of a language centre's mandate; after all, the obligatory courses that the students need for their degrees are the Finnish language centres' *raison d'être.*

Another issue regarding mandates is the status of the Language Centre within the University. The rules and regulations state that language centres have been given the task of planning and providing language studies, and it is the only institution in the university that does so.

Mandates can also change. New kinds of organizational models for universities may lead to a change in a language centre's status, especially if higher education institutes of the two different types merge; universities and universities of applied sciences are so different in structure and management that it is not easy to foresee the implications of a possible merger of this kind.

The definition of mandates is also important because there may be false notions of what can be done and what cannot. In planning discussions with staff, it has been suggested that the University's Language Centre should start collecting fees for optional courses to cover the costs of offering a boarder array of courses. An interesting contribution to the political debate it may be, but it does not alter the fact that higher education is, by law, free of charge for students in Finland.

Concerning the mission and the mandate, one might argue that language centres are not academic institutions in the truest sense of the term because they do not conduct research, at least not in the conventional sense. It is correct that research is not an explicit task of language centres, and therefore they are neither given resources for research nor are they rewarded for conducting research. Nevertheless, in order to manage the tasks of a teaching institution in an academic environment, language centres require scientific research, action research, or at least a research-oriented approach to its work.[3] This approach can be termed *developing teaching through the means of research.*

Whatever the truth may be regarding research, language centres are considered by their staff to be expert institutions: language centres employ highly educated people, they have specific educational tasks that include evaluation and development, and their operational environment is university-based.

A good mission statement should say who we are, what we do, what we stand for, and why we do it. According to these principles, the mission statement of the University of Tampere's Language Centre could be:[4]

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[3]   For more on research on language centres, see Rontu and Tuomi (2013).

[4]   To be quite exact, this mission statement is a combination of texts from different strategic documents, and as such it is a reconstruction for the purposes of this article.

The Language Centre is an expert institution whose task is to provide the language tuition necessary for the degrees. The language teaching is functional and student-centred, and based on research knowledge. The Language Centre's effective language and international communication courses provide practical language skills that support academic studies, career development and research. The aim is that the students will be able to develop their language and communication skills to meet the needs of different situations in their studies and in the future working life. Language and communication skills are an integral part of academic competence in our increasingly international and interdisciplinary world.

Taking a closer look at the mission statement above, it appears to be a collection of very significant ideas. For example, the statement that 'language and communication skills are an integral part of academic competence' not only implicitly claims that the absence of language skills means a lack of academic competencies, it also promises that the Language Centre's courses are not just any old language courses; they are closely integrated and adjusted to the academic context and to the target student group's field of study. In a large multi-disciplinary university, there may be tens of study programmes from various fields of sciences, and meeting the needs of all of them can be quite a challenging enterprise.

'The Language Centre's effective language and international communication courses provide practical language skills that support academic studies, career development and research' represents a substantial promise. As efficiency in language learning is very much dependent on the learner's activity, this statement also means motivating the students, ensuring a good learning atmosphere, and so on. Moreover, the statement of focus in practical language skills can be hard for those teachers who would love to teach the students 'everything' about their language, and for whom seeing the language 'only' as a tool of communication may result in professional or even ethical problems.

Assessing environments

When assessing an organization's operational environment, it is useful to employ tools like SWOT (or SWOC) analysis. Internal factors that help in achieving the organization's objectives are called strengths and external helpful factors are called opportunities, whereas internal harmful factors are called weaknesses and external harmful factors are called threats, or, more constructively, challenges. This analytical tool is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1

SWOT/C analysis

	Helpful to achieving the objective	Harmful to achieving the objective
Internal	**S**trengths	**W**eaknesses
External	**O**pportunities	**T**hreats/Challenges

Frequently when using a SWOT/C method, one wants to place the same factor or circumstance both in the 'helpful' and 'harmful' columns. This is only natural since phenomena are often multi-dimensional and their helpfulness or harmfulness is

dependent on interpretation. In such a case, it is important to thoroughly discuss the different interpretations in order to achieve a shared view on them. In doing so, one might also find out what it would take to turn a weakness into a strength, and this may lead to new, innovative thinking.

In the analysis of the environment, one must apply a sufficiently broad perspective to cover all necessary aspects. When language skills and language learning are concerned, one should not disregard the policy making of the European Union and the Council of Europe. The use of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) links an individual language centre directly to the European level. On a national level, one must find out about the legislation concerning higher education as well as the Government's higher education policies, internationalization strategies, and so forth. At the local level, the rules, regulations, strategies and language policies of the University are crucial factors that shape a language centre's environment. Finally, within a language centre, the definition and redefinition of its basic task, shared understanding of mission and pedagogy, and the state and competencies of the personnel, to mention but a few, are central issues in understanding the internal environment.

'Internationalization', which has been a trendy term at universities for several years, represents a good example of the implications of an analysis on the environment. Internationalization is a quite vague notion and can mean many things. If it means a growing number of international students at the university, it probably means a growing need for teaching the local language(s) as a foreign/second language (L2), which of course from the methodological point of view is very different from teaching the same language as the student's mother tongue. If a language centre lacks this expertise, serious actions are necessary. Internationalization often brings with it the need to teach content courses through the medium of English, either to international students or to mixed groups of both domestic and international students. This often leads to a request for support services, such as translation and language revision, from the academic staff in faculties and the administration. To take a step further, there may arise an understanding that just changing the instruction language to English is inadequate; a more profound, pedagogical orientation is needed to meet the teaching and supervision needs of a multicultural, multilingual target group. How many of these new tasks finally land on the language centre's table is a matter of internal coordination within the university – and of course, a question of resources – but the language centre should at least make a thorough analysis on the situation and study the challenges and possible opportunities.

The Pedagogical Framework

Currently, the Pedagogical Framework[5] is the most important result of – and also tool for – strategic planning and management at the University of Tampere's Language Centre. The Framework is a set of shared pedagogical guidelines for the development

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[5]   The original document is in Finnish. The English version used as source here is an unpublished paper given at the 2010 CercleS conference by Robert Hollingsworth, Lecturer in English, one of the original authors of the Framework.

and implementation of all teaching at the Language Centre. It was created in a two-year project (2007–2009) by a special working group, and it is made accessible to all members of staff. In order to make it a fully official steering document, it was also accepted by the board of the Language Centre.

From a broader perspective, the Pedagogical Framework is one step in a long journey of development. It is the continuation of a project conducted in 2001–2003, where all courses offered by the Language Centre were calibrated to CEFR, and even more closely related to the application process of the nomination for Centre of Excellence in University Education, which was designated to the Language Centre between 2007 and 2009.[6] The Pedagogical Framework was the improvement strategy called for by a number of pedagogical weaknesses identified in the development process, such as a lack of cooperation between teachers and a lack of strategy within given languages.

The Pedagogical Framework states that the curriculum for all Language Centre teaching will be in the form of a study path, putting into practice the principles of cumulative learning. The curriculum and its implementation will form a consistent and transparent whole. These characteristics will manifest not only in the student's language path but also in individual languages and courses. In Language Centre teaching, learning will be conceived of as the outcome of the learner's own actions. The teacher will guide and support learning by, among other things, designing learning tasks and providing feedback. Students will employ appropriate learning strategies and be capable of assessing their own language and communication proficiency. Students will perceive language and communication skills as part of the development of their expertise, use their language skills actively, and be self-directed and plurilingual[7] learners of language and communication skills in their future working lives.

Furthermore, the Pedagogical Framework states that the faculties, departments and the Language Centre will have the shared idea that language and communication skills form an integral part of academic expertise and are part of the HOPS (personal study plan) guidance process. In our pedagogical actions, we take into account many *diverse types of learners* and many *points of departure*.

The following Competencies Grid (Table 1) comprises the competencies supported by Language Centre teaching. The table should be read cumulatively from left to right; therefore, the competencies of an academic expert in the column furthest to the right already include all the competencies in the columns to the left.

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6   The Finnish Ministry of Education has an economic incentive in 'Centres of Excellence in University Education'. Their purpose is to improve the quality and relevance of education and to provide support for continuous improvement of education. Commissioned by the Ministry of Education, the Finnish Higher Evaluation Council (FINHEEC) has implemented the evaluations for the designation of centres of excellence since 1998. For more information, see http://www.finheec.fi/index.phtml?l=en&s=84.

7   'Plurilingualism' refers to the ability of the individual to function in various communication situations using all previously acquired communicative skills in the first and subsequent languages, and likewise possess intercultural competence.

Table 1

Competencies Grid

	Language learning **(CEFR 5.1.4 – 6)**	Language awareness **(CEFR 5.2.1; 5.2.3.1)**	General communication **(CEFR 5.2.2; 5.2.3.2; 5.1.1.2,3)**	Expert communication
Knowledge	*The student has* • knowledge regarding the language learning process as well as appropriate learning strategies	*The student has* • knowledge of lexis, structures, pronunciation and orthography • knowledge of the structures of spoken and written texts as well as of cohesion • knowledge of the inter-relatedness of language and culture	*The student has* • knowledge of language use for different purposes • knowledge of the characteristics of differing communication situations, text types and style variants • knowledge of the factors governing linguistic interaction • knowledge of intercultural communication	*The student has* • knowledge of the terminology and communication of his/her own field and working life • knowledge of the factors governing academic and professional communication
Skills	*The student is able to* • employ language learning strategies • study independently • evaluate his/her own learning and proficiency • give and receive constructive feedback • employ appropriate learning strategies	*The student is able to* • understand spoken and written language • write and speak the language • employ language learning tools	*The student is able to* • understand spoken and written language • write and speak the language • employ language learning tools	*The student is able to* • communicate appropriately in contexts involving his/her own field and working life • communicate with experts in his/her own field and laypeople • read and write for academic purposes and has information search skills
Ethical principles and attitudes	*The student* • is able to take responsibility for his/her own learning • has a positive attitude toward(s) language learning, the maintenance and development of his/her language & communication skills as well as his/her other studies	*The student* • has an open and critical attitude toward(s) language and culture	*The student has* • the courage and desire to use languages • the desire to cooperate and to adhere to common ground-rules in communication situations • a tolerant and encouraging attitude toward(s) different communicators, for example in multicultural situations	*The student has* • the courage and desire to use languages in his/her own field and in working life as an expert and with laypersons • the desire to adhere to the ground rules governing academic and professional communication

# The internal organization of the Language Centre

Strategic planning and management can be realized in many ways, and much is dependent on the kind of the organization in question. In an expert organization, the members of the staff have usually developed a great deal of expertise in the relevant field and they usually want to have a say in the decision-making. Since the Language Centre's teachers are well-educated and their level of professionalism is high, they usually appreciate professional autonomy, which, in fact, is granted to them by University law. It is therefore not possible to proceed in a top-down manner; instead, it is important to create internal forums to enhance interaction as much as possible.

Four committees cover the main fields of operations and development at the University of Tampere's Language Centre. They are the Teaching Development Committee, the Communication Development Committee, the Research Development Committee, and the Staff Development Committee. The Chairs of these committees form the Steering Group together with the Director and two administrational experts, a study coordinator and a personnel coordinator. The idea behind this structure is to create a comprehensive overview of the unit's management.

Another grouping focuses on curricular matters. The Path Group comprises a group of teachers of different languages teaching the same target group (e.g., a faculty or study programme). This group provides the expertise in teaching matters related to its particular target group and it is responsible for the contacts with the schools. Negotiating with these stakeholders means a significant delegation of power and responsibility to the teachers.

Together, these groups and committees form the matrix illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2

The internal organization of the Language Centre
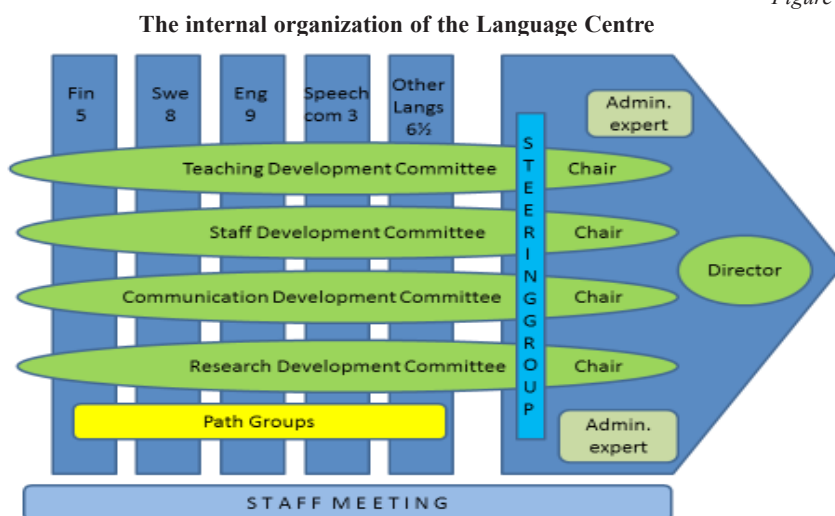
(Fin=Finnish, Swe=Swedish, Eng=English, Speech com=Speech Communication in Finnish, Other Langs=Other languages: Finnish as a second/foreign language, French, German, Russian, Spanish, Japanese and Chinese)

Reflections

The overall managerial system used at the University sets out the basic management lines for each of its units. Since the managerial system employed by the University of Tampere is more or less strategic management, it is natural that the Language Centre also uses strategic management. However, whatever the managerial system, it may be possible to implement at least some of the central features of strategic planning, namely setting goals, drawing visions, and making strategies. This planning can be done regardless of whether the central administration requests for it or not because it is useful for clarifying to oneself the direction one should be aiming at, and for defining and redefining one's basic task, and so on. Particularly in the times of change, strategic thinking may help one to find one's way. It may even help one to be proactive in making the moves necessary for success.

Another consideration concerns cooperation between teachers and the need to develop the work culture of a community of teachers. As pointed out earlier, strategic management usually entails lots of interaction among the staff. Creating visions and drafting strategies requires lots of discussion and the exposure of one's ideas on language, communication, and pedagogy to one's colleagues. Profound values, attitudes, and even feelings will be at stake. Furthermore, when really aiming at common goals, one must not only discuss but also negotiate to reach a shared view as the outcome.

Somewhat paradoxically, language teachers are not necessarily excellent communicators themselves when it comes to their own work community, even though they are experts in teaching language and communication to students. Determination and patience are essential in the creation of discussion culture where people are willing and courageous enough to express their ideas to their colleagues and where they are able to participate in collegial dialogue. In modern working culture, this collegial dialogue is an essential part of the teaching profession.

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REGULATIVE CULTURAL CONCEPTS AND THE PROBLEM OF THEIR VERBAL REPRESENTATION IN THE GLOBAL SOCIETY

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Abstract

Cultural and linguistic integration is based on the universal cultural and religious concepts represented by various verbal means on the level of language. At the same time there exist a number of specific cultural concepts regarded as specific cultural values of the societies in question which play an important role in their life in terms of their regulative function. They are characterized by a number of variations in terms of conceptual integrity and linguistic semiotic representation and should be analysed in terms of their correlation with the most significant values of the regulative scale of a certain community.

Keywords: cultural concepts, regulative, integration, values, universal, linguistic representation

Anotācija

Regulatīvie kultūras jēdzieni un to verbālās reprezentācijas problēmas globālajā sabiedrībā

Kultūras un lingvistiskā integrācija ir balstīta uz vispārējām kultūras un reliģijas koncepci-jām, kas valodā atspoguļotas ar dažādiem verbāliem līdzekļiem. Tajā pašā laikā pastāv virkne specifisku kultūras jēdzienu, kas tiek uzskatīti par īpašām kultūras vērtībām sabiedrībā, jo tie ir nozīmīgi to reglamentējošo funkciju dēļ. Tos raksturo virkne variāciju, kas attiecas uz konceptuālo integritāti un lingvistiski semiotisko reprezentāciju un kuras jāanalizē saskaņā ar noteiktās sabiedrības regulatīvās sistēmas nozīmīgākajām vērtībām.

Atslēgvārdi: kultūras jēdzieni, regulatīvs, integrācija, vērtības, universāls, reprezentācija

Universal and Cultural Specific Concepts

It is a well-established fact that cultural and linguistic integration is the inevitable condition for people's coexistence in the multicultural global society nowadays, which is to a great extent based on the universal cultural concepts represented by various means and – first and foremost – by means of language. Generally speaking, the analysis of cultural phenomena is closely connected with the investigation of the peculiarities of human consciousness, which naturally find representation on the linguistic level. The research sphere of Linguistic and Cultural Conceptual Studies that can be identified as the Linguistic Cultural Studies subject field, taking into consideration the process of finding out cultural meanings and identification as well

as their verbal representation in any ethnic language, deals with the "language – consciousness – culture" trichotomy as opposed to the language – culture dichotomy. Thus, the sphere of the research is becoming more and more extensive.

It should always be borne in mind that one should differentiate between the two basic approaches to concepts. On the one hand, these are *cognitive concepts* – individual mental substances or content structures which function as instruments for structuring and restructuring of reality. And on the other hand, collective, common, belonging to the same community mental structures, that help to fix peculiarities of a particular culture, can be regarded as *cultural concepts*.

It is a well-established fact nowadays that the basic presumption of the semantic and conceptual analyses is that one should perceive and comprehend both the linguistic and conceptual meanings of language units in question, as cognitive meaning, or content, can be represented by a number of linguistic units or structures that find their specific embodiment and *semantic maturation* in concrete contextual environment on the actual speech level.

Thus, as it has already been mentioned, people's communication in our global society is based on the universal cultural and religious concepts represented by various verbal means. At the same time one should take into consideration the necessity for national identity preservation and tolerant attitude to different cultural values of s*pecific* character. Thus, verbally represented mental structures with the axiological component, i.e. regulative concepts, are of particular importance within these terms as they present cultural values as the highest moral and behavioural options in the society; they are also global, multicultural, rich in the whole conglomerate of representations in terms of their contemporary condition and status.

John Locke, the British philosopher of the 17th century, in "An Essay Concerning Human Understanding" (1689-1690) paid special attention to the fact that the conceptual system of every language is unique as it is determined by the whole process of cultural historical development of the linguistic cultural community under consideration (Locke 2013). Consequently, the sphere of nomination can be regarded as a unique one as well. And there exist many examples of the kind. Nevertheless, we may come across scientific disquisitions containing both theoretically and practically useful ideas, based on various methods of investigation that enable the learner not only to compare linguistic and conceptual structures in different languages but distinguish the universal notions in them. Thus Anna Wierzbicka, a well-known linguist from Australian National University, in her "Semantic Primitives" made a successful attempt to discover the concepts that exist as words in each of the world's languages, semantic primitives, or semantic primes or lexical universals. Based upon an extensive collection of empirical linguistic data, Wierzbicka has derived a working list of semantic primitives. Originally the number of identifiable primitives was fourteen. Over the years, the list has been extended up to over sixty semantic primitives (Wierzbicka 1972).

As Jeff Hoyt said in his article "Finding Meaning in Meaning", published in the "Periphery Journal" in 2012, "Wierzbicka's work suggests that these semantic primitives are universal among the world's languages, which is to say that certain

meanings are universal among humans… It could be that all natural languages, despite the diversity among languages, share the same set of basic meanings because such meanings are innate in humans – we might be born knowing the meanings of semantic primes. Or, it could be that all natural languages share the same set of basic meanings because the humans that speak those languages have an innate propensity to lexicalize the same set of concepts – we might be born meaning to know the world through words. Either way, though Wierzbicka likely would subscribe to the latter possibility, her research into semantic primitives unquestionably means a whole lot to meaning" (Hoyt 2012). Having based her investigation on the results of the human experience, Anna Wierzbicka has shown that though it is impossible, for example, to find equivalents to the key Sanskrit notions like *nirvana, Brahman, atman, karma*, etc. in European languages, there exist a set of notions, or concepts, universal for most of the world cultures. We can adduce as examples units like " fear", "joy", "surprise", "pain", "death", "life", "hatred", "love", etc., which find their representation on different levels of linguistic functioning. When dealing with the comparative analysis in terms of regulative concepts (and some of them have undoubtedly become regulative in the course of time) we will tend to be confronted with the situation that they exhibit differences not only on the level of linguistic semiotic representation but in their conceptual capacity (Wierzbicka 1972).

Let us take into account, for example, the notion of LOVE in English, Russian and German. The investigation has shown that the concept of love presents a very colourful and diverse picture in terms of its verbal representation. And in case units like *любовь, любить*, *love* and *Liebe* are taken into consideration one can assert particular significance of their ability to express human feelings and people's emotional attitude to each other in all the languages under analysis. For instance:

1. «Он любил ее страстно и никогда ничего не запрещал» (И.С. Тургенев. «Ася»); «У меня не было первой любви, – сказал он, наконец, – я прямо начал со второй» (И.С. Тургенев. «Первая любовь»); «Иначе я ничего не смогу с собой поделать. Уезжай, я прошу тебя. Я люблю тебя. Я черт знает, как люблю тебя!..» (Ю. Бондарев. «Игра»); «Вот это любовь, – говорил я себе снова и снова, сидя ночью перед своим письменным столом, на котором уже начали появляться тетради и книги, – это страсть!.. как кажется, не возмутиться, как снести удар от какой бы то ни было!.. От самой милой руки! А, видно, можно, если любишь…» (И.С. Тургенев. «Первая любовь»); «Сын мой, – писал он мне, – бойся женской любви, бойся этого счастья, этой отравы…» (И.С. Тургенев. «Первая любовь»); «– Единственное, что еще стоит чего-то… что еще объединяет людей, это любовь. Все остальное – полкопейки!» (Ю. Бондарев. «Игра»)

2. "I love Monte," – she said, – "but I love you, too. I'll love you until the day I die. I don't want you ever forget that" (S. Sheldon. "The Doomsday Conspiracy"); "He took Susan in his arms and held her tightly. "You know how much I love you" (S. Sheldon. "The Doomsday Conspiracy"); "Lying in his bed, Robert was thinking that on the other side of the wall, only a foot away, was the woman he loved more than anyone in the world" (S. Sheldon. "The Doomsday Conspiracy"); "They shared more than love. They genuinely liked and respected each other" (S. Sheldon. "The Doomsday Conspiracy");

"I love you to pieces, distraction, etc., and can hardly wait for the weekend" (J.D. Salinger. "Franny"); "… I adopted her to be loved. I bred her and educated her to be loved. I developed her into what she is that she might be loved. Love her!" (Ch. Dickens. "Great Expectations")

3. "Sie legte der Mutter beide Hände auf die Schulter. "Den, den ich liebe und der mich liebt. Ich, Mutter, bin eine glückliche Frau…Und jetzt gehen wir schlafen "(Leonhard Frank. "Mathilde"); "Das machte die gute Pflege, Pauline. Und die Liebe, die nie rostet "(Leonhard Frank. "Mathilde"); "Der Kommisär fröstelte. Er liebte die luftleeren Räume nicht" (Friedrich Dürrenmatt. "Der Verdacht"); "Hass gegen diesen mißtrauischen, egoistischen, sich an sein Geld krallenden Mann stiegen in ihr auf" (Willi Bredel. "Die Väter"); "Mein Vatter war ein ruhiger Mann. Ich hasste ihn, obwohl er mich sehr gern hatte " (Leonhard Frank. "Mathilde")

But of course, while analysing these notions in juxtaposition, for example, with the concept of HATRED (hatred – to hate, ненависть – ненавидеть, der Hass – zu hassen) one should immediately realize that there tend to appear a number of connotations and even new meanings in the notion of LOVE representations within particular contexts. Thus, for example:

1. «Так хотите, я вам расскажу, как я этой любовью самой был приведен к тому, что со мной было…Я страдал ужасно. Страдание главное было в неведении, в сомнениях, в раздвоении, в незнании того, что – любить или ненавидеть надо ее. Страдания были так сильны, что, я помню, мне пришла мысль, очень понравившаяся мне, выйти на путь, лечь на рельсы под вагон и кончить. Тогда, по крайней мере, не будешь больше колебаться, сомневаться. Одно, что мешало мне это сделать, была жалость к себе, тотчас же непосредственно за собой вызывавшая ненависть к ней. К нему же было какое-то странное чувство и ненависти и сознания своего унижения и его победы, но к ней страшная ненависть» (А.П. Чехов. «Драма на охоте»); « – К огорчению, испокон веку посредственность удобна, послушна и неопасна. Таланту же большей частью тайно завидуют, но его побаиваются и любить вынуждены. Ненавидя любить…» (Ю. Бондарев. «Игра»); «Все лицо ее выражало полнейшую холодность и враждебность, ненависть почти ко мне» (Ю. Бондарев. «Игра»); «Девочка была моя сторонница, мальчик же старший, похожий на нее, ее любимец, часто был ненавистен мне» (Л.Н. Толстой. «Крейцерова соната»).

2. "Do you love me? You didn't say once in your horrible letter I hate you" (J.D. Salinger. "Franny");
"Love hates me,
I'm falling down,
Right here is where I stand,
Waiting for you to take my hand.
You burn slow.
Love hates me" (Chris James)

3. "Liebe und dein Hass
   Und das alle Tage
   Zerstören mich langsam
   Wird Zeit dass ich wage
   Von dir zu gehn" (Levrai "Liebe und Hass");
   "Wir hassen Liebe,
   wir lieben Hass";
   "Aus Freundschaft wurde Liebe und aus Liebe wurde Hass"

As can be seen from the examples taken from fiction and poetry most of those containing juxtaposition of LOVE and HATRED («любовь» and «ненависть») concepts in the broader contexts taken from the Russian sources, their verbal representations are accompanied by words like "suffering" (страдание), "doubt" (сомнение), "hostility" (враждебность) and so on, which fulfil the explanatory function in the utterance, in order to specify and even justify the fact of their realization in the text. Thus, in the course of the investigation we may come to the conclusion that these concepts – to some extent – correlate with those typical of the Russian mentality, distinguished by Anna Wierzbicka – "soul" (душа), "sorrow" (тоска) and "fate"(судьба), and we can extend the scope of our analysis to find more and more interesting examples of the kind (Wierzbicka 1992).

While turning to the English examples it should be noted that in the course of the investigation we have come to the conclusion that in the English language sources this kind of juxtaposition is not so widely used as in the Russian language, though we come across a number of examples in poetry, as well as in song lyrics, which is very expressive and emotional. Thus we can make an assumption that concepts like, for instance, "Britishness", which presuppose notions like "reserve", "privacy", "eccentricity", "self-control", etc. (Fox 2004) as well as political correctness requirements, should be taken into consideration while analysing prosaic artistic space.

And as far as the examples taken from the German language are concerned we have been confronted with the fact that it was not easy to find situations where the notion of HATRED was directly expressed, especially in the contextual contact with the notion of LOVE. The authors of the texts under analysis were trying to be more careful and precise expressing the notions of feelings and evaluations and in most cases they avoid mixing the two conceptual meanings of LOVE and HATRED, realizing them within the same frame. For example: "Ich lehne sie ebenso ab, wie ich den Film, das Grammophon und das Radio ablehne. Grammophon und Radio hasse ich in Wahrheit " (Bernhard Kellermann. "Das blau Band"). In other words, being far from making hasty generalizations, with some degree of acceptability we can make an assumption that the important German key concepts which have already been thoroughly investigated by our predecessors (Albert 1989; Карасик 2000; Нечаева 2011) order (Ordnung), safety (Sicherheit) and comfort (Gemütlichkeit) produce some slight indirect impact even in this particular situation, as they can be regarded as vivid characteristics of certain linguistic consciousness manifestation especially in terms of values. At the same time it should be noted in this connection that in some poetical works, especially in modern song lyrics, being based on the

original German roots as well as being influenced by the trends of English music and song lyrics, the opposition between LOVE and HATRED (Liebe, lieben and Hass, hassen) notions can be realized, as in the examples adduced above. It should be mentioned in this connection that even an English psychiatric term – "love/ hate" which means "ambivalent" as feelings and emotions are concerned, is widely used now in ingenious titles and other types of nomination, e. g., in the Internet: lovehate. com; lovehateestateagent.com; http://vk.com/lovehate_com; http://www.lovehate. ru/Lovehate-ru; http://lovehate.com.au/; LOVE HATE LOVE; OWN LOVE HATE LOVE ON DVD; Love & Hate Clothing Store, etc.

To deal with universal cultural concepts possessing regulative features for people in different linguistic cultural communities, one should proceed from the premise that in spite of the fact that notions of this kind have very much in common and generally convey very similar ideas, and only part of their conceptual meaning (content) is transmitted with the help of linguistic means from one language to another. In our case we have been trying to illustrate the point by means of examples from the actual speech where linguistic representations under analyses were used in circumstances of juxtaposition.

The necessity for national identity preservation and tolerant attitude to cultural values

As has already been emphasized, the necessity for national identity preservation and tolerant attitude to different cultural values of specific character should be taken into consideration in the course of communication in our global society. Otherwise stated, verbally represented mental structures with the axiological component, or *regulative concepts*, as we have already presented them are of particular importance within these lines because they *reflect cultural values as the highest moral and behavioural options in the society*. It should also be borne in mind that the real conceptual basis for more or less the same mental structures of axiological character can be represented by different means on the linguistic level and the ability of their *translation* into other cultures is to a great extent determined by its content characteristics embodied in a number of linguistic meanings, that acquire their specific semantic peculiarities realization in particular contexts, as has already been illustrated.

It is a well-established fact that the peculiarities of an individual's world view are determined by the factor of interaction of universal, culturally specific and personal issues. An individual's world view can be regarded as a multi-folded formation that fulfils various kinds of functions, such as explanatory, evaluating, validating, reinforcing, integrating, adaptive (Леонтович, 2005: 122). Language serves as the means of thought expression on the level of communication. Thus, the conceptual and the linguistic world view go back to the national cultural heritage of a certain linguistic cultural society. Language preserves and transfers the national cultural picture of the world from one generation another, as well as presents cultural phenomena on the nomination or description levels of representation.

The behaviour of an individual is to a great extent determined by the regulative function of culture expressed on the level of both intercultural and personal

interrelations. At the same time the structure of personal values reflects the structure of national cultural values. The process of social typical mode of behaviour regulation in the majority of cases can be analysed in terms of tradition, i.e. the peculiarities of an individual's attitude to the reality, expressed in one's values, interests, beliefs and norms of morality which are transferred from generation to generation.

It is generally recognized nowadays that the global status English has acquired, seems to present a number of problems for linguists and teachers to face. For example, the regulative concept PRIVACY in the English-speaking communities has become one of the most widely recognized and transferred into other cultures, without any vernacular nominations. At the same time it is generally assumed that this particular concept is characterized by some variations in terms of its conceptual integrity and linguistic semiotic representation and should be analysed in accordance with the most significant values of the scale of a certain English-speaking community, as the preferences and submissions of the latter tend to be quite different.

In Longman Dictionary of the English Language and Culture PRIVACY is defined, for example, in the following way: "1) the (desirable) state of being away from other people, so that they cannot see or hear what one is doing, interest themselves in one's affairs etc. In many Western countries, this is usually given particular value and people expect to have their privacy respected by others: There's not much privacy in these flats because of the large windows and thin walls. 2) secrecy; avoidance of being noticed or talked about publicly" (Longman, 2005). The most typical contexts where this notion is realized contain the idea of seclusion, reserve, and the state of being away from others, either physically or mentally, e.g. *unacceptable invasion of people's privacy, privacy protections online, a privacy provision in the state constitution, the government intruding too much on our privacy.* This concept possesses a vividly expressed axiological, regulative character in all English speaking societies where it is used, but the thing is that preferences in its functioning differ greatly from culture to culture, and they vary in accordance with the core semantic component identification of the concept of privacy which finds its representation in the linguistic and extra linguistic contexts of its actual realization, including the sphere of associations. In West European communities PRIVACY is considered to be one of the most significant cultural values, which can, nevertheless, be comprehended in different ways in terms of its content structure and concrete definition from the point of view of its semantic polyphony, strongly determined by a number of extra linguistic, especially national and cultural factors.

In these terms one of the most important phenomena that influences the so-called elicitation or ultimate further formation of the linguistic sign meaning within its cultural and linguistic context is supposed to be the interrelation between the spheres – both semantic and conceptual – of significant axiological substances belonging to the scale of regulative values in a particular society. Thus, on the theoretical level we tend to refer to some features of Ludwig Wittgenstein theory (Wittgenstein 1963) which was further developed by his disciples and followers (see Rosch 1975) – the theory of family likeness (Familienähnlichkeit). In this case one should precede from the premise that the principle underlying the process of accession, or joining, the new members of the category, is that only part of the

properties relevant are supposed to be recurred and one should not expect the exact repetition of all properties in question. Thus, the representatives of the regulative concepts category usually possess in common a number of characteristics, including the availability of subject content in terms of connecting socially relevant (collective) meanings and cultural peculiarities of the society, a pronounced axiological component, dealing with values and ethical norms and explicating lingual cultural dominants of behaviour in a given society. And it is a matter of common observation that members of the category occupy different positions as far as the centre of it – the nucleus, or the core of the conceptual sphere – is concerned.

In other words, in this connection the question is bound to arise, concerning the "reference point" which helps to define the central semantic and conceptual sphere of this or that category. So, what is the landmark, so to speak, for our further investigation? In the course of the analyses *the regulative cultural concepts* reflecting the basic features of the community in question determining the main differences from other cultural value entities and appropriate in terms of the typical, specific axiological notions' reflection, the so-called *key-concepts*, which present a certain system in every society, have been chosen. For instance, when dealing with the concept of PRIVACY in the Netherlands, where people speak European English (European English, 2005) as fluently as they speak Dutch, one of the most important key-concepts verbally represented by the term "gezelligheid" was taken as the "reference point". This notion is very close to the English "Cosiness" and German "Gemütlichkeit" but not actually connected so much with "Order", more than that – it is much more connected with "Enjoyment" and "Peace". Thus, for example, some contexts excerpted from "The Xenophobe's Guide to the Dutch" by Rodney Bolt (Bolt 1999) contain the following realizations: 1) "The Dutch family is the kernel of gezelligheid and an academy of negotiation and tolerance. The Dutch treat children with respect, and expect them swiftly to pick up the trappings of respectability. From an early age children learn to "Keep it gezellig!" and conduct themselves in a way that does not ruffle the feathers of those that surround them. "Doe maar gewoon, dan doe je al gek genoeg" ('Behave normally, that's mad enough') they are often told – and in Holland this is usually true"; "Dutch manners have more to do with affability than rigid form. Their aim is to create a gezellige ambience, where everyone can relax and enjoy each other's company"; 3) "Cafés offer piles of magazines and daily papers, so that if you arrive early you can quickly get up on an opinion to get you through the rest of the evening. This reading matter also ensures that life can be gezellig even if you are alone"; 4) "The most gezellig of all forms of humour is the good story, especially if it knocks about a little with traditional Dutch values"; "Hypermarkets, megamarkets and maximarts are beginning to appear on the outskirts of cities in Holland, but large-scale, impersonal shopping is not really the Dutch way. Small, specialized, neighbourhood stores are more gezellig and the local street-market is probably cheaper. Most people buy supplies daily, rather than in plasti- wrapped bulk, and look forward to having a chat and maybe even a cup of coffee while they are about it"; 6) "Everybody is so busy being neighbourly, tolerant, gezellig and generally well-behaved that the police are left at a bit of a loose end"; 7) "Good organization helps make life gezellig, and is worth whatever it costs (though it doesn't do to flaunt your success at it), and changes that improve old ways

are readily accepted"; 8) "Living on top of each other as they do, the Dutch have discovered that the best way to get on is by making sure that everything is always gezellig. Life runs according to a subtle decorum. The Dutch won't say "What will the neighbours think?", but "Think of the neighbours"; 9) "If you drive in the wrong direction up a quite one way street at two o'clock in the morning and meat the police head-on, they will probably pull over and let you pass. There are more important things to do than arresting someone who is doing a little harm. Besides, it would not be gezellig. Dutch tolerance is the moral face of gezelligheid"; 10) "Dutch manners have more to do with affability than rigid form. Their aim is to create a gezellige ambience, where everyone can relax and enjoy each other's company"; 11) "Everybody is so busy being neighbourly, tolerant, gezellig and generally well-behaved that the police are left at a bit of a loose end", etc.

This notion can be regarded as a means of cultural references of the Dutch society representative alongside with *tolerance, flexibility, openness, freedom, privacy, frugality, neatness, good organization (order)*, which is closely connected in terms of their regulative character. The peculiarities of semantics and contextual environment of this unit are obviously characterized by the external reference, which manifests itself in orientation to tolerance and respect for the individuality of others which naturally reflects in their attitude to yourself, your individuality, your privacy. Thus, concepts like TOLERANCE, FLEXIBILITY, and PRIVACY correlate within this frame. It should be noted in this connection that the concept COSINESS (GESELLIGHEID) fulfils a very important function in terms of communication and cooperation with other people without any intrusion into their private spheres, possessing both features of individualism and collectivism in the proper sense of the word. The principle of "living togetherness" coexists and correlates with the notions of integrity and inviolability. In other words, PRIVACY in this particular cultural context may be regarded as a specific notion closely connected with the concepts mentioned, which should be taken into consideration while transmitting, or translating, these notions to other cultures.

The British linguistic cultural society is characterized by a complicated situation in terms of presentation the sphere and associative properties of the PRIVACY concept. There is no doubt that this notion can be presented as the basic regulative concept in the British scale of cultural values. This is not only part of its social life, but part of the British national character as well which has a stable historical background in terms of the personality development process. It is well known that the system of the most typical characteristics of British mentality includes individualism, egocentrism, eccentricity, originality, snobbery, reticence, the desire for isolation, etc. For example: "All this does not make them better or worse than other Europeans, but, as so many foreign observers have testified, it does make them different" (J.B. Priestley); "Without understanding eccentricity, no one can claim to understand the British" (Niegel Dempster); "Every Englishman is convinced to one thing, that to be an Englishman is to belong to the most exclusive club there is" (Ogden Nash); " There will be snobbery of course in a class system: the English have been charged with it over and over again. It has never been one of my weaknesses; so I might risk a modest defence of it. First, we must realize that social snobbery, though the most notorious, is only one form of snobbery. There are academic snobs, intellectual

snobs, aesthetic snobs, athletic snobs and even discomfort snobs" (J.B. Priestley); "Not only England, but every Englishman is an island" (Novalis) (see Филиппова 2007). In order to compare the two cultures from the regulative and referential points of view it would be interesting to adduce an example from R. Bolt's book, where he shows the difference between the English and the Dutch, representing the correlation between eccentricity and tolerance, typical of the cultures under discussion: "It is very difficult to become an eccentric in Holland. Dutch tolerance means that all sorts of odd behaviour are simply redefined as normal. The English believe that anything is acceptable as long as it does not upset the horses. In Holland the cardinal rule is that all behaviour is tolerated so long as it is not un-gezellig or bad for business" (Bolt 1999).

While turning to the American society one should take into consideration that PRIVACY, as well as in other English-speaking societies, is very important in terms of spatial organization of communication, i.e. general, non-verbal semiotics. It is common knowledge that violation of personal space seems to be the biggest cultural shock for Americans coming to Russia, in public transport, to stand, or in line at the store, or when they just speak to people. In the USA PRIVACY is closely connected with notions like "individualism", "personal freedom", "liberty", "personality", "intimacy", "solitariness", "secrecy", "independence", "property". R. Kohls in "Values Americans Live By" writes, "Privacy, the ultimate result of individualism is perhaps even more difficult for the foreigner to comprehend. The word 'privacy' does not even exist in many languages. If it does, it is likely to have a strongly negative connotation, suggesting loneliness or isolation from the group. In the United States, privacy is not only seen as a very positive condition, but it is also viewed as a requirement which all humans would find equally necessary, desirable and satisfying. It is not uncommon for Americans to say and believe – such statements as 'If I don't have at least half an hour a day to myself, I will go stark raving mad!" (Kohls 1994: 4).

It should be added in this connection that, for example, in the Russian mentality, where privacy is not so vividly viewed, as for a long time it has been a strongly collectivist society, there exist some scientific disquisitions on the subject, as well as Media materials concerning this problem. For instance, a newspaper article by Denis Terentjev was published under the title «Privacy на русский язык не переводится» – "Privacy cannot be translated into Russian" (Терентьев 2007). In the American society the concept of PRIVACY is closely connected with INDIVIDUALISM, not only in terms of associations and evaluations, but also as a scientific term which in New Webster's Dictionary of the English Language is defined as "A social theory advocating the liberty, rights, or independent action of the individual; the principle of habit of individual or independent thought or action; the pursuit of individual rather than common or collective interests; egoism; self-interest; individual character; individuality" (New Webster's Dictionary 1975) and is realized as the core notion of a certain theory (see Triandis 1995).

There is another very important problem that should be taken into consideration, dealing with the realization of the concept of "privacy", which is implemented as a legal and political notion. It will not be an exaggeration to say that it can be

presented as one of the natural laws in the American society. This particular sphere is represented by linguistic expressions like "invasion of privacy", "Privacy Act of 1974", "Freedom of Information Act of 1966", etc. In other words, PRIVACY as a regulative concept in the American culture is characterized by the whole range of representations, among which is its use in the function of legal notion, which is – as the legal category – closely connected with the system of moral rights of the citizens as well as their personal safety. Otherwise stated, in the society based on pragmatism, the concept of PRIVACY has developed into a logically strict notion and there exist a number of definitions where the essence of privacy is explained and subjected to classification into types (physical privacy, informational privacy, financial privacy, internet privacy, medical privacy, sexual privacy, political privacy, organizational privacy).

Therefore the concept of PRIVACY has a number of ways of representation and it is expressed on different levels even in English-speaking communities. Another very important aspect is that in our global society it is much preferable that we have a clear idea about how these concepts and their verbal representations should be realized in actual speech, in acts of people's communication and what other concepts they should be referred to and correlated with.

The way we teach concepts

Another very important issue is how we teach concepts and how these concepts are presented verbally. In other words, how do we teach the language taking into consideration the theory of concepts, and especially our knowledge concerning the scale of cultural values, where regulative concepts play the most important role?

When we turn to the teaching process we realize that in most of the text-books' materials "privacy" is connected with the concept of private life, avoidance of being noticed or talked about publicly. For example: "Garbo was not a typical Hollywood star. She was very private. She never spoke about her love affairs, and she didn't give interviews to the press. Many people fell in love with Garbo, and she had several serious relationships. But she never got married, and she didn't have any children. When she was thirty-six, Garbo retired. She moved to New York, changed her name to Harriet Brown and lived the rest of her life there – alone. She died in 1990 at the age of eighty-four" (Kay and Jones 2008: 52). Thus, it can be assumed that this state of affairs leads us directly to the mentioned above individualism-collectivism" dichotomy (Triandis 1995), which is closely connected with the problem of TOLERANCE, especially concerning different modes of behaviour: "Whenever we need some money, or we're short of money, we just ask our family or friends or people we work with in the office, and we're willing to help each other that way. We know that when we get paid, we can return the money and we just think of it as normal, and other people just do the same thing too. But I have some foreign friends here and sometimes when they need money and I offer to lend them money, they're really reluctant to accept that. They aren't used to borrowing money from other people, but it's something very common and normal in Vietnam" (Greenall 2007: 17).

It should be noted in this connection that successful communication of individuals is based on the way they share the most important concepts and values typical of a certain world view. As the Russian outstanding psychologist Alexei Leontief stated, there should be some invariant elements of a universal character and a certain cultural "core", common for all the community members, so that people could understand the phenomenon of the world integrity (Леонтьев 1997: 144, 273). Thus, this problem tends to be closely connected with the process of *translation of semantic invariants from one field of reality to another* as the original conceptual meaning can be represented by a certain semantic invariant (Ляпин 1997: 31; Вишнякова, Пашутина 2009).

In the manuals of the English language and English-speaking cultures, used on various academic levels, we find the description of different kinds of regulative concepts subjected to this process. For instance, one of the most vivid examples of culturally specific concept translation is THE AMERICAN DREAM, which is by no means closely connected with other American values, for example, PATRIOTISM, FREEDOM, PRIVACY, SUCCESS, etc. The semantic structure of the concept represented on the linguistic level includes the idea of labour and success as its result, pride of people for the nation of "self-made men", which is reflected in a number of text-books and manuals: "Americans pride themselves in having been born poor and, through their own sacrifice and hard work, having climbed the difficult ladder of success to whatever level they have achieved – all by themselves. The American social system has made it possible for Americans to move relatively easily up the social ladder" (Сафонова, Сысоев 2004: 46). This material is also supported by the material of the linguistic character: "Take a look in an English-language dictionary at the compounds having "self" as a prefix. There are more than 100 words like self-confidence, self-conscious, self-contained, self-control, self-criticism, self-deception, self-defeating, self-denial, self-discipline, self-esteem, self-expression, self-importance, self-improvement, self-interest, self-reliance, self-respect, self-restraint, self-sacrifice; the list goes on and on. The equivalent of these words cannot be found in most other languages. This list is perhaps the best indication of how seriously Americans take doing things for one's self. The 'self-made' man or woman is still very much the ideal of the 20th century America" (Op. cit.: 46-47).

Thus, to deal with the issue of cultural values, we proceed from the premise that the process of transferring certain concepts into other cultures is based on the ability to single out the most significant core cultural components with the support of the key-words representing a certain culture (Wierzbicka 1972; 1992; 2001). It should be emphasized in this connection that special attention must be paid to the concepts the content of which is determined by evaluative, axiological meaning based on the most important, essential values and norms of behaviour in a certain society. These formations are analysed in terms of regulative concepts that concentrate the code of a certain culture represented as well on the linguistic level. Teaching these concepts in order to understand other cultures is one of the most effective ways for teaching and developing TOLERANCE, which, according to Longman Dictionary of the English Language and Culture can be defined as "willingness to accept or allow behaviour, beliefs, customs, etc., which one does not like or agree with, without opposition" (Longman 2005). At the same time it should always be borne

in mind that TOLERANCE means neither indulgence nor indifference. Strictly speaking, TOLERANCE is as well one of the most important regulative concepts of the universal character for our global community. As can be seen, tolerance comes through understanding, which presupposes assimilation of knowledge and values.

Thus, successful communication in our society within different cultural communities which tend to be organized in the particular global unity is mostly based on the way people share important concepts and values, which presupposes adequate translation of basic meanings (contents) and the correct choice of linguistic means suitable for a particular purpose.

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DESIGN PRINCIPLES OF ESP/EAP COURSE FOR STUDENTS OF COMPUTING

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Abstract
The authors' challenge of creating an ESP course for IT students is shared by colleagues internationally. The report aims to present the thinking behind the course that has to deal with the constantly changing IT industry. In addition, the 1st year students taking the course have very different levels of English and their prior professional knowledge varies. It limits an efficient sharing of the same study materials. The presented course model emphasizes the learners' delivery of the contents that caters to their own needs and teacher's expertise to transform the studying of the contents into a learning experience shared by their group of students. The right blend of these efforts provides for the language-related development of students' maturity, adaptability and common sense appreciated by both the academic and professional environment.
Keywords: ESP, EAP, IT, course design, learning-centred approach

Anotācija
Nozares angļu valodas kursa izstrādes principi
Starptautiskā pieredze liecina, ka IT nozares angļu valodas pasniedzēji šobrīd sastopas ar grūtībām kursa izveidē. Referātā autori apraksta savu pieredzi un ideju attīstību, veidojot studiju kursu, kurā jāpiemērojas arvien mainīgajai IT nozarei. Papildus grūtības sagādā 1. kursa datorzinātņu studentu dažādās priekšzināšanas un profesionālā pieredze IT jomā, kas liedz iespēju visiem studentiem izmantot vienādus mācību materiālus. Tā vietā studenti paši nodrošina kursa saturu atbilstoši savām interesēm un pasniedzēju noteiktajām akadēmiskajām prasībām. Pareiza šo abu sastāvdaļu kombinācija nodrošina, ka līdz ar nozares valodas apguvi tiek attīstīta arī studentu spēja pieņemt nobriedušus lēmumus, pielāgoties un domāt kritiski, kas tiek atzinīgi novērtēts gan akadēmiskajā, gan profesionālajā vidē.

Atslēgas vārdi: Nozares angļu valoda, akadēmiskā angļu valoda, IT, studiju kursa izveide, uz mācīšanās procesu orientēta pieeja

Introduction

The authors have continuously faced the challenge of creating an ESP course for the future IT specialists and the recurrent experience confirms that the challenge is shared by the colleagues internationally. The current report aims to present the

considerations behind the course that has to deal with the constantly changing industry and, consequently, continually changing contents. The designing of the respective course has required from the authors many years of professional experiments and analysis and the article attempts to summarize the principles the authors have arrived at in the process.

The authors' experience in the role of an ESP/EAP teacher coincides with that described by Chung-hsien Wu, Chuan-hsiu Hung (2011): "EAP instructors are believed to serve as practitioners in the sense that they interpret students' needs, design syllabi, and have a breadth and depth of working knowledge in the subject being taught (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1988). [...] EAP instructors are expected to not only present the existing subject matter knowledge, but also keep adding to new pedagogical knowledge and making decisions regarding their curriculum during their own teaching process (Hall, 2005)."

The aim of the current article is to establish the principles applicable for the design of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP)/English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course for the students of Computing.

To clarify the principles for the course design it is important to accomplish the following **tasks**:
1. To establish the formal needs for the ESP/EAP course for students of computing;
2. To assess the resources available for meeting the needs;
3. To formulate the language areas that need improvement;
4. To state the principles the course can be built on.

Formal framework and student profile

The course of English for Students of Computing is administered in the first study semester at the University of Latvia and is a mandatory selection course accounting for 2 credit points (3 ECTS credit points). The intention is that the language and academic skills acquired during the course will be applied later in the study process. The course has to deal with the constantly and rapidly changing industry and, consequently, relentlessly changing contents and needs of the occupation to be attained by the students as a result of these studies. Hence, the content of the ESP course has to reflect the changes both in terms of the professional language and study skills. The ESP teachers are expected to be able to manage the process of change as far as it concerns their course.

Moreover, the rapid changes in the ICT field lead to the situation where, on the one hand, the expectations on the part of the students, university and society in general are high and achievement-oriented. On the other hand, these expectations are also blurred and non-specific, as the determination of specific needs which have to be met by an ESP course and would be valid across the industry have not been identified.

An additional challenge for the course providers is the profile of students. The course under discussion is intended for the students with the course entrance percentage 75% and above in the centralized secondary school examination of English, i.e., level B2

and C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale. It must be stated here that the C1, as the empirical experience shows, is more attributable to the speech production, listening and reading aspects and less to writing. The first writing assignment – a review of a presentation – shows a lower level of language competence in the overall written production and specific descriptors for B2+ level as collected by North (2008); this language proficiency skill will be referred to more specifically below.

Another aspect characterizing the student profile is the professional qualification and prior knowledge in the ICT field. The students' knowledge ranges from no prior professional experience, having just completed the general secondary education IT course, up to the first level vocational education of programming or IT engineering with extensive work experience in the field. Besides, there are students who have chosen the IT bachelor programme as their second higher education and already have a bachelor's, master's or even a doctoral degree. On the positive side, these circumstances provides an experience to be learned from, on the negative side – the differences in students' previous knowledge and skills can be considerable enough to be destructive, as the students with the lowest level of professional skills and knowledge become inhibited and overwhelmed. This will also be discussed more specifically later.

An ESP teacher having a linguistics background cannot match the professional competency of the students and as the students have acquired much of their IT skills in English, they are often stronger in terms of terminology and its adequate use.

Moreover, regard should be taken of the personality type most frequently encountered among the IT students: compared to students in other specialities, IT students, being mathematically apt, tend to be particularly logical and detailed, ambitious, self-focused and independently minded which under various circumstances can either facilitate or hinder the study process.

Validity of the available study materials for the course

At this stage we have to address the second task of the research and assess the study materials offered by publishers for the course. The list of existing textbooks of English for IT students is very short and does not compare to the textbooks available for business students at the university level. The textbooks piloted by the authors in the course did not match the students' level of language and knowledge in the field. Moreover, the topic-based approach, which is common in Business English textbooks, has not been applicable in the IT context as students know the basic terms very well prior to the course and more specific terms require longer introduction and more specialist knowledge from the language teacher, thus not providing for the input of relevant language skills.

The authentic IT literature sources examined by the authors in designing the course can be grouped and have been assessed in table 1 below. It must be noted that the classification is empirical and could be elaborated with regard to the validity of each specific category for the ESP teaching process in sciences.

Table 1

Validity of the authentic language sources for delivering the ESP/EAP course for IT students

	Category	Accessibility 1 – easy, 2 – intermediate, 3 – time-consuming	Professional contents	Language and communication value
1.	Technical manuals	2 (library)	Easy to follow; very specific; straightforward	Very precise and limited vocabulary; can contain a lot of formulae and abbreviations
2.	Commercial internet sites – promotional texts on various IT products	1 (Internet general search)	Easily understandable; appealing to students; insufficient professional and linguistic challenge	Very popular, often quite informal and limited; a lot of listing; straightforward – not helpful for facilitating the critical thinking skills in a language
3.	Reference sites	1 (Internet)	Comprehensive and valuable for the bachelor level IT students	Not intended and consequently of limited use for reporting, discussions and other communicative activities
4.	Online/ printed periodicals	3 (have to be found and selected by the teacher)	Various perspectives and contexts provided; accessible for students with various levels of professional knowledge	Useful for written and oral communication purposes, as they provide space for questioning the author's opinions and presenting the students' own opinion
5.	Textbooks on IT	3 (on the topic and having relevance for the ESP course)	Difficulties in finding an adequate textbook in terms of professional complexity and topicality	Valuable from the topic delivery perspective
6.	Research papers on IT available for students through the scientific databases	3 (examination of various articles in the databases)	Explain the thinking behind a research problem	Serve as a sample of academic writing. Provide encouragement to read scientific articles
7.	Academic/ manufacturing-related videos from the *youtube.com* portal	2	Visual explanation of terms – relevant for sciences; possibility to access the lectures delivered in the leading universities of the world	Provide for the development of listening skills and visual support

The above table demonstrates that the authentic materials supplement each other in their validity for the ESP/EAP teaching process. Subsequently, the students should be provided with an opportunity to benefit from all of the categories of materials. The combination can enable students to identify various perspectives and see how they complement one another.

The opportunities to choose and combine the materials by themselves meet the needs of each particular student according to his particular level of IT and the English language as well as to his interests. The latter is a motivational factor, however, it also imposes on the students an extensive responsibility for the studies as they are responsible for their own choice and the benefits thereof.

Consequently, the teachers in this learning situation can provide for the teaching expertise and facilitate learning rather than deliver the material for the students to learn.

Language and general skills' areas to be improved

Based on the IT student profile and the subject matter of the course the authors have concluded that the ESP course should be designed on the basis of the circumstances described above. The key skill the course has to promote is the capacity to deal with change, and in this particular course the change is viewed from the language perspective facilitated by both the development of the ICT industry as well as the use of English as *lingua franca*. Consequently, during the course the authors seek to enable the students to keep pace with the modern technological thinking and acting in terms of the knowledge and skills related to the English language and language in general, however, not restricted to it. The general educational goal, which is closely related to the above-mentioned aim of the course, was to facilitate students' maturity, adaptability and common sense in using the language for professional and academic purposes. It comprises many of the factors adopted and adapted by the authors from the various lists comprising the descriptors of the change management competence (see DeLayne Stroud (2010), Severini (2012)) who mention, for example, change agents like resilience, facilitation, advanced communication skills, tolerance for ambiguity, emotional intelligence, love for learning (Severini, 2012), to name just a few.

Faced with the impressive speaking competence of many course participants, the authors posed a question to themselves: How would the students, who have taken the course, differ from the ones who have not? Taken the high grades in the secondary school examination of English and the circumstances described above, a question arises, whether the students need the course at all. This, in turn, means that we have to detect the areas for improvement and of challenge in the students' knowledge of the English language, ESP and in general linguistic awareness. The examples of areas the authors have identified over the years of work with the students, assigning various academic tasks and getting behind the seemingly or truly excellent speaking skills' surface are provided below, however, these areas are not limited to the listed ones. The areas have been supplemented with the B2+ language descriptors developed by an EAQUALS project group led by Brian North (2008), an EAQUALS

Board Member and co-author of the CEFR, who specified the descriptors by adding plus levels for the in-between level of knowledge:

- Writing production

  (I can use a range of language to express abstract ideas as well as topical subjects, correcting most of my mistakes in the process; I can write a paper developing my argument with appropriate highlighting of significant points and relevant supporting detail.)

- Terminology acquisition; term translation skills

- Organization of information for presenting it both orally and in writing

  (I can give clear, well-developed, detailed descriptions regarding a wide range of subjects related to my interests, expanding and supporting my ideas; I can use a variety of linking words efficiently to clearly mark the relationships between ideas; I can give a clear, well-structured presentation, with highlighting of significant points and can answer questions about the content.)

- Awareness about the role and importance of details in a larger context

  (I can develop an argument systematically, highlighting significant points and including supporting detail where necessary.)

- Skills and knowledge for noticing and specifying details

  (I can understand lengthy, complex instructions (e.g. for formal procedures in an academic, professional or health context) including details of conditions and warnings, as long as I can reread difficult sections.)

- Translation accuracy

- Defining of terms; translation of various structures

  (I can overcome gaps in vocabulary with paraphrase and alternative expression.)

- General use of language: degree of formality, various styles

  (I can express myself clearly and without much sign of having to restrict what I want to say; I can reformulate ideas in different ways to ensure that people understand exactly what I mean; I can focus my attention effectively on how I formulate things, in addition to expressing the message.)

The list of improvement areas suggests that these areas can be addressed by the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as the areas are specific to academic needs. Thus, the improvement of the specific skills meets the previously stated educational aim of the course: to facilitate the students' maturity, adaptability and common sense in using the language for professional and academic purposes.

Further on we will explain the topicality of the above-mentioned areas more specifically.

Writing skills certainly present a problem for students of all study programmes. The problem can also be observed in the native language, it permeates all study courses and the final thesis. Unfortunately, due to the small number of hours allocated to languages in the study curricula and the time consuming process of both writing and correcting students' works, these skills are not sufficiently addressed in the study process; preference is given to oral communication. Writing in this case denotes

everything, from spelling to the concept of sentence and connected text. In the course under discussion, where spoken interaction should follow written assignments, there is an excellent opportunity to confront students with specific examples of their own writing. Such form of work is appreciated by students but it requires that the teacher modifies the course in the process to meet the specific needs that come up. From the methodological point of view, students appreciate samples or templates, which make the production of their assignment more manageable.

Organization of information for presenting both orally and in writing is an issue closely related to the development of the writing skills discussed above. However, the processing and dealing with various kinds of information is the skill we would particularly like to emphasise here as it is one of the crucial skills for the academic and professional success and it explicitly suggests the maturity of a student's thinking. This is a combined skill that involves critical reading and critical thinking, which can be used in producing a piece of writing as well as delivering a coherent speech or presenting a valid opinion. This takes us back to one of the principles stated above – the students must supply the reading sources by themselves and must be encouraged to look for a challenging material that shows the development of thinking rather than advertises the result of it. Consequently, the searching process itself facilitates the development of the skills of organizing and processing information. Presenting, in its turn, requires being aware of at least the basic forms and principles of delivering information and opinions orally and in writing. Here again we have to appreciate the role of a model and guidelines many of which can be brainstormed by the students themselves, but the brainstorming has to be at least initially moderated by the teacher in order to provide for a respectful discussion of, e.g., model presentations. IT students are mostly excited about the opportunity to discuss their professional issues, so the situation has to be used to the students' own advantage.

To follow a track of thought and to report on developments and substantiate his opinion, a student has to be able to find details i.e. to defragment the material, understand these details and be able to speak about them. Due to the general lack of time and speed of communication details are often unduly disregarded, however, a proper use of detailed information can be crucial in professional contexts and is an evidence of real knowledge. The authors' experience suggests that it is important to draw the students' attention to the details, whichever aspect of the language it may be, as they quickly grasp what is required from them and start noticing these details, at times even too many of them. The next stage is to bring the attention back from the particular to the general and keep providing the students with the situations where it is important to focus on both – the general and the particular –in speech as well as in the written production.

Regarding translation, the authors believe that it is underestimated as a method for learning ESP, as it is very important from at least two perspectives: firstly, in terms of the result – the skill of delivering a specific professional message in another language and secondly, in terms of developing critical thinking skills and understanding a deeper message of the terms. With the strong domination of English in IT and in the modern world, the students should not be deprived of the opportunities and

experience acquired by translating, which involves both controlled creativity and learning from the knowledge the world has accumulated. The last aspect has been considerably relieved by the wealth of electronic reference sources available today to those who are ready to invest a slight effort in learning and inventing creative approaches how to use them. Moreover, the process of translating makes students pay attention to detail and also facilitates the ability to integrate the details back into the corresponding context. The authors insist on regular translation work during the ESP course, since it also significantly contributes to the students' academic performance, as the process requires comparing the appropriateness and validity of various information sources. The same concerns looking for the definitions and validating the definitions made by students themselves. If students are confronted with their own translation mistakes, they also become more aware of different language registers, which we will consider next.

Unlike the academic world governed by neutral and formal language registers, the English environment, where students have picked up their English language outside school has largely been governed by informal language and one of the tasks of the ESP course is to enable the students distinguish one from another and to show the place where each of the registers belong. This serves to raise their general awareness of public behaviour and the role of language in it, at the same time facilitating the development of the skills necessary for acquiring, processing and presenting information coherently in the academic and professional environment.

Thus, the results expected by the teachers are in line with the following:

Students will

- acquire and be able to **define** and **translate** new IT terms;
- **identify the interaction** between grammar and the subject matter;
- **be more confident** in dealing with electronically available information;
- **interact** positively and **efficiently** with others **regarding** the subject matter;
- improve their ability to judge the consistency of IT reading material or a translation and present a substantiated and coherent opinion;
- identify useful sources of information;
- be more focused in their professional interests.

The list reveals that the course results basically describe the improvement of skills rather than specific language items. This is because the particular language items actually provide for the development of the skills as they account for the context. Another aspect evident from the list is that during the course students deal with small research tasks which, to the authors' mind, serve as an introduction into research, not only in the English for Specific Purposes, consequently, with the help of teaching EAP we also provide for the goals of ESP.

Theoretical perspective

L. Dee Fink (2013:3) from the University of Oklahoma points out the following idea: "The heart of this approach is to decide first what students can and should learn in relation to the subject and then figure out how such learning can be facilitated."

"Answers to question "What should distinguish the students who have taken the course from those who have not?" usually emphasize such concepts like critical thinking, learning how to use knowledge creatively, learning to solve real life problems, changing the ways students think about themselves or others, or increasing the commitment to life-long learning."

Figure 1

Taxonomy of significant learning (by L.Dee Fink, (2013: 3))
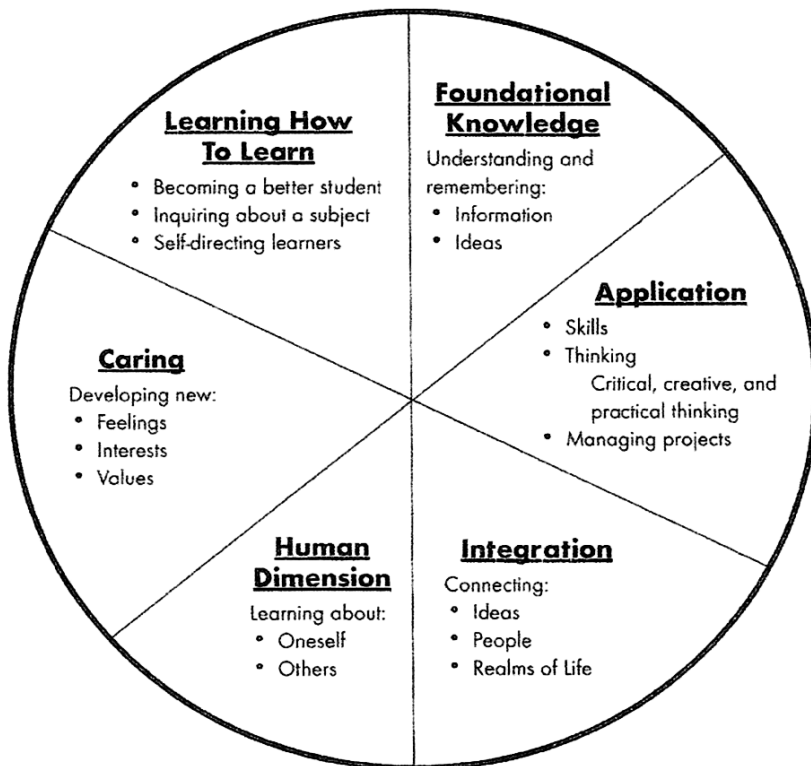
Conclusions – the principles of the ESP/EAP course design for the students of Computer Science

1. Students should be the main contributors to the course and should be faced with their own learning and contribution;
2. The specialty topic-based approach is not applicable in the ESP course for Computing, instead more general themes should be chosen that allow students to pursue their own interests.
3. Teachers' expertise to transform the studying of the contents into the learning experience is shared by their group of students.

4. EAP facilitates the achievement of ESP course goals.

5. The combination of various textual and visual sources can enable students to identify various perspectives and see how they complement one another.

6. Skills' areas to be addressed are defragmenting and recognizing the role of details; translation; structuring of information; distinguishing among various language codes.

7. To meet the students' learning needs the course should be fluid – responsive to certain aspects of what the students have delivered.

8. Assessment should reflect the student's progress and contribution.

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THE ACQUISITION OF SPANISH DATIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS WITH INACCUSATIVE VERBS BY LATVIAN LEARNERS

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present the results of a focalized description of the Spanish interlanguage (IL) system used by thirty Latvian learners, who studied the Spanish language at the linguistic levels A2-B2 in the institutional context during the academic year 2012-2013. The main objectives of the research were to define the idiosyncratic features of the Spanish IL in relation to the dative personal pronouns (DPP) with inaccusative verbs (IcV), and to compare the results with the theoretical approach of Liceras (1996). The methodology was the analysis of grammatical judgments, a reading exercise and a written composition. The dependent variables were the number of correct structures, the rate of omissions of DPPs with IcV, the number of errors, and the rate of doubts in the grammatical judgments. The independent variables were the Latvian language as a native language and the marked aspects of the Spanish language with regard to the DPPs with IcV. The major finding of the research was that the learners had more correct answers than errors. On the other hand, among the analysed clitic pronouns, the DPPs with IcVs were those in which the learners made more errors, especially at the linguistic level B1. These findings suggest a partial influence of the Latvian language, especially in the lack of agreement between the subject and the predicate. However, the great number of errors mainly suggests a relationship between this fact and the marked aspects of the Spanish language in relation to sentences with IcV.

Keywords: Spanish, foreign language acquisition, interlanguage description, dative personal pronouns, inaccusative verbs, Latvian learners.

Introduction

In our pedagogical experience as teachers of Spanish working with Latvian learners, we realized that the acquisition of the personal pronouns was a difficult aspect. This fact was in contrast with the guidelines of the *Curricular Plan of Cervantes Institute* (PCIC), which indicate that the personal pronouns, such as as subject, direct and indirect object, and the reflexive pronoun *se* should be acquired on the linguistic levels A1-A2 (PCIC *Gramática. Inventario A1-A2.7*).

Researching the causes of the difficulties, we reviewed the scientific literature about the acquisition of personal pronouns in Spanish as a second language (ELE). Subsequently we realized that there was no description of the Spanish interlanguage (IL) among Latvian learners, the first step to propose effective pedagogical solutions

for a better acquisition of a foreign language (L2). We addressed the research problem by carrying out a focalized description of the Spanish system of personal pronouns (accusative, dative and reflexive) in the IL of thirty Latvian learners, who studied the Spanish language in the institutional context during the academic year 2012-2013. In this paper, we present a part of the full research, that is, the results in relation to the DPPs with inaccusative verbs (IcV).

Literature review

We are going to review the publications, which have a direct connection with the conclusions of this paper. Two focalized descriptions of the clitic pronoun (ClP) system in ELE had an important influence in our research: Maxwell (1997) and Escutia (1998-1999). The first one analysed the Spanish productions of teenagers and adults, whose native language (L1) was Canadian English or Canadian French. The main objective was to identify the influence of the L1 and other L2 – if any – on the formation of the Spanish IL. The conclusion was:

> "The adults acquired any kind of ClP system, although it is not the same to the native system, because they produced ClPs – native in appearance – since the first interview. This result was expected, because most of the respondents were bilingual English-French, or French speakers, or they knew Italian, Portuguese or Arabic, languages in which there is a syntactic ClP system."[1] (Maxwell 1997: 100).

The second aim of Maxwell´s research was to examine whether the acquisition order of the Spanish personal pronouns was the same in L1 and in L2, i.e., if the reflexive pronouns and the DPPs with the verbs of experience also were first acquired in L2, as it was suggested by Hernández Pina (1984), Andersen (1984) and Klee (1989) for the L1 acquisition.

Other interesting conclusion was that "the ClPs and the verbs are not acquired as independent elements, but the respondents seem to acquire these words as a part of the verb without any syntactic analysis."[2] (Maxwell 1997: 99). In other words, Maxwell stood up for the respondents who considered the ClPs as verb affixes.

On the other hand, the aim of Escutia´s focalized description was to determine the non-native grammar in relation to the ClPs and three kinds of verbs (pronominal verbs, accusative personal pronouns and DPPs with transitive verbs, and DPPs with verbs of experience) in the Spanish IL of beginners and intermediate learners, whose native language was American English. Some conclusions were:

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[1] "Los estudiantes adquirieron un sistema de PClit de algún tipo, aunque no era igual que el de los nativos, porque produjeron PClit, superficialmente nativos, desde la primera entrevista. Esto se esperaba porque la mayoría de los sujetos eran bilingües con francés como su L1 o como su L2, o con otra L2 como el italiano, portugués, o árabe que son lenguas que tienen un sistema de clíticos sintácticos como en español" (all the translations of this paper are ours).

[2] "no se adquieren los PClit y los verbos como elementos independientes sino que los adquieren como unidades verbales que no analizan sintácticamente."

"Tendency to keep the syntactic order SVO [subject, verb, object] in the free production of Spanish language and in the analysis of the sentences; consequently, when the sentence is without context, they tend to interpret the ClP before the verb such as subject or such as ClP of a pronominal verb; they generalized the structure of the pronominal verbs allocating the syntactic function in a non-native way; omissions of the ClP before the pronominal verbs in a non-native way; they change the IcVs with DPP into pronominal verbs; anybody produced neither understood sentences with the syntactic orders OVS."[3] (Escutia 1998-1999: 158).

To conclude, we can say that our research shares several aspects with Maxwell (1997): the methodology, the analysed data and the target learners. However, we also checked the progress in the acquisition of the ClP in the lower and higher intermediate learners. On the other hand, the study of Escutia (1998-1999) helped us to design the instruments of data collection; in particular, we took some examples from Escutia's grammatical judgments.

Theoretical approach

In the interpretation of the data collected within this research project we took into account the contribution of Liceras, especially her book *La adquisión de las lenguas segundas y la gramática universal* (1996).[4] The author draws attention to a difference in the process of language acquisition in children and adults. According to Liceras, three principles seem to be present in the acquisition of a L2 among adults: the previous linguistic experience, the second level procedures of specific command (L1 and L2 representations, which take part in the central language processor) and the system of problem resolutions, which is present in all human learning process (knowledge by inference, analogy, comparisons, etc.) (Liceras 1996: 90). In other words, "in the case of adults, the acquisition of L2 occurs by means of a restructuring mechanism which we called *tinkering* or do-it-yourself" (Liceras and Diaz 1995). "Thus an adult reorganizes the previous linguistic representations by means of these mechanisms, when he comes into contact with the input of a L2" (Liceras 1996: 30).[5]

Liceras also accepts Chomsky´s theory of marked/non-marked elements (1981) in order to distinguish the nuclear and peripheral aspects of a language. In Liceras´ words "the non-marked aspects of a language – those which remain unchanged in

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3   "[Tendencia a] mantener el orden de palabras SVO (sujeto, verbo, objeto) en la producción y en el análisis, con la consiguiente tendencia a interpretar los Cls (clíticos) preverbales en frases descontextualizadas como sujetos plenos o identificadores pronominales del sujeto; SGs (sobre generalizaciones) pronominales de verbos no pronominales por asignación no nativa de caso; OMs (omisiones) no nativas de ClVPron (clíticos de verbos pronominales); relexificación de los verbos inacusativos con dativos experienciadores y asimilación morfosintáctica a los VPron (verbos pronominales); producción nula de frases OVS (objeto, verbo, sujeto) e interpretación de éstas como estructuras SVO."

4   *The Acquisition of Second Languages and the Universal Grammar.*

5   "La adquisición de L2, en el caso de los adultos, se lleva a cabo a partir de un mecanismo de reestructuración que hemos denominado *tinkering* o *bricolage* (Liceras y Díaz, 1995). El adulto en contacto con los datos del input, pone en funcionamiento dicho mecanismo para reorganizar unidades específicas de las representaciones lingüísticas preexistentes."

all natural languages – will not be learned or they will be easily acquired by the learners. The peripheral is constituted by specific rules and the marked aspects" (Liceras 1996: 75).[6]

In Spanish, just like in Latvian, there are common aspects which can be considered non-marked elements, such as a morphological system of personal pronouns with nominative, accusative and dative forms, and a very close syntactic structure – but not completely the same – for the verbs which express experiences. These verbs are called IcV or inverted position verbs (Burzio 1986, Escutia 1998-1999), such as *gustar – patikt* (to like), *doler – sāpēt* (to hurt) or *parecer – šķist* (to seem). These verbs organize their syntactic arguments in an opposite way than the transitive ones, that is, subject/individual who undergoes an experience (dative, indirect object) + verb + cause of the action (nominative, syntactic subject). E. g.:

> *(1)* <u>Nos</u> gusta <u>el verano</u> / <u>Mums</u> patīk <u>vasara</u> (*We like summer*).
>
> Dat.   Nom.   Dat.   Nom.

On the other hand, we assume that some aspects of Spanish IcV are marked aspects for the Latvian learners:

1. Agreement in number between the syntactic subject and the predicate, phenomenon which does not exist in the Latvian language, in which there is no difference between the verbal endings of the third person singular and plural:

   (2) *Me <u>gustan las novelas</u>* / *Man <u>patīk romāni</u>* (*I like novels*).

   (3) *Me <u>gusta la camisa</u>* / *Man <u>patīk krekls</u>* (*I like the shirt*).

2. The compulsory duplication of the indirect object, if the individual is specified in the sentence:

   (4) <u>A Marta</u> <u>le</u> gusta la música / <u>Martai</u> patīk mūzika (*Marta likes music*).

3. The optional duplication of the DPP, ungrammatical structure in the Latvian language:

   (5) <u>A ellos</u> <u>les</u> gusta la música / <u>Viņiem</u> patīk mūzika (*They like music*).

For these reasons, we expected that the collected data of the Latvian learners IL would agree with the following projections:

1. The Latvian learners of the Spanish language will not encounter particular problems in the structure of IcVs because it is a non-marked aspect.

2. The Latvian learners of Spanish will tend to employ the IcV only in the singular form, just like in the Latvian language.

3. The Latvian learners of the Spanish language will tend to eliminate the duplication of the dative element when the individual is specified in the sentence or there is a double DPP.

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6   "Los aspectos no marcados del lenguaje, que permanecen invariables en todas las lenguas naturales no han de adquirirse o son muy fáciles de adquirir. La periferia está formada por reglas de carácter específico y los procesos marcados."

Materials and methods

In order to test our projections, we designed a focalized description of the Spanish IL of thirty Latvian learners, whose main aims were:

1. To define the Spanish IL of the sample population in relation to the DPPs with IcVs.
2. To relate the results to the theoretical approach of Liceras (1996) about the processes of foreign language acquisition.

On the other hand, the specific objectives were:

1. To describe the similarities and differences among the Group 1 (level A2, CEFRL 2002), Group 2 (level B1) and Group 3 (level B2) in relation to the DPPs with IcVs.
2. To check to what extent the omission of the DPP was present in compulsory contexts in Spanish.
3. To assess whether the results of other researches (Maxwell 1997; Escutia 1998–1999) can be applied to Latvian learners of the Spanish language.

The variables of the study are shown in the following table.

Table 1

Variables of the research

Dependent variables	1. Number of correct structures
	2. Number of wrong structures
	3. Number of omissions in the DPPs
	4. Number of doubts in the grammatical judgments
Independent variables	1. L1
	2. Marked aspects of the Spanish language in relation to the structure of IcVs
Participant variables	1. Linguistic levels of Spanish course which the respondents attended
	2. Time of study outside the classroom

The respondents of Group 1 were selected from the 12th grade of Spanish language students – the last year of High Secondary School (UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2011: 40) – at the school Rīgas Kultūru vidusskola (Riga); the other respondents were selected from Centro Cultural Español Séneca (Riga). The respondents were divided into three groups of ten people depending on their Spanish level and they were not selected at random. All of them were adults, whose L1 was Latvian or bilingual Latvian-Russian.[7] We chose combined test groups – monolingual and

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[7]   Only the respondent 3.10 wrote that his Latvian language level was lower than Spanish. We assume that his Latvian level should be at least B1.2, because the respondent was a Bachelor student in a Latvian speaking university.

bilingual – because ten Latvian monolingual respondents for the Group 3 could not be found. On the other hand, the linguistic diversity mirrors the sociological reality of Latvia, where only 62.07% of the population belong to the Latvian community or ethnic group, whereas 37.3% belong to other nationalities[8] (Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia 2011). The next table shows the main features of the respondents:

Table 2

Some features of the respondents

Sex		Nationality		Age		
Men	Women	Latvian	Other nationalities	Younger than 20 years of age	20-29 years old	Older than 30 years of age
13%	87%	84%	16%	37%	43%	20%

All the data were collected in written form during May–June 2013. The researcher was present during the process in order to solve comprehension problems or to answer the questions of the respondents.

The respondents wrote an exercise of grammatical judgments, a reading exercise focused on grammatical aspects and a composition about a given topic (*My best friend*). There were two versions of the 1st and 2nd exercises (version 1 for Group 1; version 2 for Groups 2 and 3). All the exercises were designed in a lower linguistic level of Spanish than the respondents were supposed to have (level A1 for version 1; level A2 for version 2). This approach was chosen to avoid problems of comprehension and to test, to what extent the DPP system was acquired by the respondents. The works of Escutia (1998–1999, 167) and Guijarro-Fuentes and Clibbens (2002, 62–63) inspired the design of the grammatical judgments.

In our research, the learners answered 50 items in the 1st exercise, but only a part was analysed (24 items in the version 1; 30 items in the version 2). The sentences that were not analysed worked as distractive elements. On the other hand, the reading exercise was focused on the acknowledgment of the sentences' correction rather than on the comprehension of the text. To a certain extent, it can be considered a second version of grammatical judgments. Therefore, the 1st and the 2nd exercises were analysed together: 30 items in the version 1, and 36 items in the version 2. Finally, in the 3rd exercise the respondents were asked to develop three aspects in their compositions: how the respondent and his/her friend met for the first time, what he/she liked and did not like, and his/her daily routine. The number of words was not limited and the compositions were analysed independently.

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[8]　In the Republic of Latvia there is a legal distinction between citizenship and nationality. A citizen is the person who has all the political rights, but nationality means the ethnic community of the person. According to the *Final Results of the Population and Housing Census 2011*, among the total residents of the Republic of Latvia in the year 2011, 83.47% were citizens. Consequently, there are 37.93% of residents (citizens and non-citizens) who belong to other nationalities: Russians (26.9%), Belarusians (3.2%), Ukrainians (2.21%), Poles (2.16%) and Lithuanians (1.28%) (CSB 2011).

Results

The results of the 1st and 2nd exercises in all the groups – there are more correct answers than mistakes and doubts. However, the highest rate of errors was obtained in the DPPs with IcVs. Among them there are two mistakes which were present in all three groups:

1. Wrong selection of the DPP.
2. Lack of agreement syntactic subject-predicate. Instead of it, the DPP agrees with the predicate. E. g. :

   (6) **Les gustan el libro* [*les gusta el libro*] (*they like the book*).

On the other hand, Group 2 and Group 3 have in common the acceptance of wrong items as correct ones, mainly if the DPP has not any semantic reference. E. g.:

   (7) **Me la gustó muchísimo* (*I liked her/it a lot*?)

The next table provides an overview of the results by percentage:

Table 3

Percentage chart of the 1st and 2nd exercises

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Right answers	51%	64%	71%
Incorrect answers by wrong selection	30%	26%	24%
Incorrect answers by omission of DPP	10%	2.5%	0.83%
Doubts	9%	7.5%	7.17%

In the 3rd exercise, the IcVs were the most frequent verbs and there were more correct structures than errors. However, Group 2 and 3 had more errors than Group 1 in relation to this type of verbs, and their main mistake was the lack of the preposition *a* before the dative stressed pronoun. E.g.:

   (8) **Ella le gusta el cine* [*a ella le gusta el cine*] (*She likes go to the cinema*) [an example from Group 2].

   (9) **Ella también le gusta español* [*A ella también le gusta el español*] (*She also likes the Spanish language*) [an example from Group 3].

The next table shows the results of the 3rd exercise:

Table 4

Number of structures with IcVs in the 3rd exercise

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Number of words (minimum – maximum value)	42-107	53-127	68-238
Correct structures	17	14	28
Wrong structures	11	9	0

The specific idiosyncratic features of the Group 1 IL are the following:

1. The lowest rate of doubts was found in the DPPs with IcVs.
2. The highest number of correct answers was found in the identification of the right structures.
3. There were many errors in the double DPP, e. g.:

   (10) *A os gusta la cerveza [A vosotros os gusta la cerveza / os gusta la cerveza] (You like beer).

4. Omissions of the DPPs, e. g.:

   (11) *Gusta la cerveza [les gusta la cerveza] (they like beer).

5. The 3rd exercise does not show great difference in relation to the 1st and 2nd exercises.

In the 1st and 2nd exercises the Group 2 omits less DPPs than the Group 1 respondents. On the other hand, in the 3rd exercise the compositions show the following features:

1. There were many IcVs.
2. There are mistakes in the position of the negative particle, e. g.:

   (12) *Le no gusta [no le gusta] (He doesn't like).

Finally, these are the idiosyncratic features in the Spanish IL of Group 3:

1. The majority of respondents identify wrong sentences, and they corrected them in a right way.
2. They considered correct sentences as wrong ones, and they correct them offering another right sentence, e. g.:

   (13) Odian las películas de violencia (they hate violent films) -> Odio las películas de violencia (I hate violent films).

3. They consider the double DPP as a compulsory structure and they correct the sentences adding the stressed DPP, e. g.:

   (14) Nos gusta Madrid -> A nosotros nos gusta Madrid (We like Madrid)

4. They tranform IcV into reflexive ones, e. g.:

   (15) Gustamos mucho la cerveza -> *Nos gustamos mucho la cerveza (We like beer a lot is transformed into *We like the beer for ourselves?).

Discussion and conclusions

In relation with the independent variable 1, the Latvian language has influenced the Spanish IL of the respondents in the following aspects:

1. The significant rate of mistakes in the double DPPs in all the groups. This structure does not exist in the Latvian language and it seems to be the cause of mistakes.
2. Problems in the agreement between the syntactic subject and the IcV, because the Latvian system of verbs has no differences between the 3rd person singular and plural.

On the other hand, we do not find great differences between the results of the native Latvian and the bilingual speakers. In all the groups there are some respondents who obtained a high rate of correct answers, but others made many mistakes. Thus, the

differences seem to be related to how much practice of the Spanish language they have had and how much time they devote to studies outside the classroom.

Therefore, our results partially agree with Escutia on "the possible origin of the non-native grammar in restructuring the L1 taking in account the L2 data"[9] (1998-1999: 159). Although there is an influence of the L1 on the IL of our respondents, it is very difficult to determine whether it is the main factor in the formation of the non-native grammar. In this aspect, we agree with Liceras (1996: 30 and 90) that there are, at least, three kinds of processes in the setting-up of the L2 IL: the previous linguistic experiences, the representations of the L1 and other L2s, and the system of problem resolution, which is present in all human learning process.

In relation to the marked aspects of the Spanish DPP system with IcVs (independent variable 2), our results seem to confirm a relationship between this variable and the features of the respondents' IL in the following aspects:

1. Large number of mistakes in the double DPP with IcVs, especially in Groups 1 and 2.
2. The representatives of Group 3 do not point out the Spanish optional and compulsory structures, such as the duplication of the DPP with IcVs.

Our results agree with Liceras (1996) in the conclusion that different processes exist in the acquisition of the L1 and a L2, because no respondent within our research used the Spanish language as a native speaker. We also agree with Liceras regarding the following aspect: "the restructuring of L2 does not happen systematically, but step by step, element by element"[10] (Liceras, 1997; Smith and Tsimpli, 1995 quoted in Escutia 2010: 13). This principle seems to be supported by the inverse proportion between the increase of the linguistic command and the decrease of mistakes and doubts. There is also an inverse proportion with the decrease of idiosyncratic structures, such as the transformation of IcVs into reflexive ones. This phenomenon is very common in Group 1, but there are very few cases in Group 3.

We agree with Maxwell as to the fact that the learners acquire "any kind of clitic system"[11] (Maxwell 1997: 100) from the lowest linguistic levels. The respondents of Group 1 have a kind of a ClP system, although it is very idiosyncratic. Our research also seems to support the conclusions of Maxwell in the institutional context, and Klee (1989), and those of Andersen (1984, 1987) and Hernández Pina (1984) in the natural context, that is, the DPP with IcV (*gustar, doler*) are learned earlier than the direct object and DPP with transitive verbs (Maxwell 1997: 90-100), because this structure was the most frequent in the written compositions of our respondents.

On the other hand, our results do not agree with Maxwell on the following aspect: "the ClP and the verbs are not learned as independent elements, but as a verbal unit

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[9] "el posible origen de la GNN (gramática no nativa) en una reestructuración de la L1 a partir de los datos de la L2."

[10] "la reestructuración gramatical de la L1 hacia la L2 ocurre poco a poco, propiedad a propiedad, no sistemáticamente."

[11] "los estudiantes adquirieron un sistema de PClit de algún tipo, aunque no era igual que el de los nativos."

which is not syntactically analysed"[12] (Maxwell 1997: 99). The data collected from the Group 1 contain a large syntactic variety of structures in the written production and in the corrections of the grammatical judgments. This fact suggests that the respondents do not consider the ClP as a part of the verb; therefore, they made some kind of syntactic analysis.

As a further direction of the research, we suggest going deeper in the description of the Spanish IL of Latvian learners, for example, to analyse larger pools of data or to examine whether there are differences in the IL of the respondents depending on their L1 (Latvian, bilingual Latvian-Russian and Russian).

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ГРУППОВЫЕ ФОРМЫ РАБОТЫ НА ЗАНЯТИЯХ ПО РУССКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ КАК ИНОСТРАННОМУ

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В настоящей статье анализируются аспекты групповой работы в системе обучения русскому языку как иностранному. Рассматриваются виды, преимущества и эффективность групповой работы, формулируются также этапы и условия успешной её реализации.
Автор знакомит с результатами исследования, целью которого было выявление отношения студентов к проведению групповой работы. Полученные результаты указывают на положительное отношение студентов к данной форме учебной работы. Наиболее значимым для студентов является то, что в ходе её происходит эффективное усвоение теоретического материала, грамматических форм и новой лексики.

Ключевые слова: групповая работа, типы групп, условия и этапы проведения групповой работы, отношение студентов.

Abstract
Group Work at the Lesson of Russian as a Foreign Language
In this paper we analyse aspects of group work in the system of teaching Russian as a foreign language. In this article the types, benefits, and effectiveness of group work are discussed and the stages and conditions of its successful implementation are formulated.
The author presents the results of a study the purpose of which is to determine students' attitude to group work. The results indicate a positive attitude of students to this form of academic work. The most important for students is that it takes place during the effective assimilation of the theoretical material, grammatical forms and the new vocabulary.

Keywords: group work, types of groups, the conditions and the stages of group work, the students' attitudes.

Постановка проблемы

Одной из составляющих подготовки специалиста с высшим образованием является владение им иностранными языками. В связи с этим становятся значимыми цели, задачи, содержание, методы и средства обучения иностранному языку, которые, в свою очередь, зависят от требований современного общества к уровню образования будущего специалиста.

Как известно, новое понимание целей обучения иностранному языку в высшем учебном заведении связано с основными постулатами современной парадигмы образования. Среди них выделяют следующие: ориентация на непрерывность образования, установка на самостоятельную работу, способность к самоконтролю и самооценке, установка на самореализацию, готовность работать с различными источниками информации, готовность и способность работать

в сотрудничестве. К этому перечню добавляется приоритетное для обучения иностранному языку овладение студентами необходимыми коммуникативными умениями и навыками. Обозначенные цели и задачи предполагают определённый набор методов, приёмов и средств, способных их реализовать.

Групповая работа – один из активных методов обучения, которое отвечает названным требованиям, создаёт возможности для самореализации и личностного развития, а также создаёт условия для совместной деятельности.

Групповая работа как форма организации учебно-познавательной деятельности прочно вошла в практику школы, высшего учебного заведения, различных семинаров и совещаний. Ей посвящено большое количество исследований, однако, ряд аспектов, весьма существенных для организации практической работы, остаётся неизученным. Целью данной статьи является рассмотрение особенностей применения групповой работы в системе обучения русскому языку как иностранному.

О понятии «групповая работа»

Начнём с определения границ понятия «групповая работа». Термин «групповая работа» используется при обозначении различных понятий. В англоязычной научно-методической литературе понятие *group work* используется для обозначения активных способов изучения иностранного языка. Сюда включаются различного вида диалоги, речевые упражнения, дидактические игры, связанные с запоминанием, активным повторением и т. д., которые осуществляются в группах различного состава (Jaques, Salmon 2006).

В российской научной и научно-методической литературе термин «групповая работа» имеет более чёткие очертания. Под данным термином понимается наличие небольшой группы, которая объединяется для решения учебной задачи (Пассов 2010).

В приведённых выше определениях акцент делается на учебной задаче, которая приводит в активность учебную деятельность. За рамками определения остаётся учебный продукт (результат учебной деятельности), который отражает глубину теоретического осмысления учебного материала, его практическое воплощение, уровень взаимодействия, креативности участников группы и другие весьма существенные компоненты.

Выдвинутое дополнение расширяет рамки определения „групповая работа”. Это форма организации учебно-познавательной деятельности, которая предполагает наличие группы людей (от 3 до 15 человек), выдвинутую педагогом учебную задачу, способную активизировать поисково-творческую деятельность, и создание учебного продукта (диалог, тексты разных жанров, театрализованное представление, кластер, видеоролик, постер, таблицы, выводы, комментарии и многое другое).

В дальнейшем, говоря о групповой работе и рассматривая её аспекты, виды, преимущества и целесообразность использования, буду опираться на выдвинутое выше определение.

Преимущества групповой работы как формы организации изучения иностранного языка

Современная педагогика, как известно, видит цель образования, прежде всего в развитии личности. Для реализации намеченной цели необходимы формы работы, которые способны её обеспечить по многим направлениям. Групповая работа как форма организации учебной деятельности содержит в себе ресурсы для создания условий, обеспечивающих развитие речевых (говорение на изучаемом языке), когнитивных, регулятивных и личностных умений.

1. Развитие речевых умений в ходе групповой работы обеспечивается за счёт
   1) обмена теоретическими знаниями, что делает их более объёмными, глубокими и прочными, и, вследствие этого, качественными;
   2) увеличения количества времени общения на изучаемом языке;
   3) установления постоянного соотнесения теоретических сведений с их практическим применением, а приращение знаний и умений осуществляется непосредственно в процессе коллективной практической деятельности;
   4) активизации собственного языкового опыта и языкового опыта партнёров;
   5) многократного и вариативного повторения тех или иных речевых моделей.
2. Развитие когнитивных умений происходит в ходе
   1) активизации мыслительной деятельности в связи с поиском разнообразных способов решения учебных задач на иностранном языке (установление причинно-следственных связей между явлениями и фактами, анализ, синтез, сравнение, обобщения);
   2) активизации мыслительной деятельности в связи с поиском источников информации, их оценки, отбора, обработки полученных сведений, классификации, создания собственного продукта на основе собранных сведений на иностранном языке;
   3) активизации мыслительной деятельности в ходе осуществления проектов, формулирования гипотез, и плана их реализации, формулирования выводов, представления результатов совместной работы.
3. Развитие регулятивных умений происходит вследствие следующих действий:
   1) определения цели, планирования конечного результата учебной работы, выбора наиболее оптимальных путей решения поставленной учебной задачи, распределения обязанностей внутри группы, распределения времени;
   2) решения задач;
   3) поиска новых решений и создания новой комбинации ранее имеющихся решений.
4. Развитие социальных умений происходит на основе

    1) учёта индивидуальных различий участников группы, позитивной оценки как своих собственных деловых и личностных качеств, так и качеств своих партнёров;

    2) работы в команде, выполнении различных социальных ролей.

5. Развитие личностных умений происходит в условиях

    1) позитивного мотивационного поля и положительного опыта преодоления психологического напряжения;

    2) возникающего познавательного интереса, потребности к расширению поля знаний вследствие решения нестандартных задач и ситуаций;

    3) осознания и адекватной оценки собственных академических возможностей, осмысления направлений и способов самосовершенствования;

    4) диалогового процесса, который предполагает аргументированное отстаивание собственной позиции в соответствии с нормами общества.

Классификация групп

Таблица 1.

Классификация групп

	Основание для классификации	Типы групп
1.	Количество членов группы	1) Малые – 3-4 человека; 2) Большие – 10-15 человек.
2.	Продолжительность работы в группе	1) Постоянные; 2) Временные (на неделю, на несколько недель, период); 3) Сформированные для выполнения одного учебного задания.
3.	Устойчивость состава	1) Постоянные; 2) Подвижные / переменные.
4.	Уровень владения иностранным языком	1) Состоящие из студентов с высоким уровнем владения языком; 2) Состоящие из студентов со средним уровнем владения языком; 3) Состоящие из студентов с низким уровнем владения языком; 4) Смешанные.
5.	Место проведения	1) Аудиторные; 2) Внеаудиторные.

Виды заданий для групповой работы на занятиях по русскому языку как иностранному

Принято думать, что групповую работу на занятиях по иностранному языку целесообразно применять на этапе закрепления или повторения изученного речевого материала и развития речевых умений. Многолетняя преподавательская практика даёт основание утверждать, что это возможно на всех этапах занятия по иностранному языку: на этапе получения теоретических знаний, закрепления и систематизации грамматических умений, выработки и развития речевых

умений, коррекции усвоенных речевых моделей, закрепления и повторения речевого материала и т.д.

Приведём примеры видов заданий для групповой работы.

Таблица 2.

Виды заданий для групповой работы и их место в структуре учебного занятия по русскому языку как иностранному

Место в структуре учебного занятия		Виды заданий для групповой работы
Лексика	Работа с лексикой	1) **Составление словаря** *(при работе с новой лексикой)*. Задание группам**:** составить словарь имеющихся в наборе русских и эстонских слов. 2) **Составление толкового словаря** *(при работе с новой лексикой)*. Этот же тип задания можно усложнить и дать задание найти соответствия между словами их определениями на русском языке. 3) **Составление кластера** на заданную лексическую тему. 4) **Повторение слов** на определённую лексическую тему. Задание группам: написать как можно больше слов (прикрепить бумажные наклейки) на заданную тему за определённое время. 5) **Список покупок.** Задание группам: представить, что в семье три человека, купить продукты на определённую сумму и обосновать свой выбор.
Грамматика	Получение теоретических знаний	1) **«Мастерская»** *(при изучении падежей)* Каждая из 4 групп получает языковой материал для анализа в ходе которого она должна вывести грамматические правила. Первая группа должна сделать вывод о падежных окончаниях существительных, вторая – о личных местоимениях, третья – о глаголах, которые участвуют в конструкциях с существительными данного падежа, четвёртая – об основных конструкциях данного падежа. После этого формируются новые группы, куда должен входить представитель каждой из 4 групп. Представители информируют остальных членов группы о выведенных правилах. После этого группа выполняет серию тренировочных упражнений.
	Формирование грамматических умений	1) **Составление диалога / полилога / текста** на материале просмотренного фрагмента фильма / видеоклипа с использованием изучаемых грамматических конструкций. 2) **Описание картинки / фотографии** с использованием грамматических конструкций. **«Снежный ком»:** составление связного рассказа на заданную тему с использованием изучаемых грамматических конструкций. 3) **«Пантомима».** Задание группам: „Представитель одной группы показывает пантомиму. Другая группа составляет рассказ на тему этой пантомимы с использованием изучаемых грамматических форм или конструкций. Темы пантомим: - В гостинице. - В кинотеатре. - В продуктовом магазине / в магазине одежды. - В клубе. - В гостях. - В кафе. - В чужом городе. - На лекции. - В самолёте. - На приёме у врача. - Семейный ужин. - В гостях у бабушки.

Грамматика	Повторение и систематизация теоретического материала	1) **Создание постера**. Задание группам: создать постер и рассказать об одном падеже русского языка разным адресатам (например, посетителям Недели моды, детям в детском саду, школьнику, который готовится к контрольной работе, соседке по квартире и т. д).
	Коррекция употребления усвоенных грамматических конструкций	1) **«Лови ошибку!»** Задание группам: найти ошибки в тексте / в предложениях на определённое грамматическое правило / правила.
Речевые умения	Развитие речевых умений	1) **«Что не скажем, то покажем».** Задание группам: Создать пантомиму по тексту песни или детского стихотворения. 2) **«Вертушка»** (при отработке техники конструирования вопроса). Задание группам: после чтения текста записать свой вопрос по тексту и передать листок с вопросом своему соседу справа. Тот должен записать ответ на вопрос и сформулировать свой вопрос и также передать своему соседу слева. 3) **Создание инсценировки** на основе изучаемого текста. 4) **Ролевые игры.** 5) **Дискуссии.**

Условия успешного проведения групповой работы на практических занятиях по изучению иностранного языка

1. Групповую работу как форму учебной работы по изучению иностранного языка целесообразно применять в случаях, когда материал доступен для самостоятельного восприятия и опирается на усвоенные ранее знания и сформированные умения.

2. Учебное задание и способ его решения должны восприниматься как значимое участниками группы.

3. Наличие установки на успешную реализацию учебного задания.

4. Условия реализации учебного задания (время работы, конечный результат коллективной работы, критерии оценки) должны быть оговорены и доведены до сведения участников группы и впоследствии соблюдены.

5. Цели проведения групповой работы должны быть понятны и значимы для студентов, что в значительной мере повышает их мотивацию и делает необходимой учебную деятельность. Необходимо заметить, что мотивация студентов в отношении участия в групповых работах отличается от мотивации школьников. Школьников в большей степени привлекает новизна, деятельность как таковая, момент конкуренции и возможности проявления собственных личностных качеств. Студенты осознают методические задачи предложенных заданий и оценивают их с точки зрения эффективности.

6. Оценка учебного продукта групп должна быть произведена согласно выдвинутым условиям.

7. Как форма учебной деятельности групповая работа должна иметь чёткую структуру и быть распределена на ряд последовательных этапов.

Этапы проведения групповой работы

1. Предварительная подготовка к выполнению группового задания, постановка учебных задач, краткий инструктаж преподавателя (объяснение требований к выполняемому заданию);
2. обсуждение и составление плана выполнения учебного задания в группе, определение способов его решения (ориентировочная деятельность), распределение обязанностей;
3. работа по выполнению учебного задания;
4. наблюдение преподавателя и корректировка работы группы или отдельных участников;
5. презентация учебного продукта;
7. анализ (оценка) учебного продукта;
8. анализ ошибок, допущенных при создании учебного продукта;
9. рефлексия.

Групповая работа глазами студентов

Исследуя эффективность применения групповой работы, мною были выделены несколько моментов, существенных для организации учебной работы:

1. насколько привлекательна групповая работа для студентов и в чём состоит эта привлекательность;
2. существует ли связь между возрастом студентов и их желанием участвовать в групповой работе;

С целью изучения перечисленных вопросов была составлена анкета и распространена среди студентов, изучающих русский язык как иностранный в языковом центре Таллиннского университета в группах на уровнях А 1.2, А 2.2 и В 1.2. Число опрошенных составило 84 человека.

Таблица 3.

Возраст студентов, принимавших участие в исследовании

Учебная группа	Возраст студентов			
	19-21	22-25	26-29	30-33
А 1.2	17	13	1	5
В 1.2	5	11	4	8
А 2.2	10	5	2	3
Всего: 84 человека	**32**	**29**	**7**	**16**

Предполагалось, что с большим удовольствием участвуют в различных групповых работах более молодые студенты, вчерашние школьники, возраст которых 19-21 год. Однако результаты полученных данных свидетельствуют об обратном. Данные настоящего исследования показывают, что студенты старшего возраста выше оценивают применение групповых форм работы на занятиях по русскому языку.

В количественном выражении это выглядит так:

Отношение студентов к групповой работе (в процентах)

Возраст студентов	Вопросы анкеты	
	не имею ничего против групповой работы	мне очень нравятся задания групповые формы работы
19–21	59%	40%
22–25	50%	45%
26–29	48%	51%
30–33	38%	62%

Можно предположить, что студенты старшего возраста (30-33 года) предпочитают групповую работу, потому что их опыт учебной работы подсказывает, что эти виды работы приводят к более высокому результату. Исходя из собственного опыта и наблюдений студенты пришли к тем же выводам, к которым пришли исследователи: в ходе групповой работы происходит задействование всех основных психических процессов: речи, памяти, воображения и мышления (Галскова 2000).

С целью выявления мотивации студентов в отношении участия в групповых видах работы в анкете был задан вопрос с приведением следующих вариантов ответа:

Применение групповых форм работы на занятиях по русскому языку

а) помогают быстрее усвоить грамматические правила;

б) помогают усвоить грамматические формы слов;

в) помогают запомнить слова, после чего не нужно учить их самостоятельно;

г) помогают преодолеть страх говорить на русском языке;

д) дают возможность речевой практики;

е) привлекают новизной и необычностью;

ж) заставляют думать.

Обработанные данные, полученные в ходе опроса, были занесены в таблицу.

Мотивация к групповой работе у студентов

Варианты ответов	Количество выборов
а) помогают быстрее усвоить грамматические правила;	38
б) помогают усвоить грамматические формы слов;	75
в) помогают запоминать слова, после чего мне не нужно учить их самостоятельно;	69
г) помогает преодолеть страх говорить на русском языке;	71
д) дают возможность речевой практики;	81
е) привлекают новизной и необычностью;	34
ж) заставляют думать.	55

Данные, полученные в ходе исследования, убедительно доказывают, что студенты, включаясь в групповую работу на занятии, преследуют прагматические цели, как-то: усвоение в короткий период времени грамматического материала, усвоение грамматические форм и новой лексики. Это небольшое исследование подтверждает ежедневные наблюдения: студенты высоко оценивают те формы учебной работы, которые позволяют быстро и без особых энергетических и интеллектуальных затрат овладеть знаниями и умениями. Групповая работа – это возможность, с одной стороны, преодолеть психологический барьер, а с другой стороны, проявить и развить свои интеллектуальные возможности. Студентов не останавливает интенсивность групповой работы, интеллектуальная и психологическая нагрузка, связанная с ней. Наоборот, групповая работа кажется им привлекательной за счёт разнообразия, удовлетворения, связанного с интеллектуальной деятельностью, а также повышенная мотивация, которая вызвана новизной и необычностью учебного задания.

Выводы

Групповые формы работы – эффективный способ изучения иностранного языка, так как, с одной стороны, содержат большой учебный потенциал, с другой стороны, привлекательны для студентов. Методически целесообразная организация групповых видов работы создает ресурс для повышения эффективности обучения и повышения мотивации.

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THE ADVANCED BASIC LEARNER: MEETING THE COMMUNICATIONAL NEEDS OF RESEARCHERS AND LECTURERS IN THE GLOBALIZED UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

University lecturers are under increasing pressure to communicate complex ideas in a language that is not their own. Inspired by insights and issues that have emerged in research into English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), this article focuses on how principles of simplicity, authenticity and dialogical interaction can be leveraged to create short but extremely fruitful courses in advanced academic writing in English. Examples are drawn from courses in academic writing for research staff at Aalborg University, Denmark, where the core activity is the dialogical redrafting of participants' articles in the light of a combination of instructor and peer feedback.

Keywords: ELF, academic writing, feedback, redrafting, simple sophistication, genre, authenticity

Introduction

Since the pioneering work by Firth (1990) revealed the highly competent nature of communicative interaction between non-native speakers, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has rapidly evolved into a widely-researched but highly-contested field. In political terms, scholars have demanded that ELF should be recognized as a variety of English in itself, with a status to equal any variety of 'native English', but key thinkers have nevertheless recognized that variability is a core feature of ELF interaction. For example, Jenkins (2011) draws on Firth's more recent work (Firth 2009) to point out that "as far as intercultural communication is concerned, a skilled English user is no longer someone who has 'mastered' the forms of a particular native variety of English, but someone who has acquired the pragmatic skills needed to adapt their English use in line with the demands of the current lingua franca situation" (Jenkins 2011: 931-932). At a relatively early stage, Jenkins pointed out that far from owning English and correcting the errors of aspiring 'L2 learners', the native speaker would soon have to adjust to international English (Jenkins 2000: 160) and even learn to speak it (Jenkins 2000: 227).

While a great deal of serious scholarship has been devoted to documenting the efficacy and pragmatic competence of oral ELF interaction, little research appears

to have been published on academic writing as an ELF phenomenon. Here, the political stakes seem to be even higher, with palpable resentment recently inspiring international scholars to reject the right of 'native English' gatekeepers to decide what is good written English, who 'gets' published and who receives a rejection note (for a thorough account, see Jenkins 2011). Whatever the reasonableness of such arguments, the current situation is that non-native writers of academic English are undoubtedly at a disadvantage and must work to meet 'native' standards (Flowerdew 2001 and 2008; Swales and Leeder 2012). However, the intervention of 'literacy brokers' (Lillis and Curry 2006) who try to help the marginalized writer to publish is potentially an exercise in power that can fundamentally change the central scholarly direction of an article.

Empirically based research has recently investigated the attitudes of L2 researchers to the need to write and publish in English when they receive little or no support from their universities (Ingvarsdóttir & Arnbjörnsdóttir 2013). Taking a slightly different direction, this article reflects on core features of an 'exemplary' Academic Writing course and attempts to relate its success to some of the issues raised by work on ELF in general. In addition, it relates central features of the academic writing in English course at Aalborg University to the special needs of highly trained researchers. What follows is a series of reflections on practice: the aim is to generate propositions for more rigorous testing using empirical research.

Why train university staff to communicate in English – and whose English?

In recent decades and in many parts of the world, scholars whose native tongue is not English have been facing a relatively new challenge: with English the predominant Lingua Franca of the academic community, 'L2 researchers' need to supplement their disciplinary expertise with a correspondingly high level of English language and communication skills. To be published in the most widely read international journals, non-native speakers must write sophisticated academic prose in English. They frequently need to present their findings in English at international conferences. In their home universities, an increasingly mobile, 'globalized' student population may mean that they are required to lecture in English in internationalized classes on a daily basis – even if they are not enthusiastic students of languages.

The need to train university staff in language and communicational competences seems evident. However, whereas most universities devote considerable resources to improving their students' English, few show the same commitment to training lecturers and researchers. At Aalborg University in Denmark, these priorities are reversed: there is no centrally coordinated effort to teach English to the diverse student population, but a small unit called LACS (Language and Communication Services) trains academic and administrative staff in L2 communication skills and ensures that important university communication occurs in good English as well as Danish. The challenges faced by researchers attempting to become L2 authors could perhaps be met by extensive general English courses. However, universities rarely have the funds, and few researchers have the time or patience. These participants are

sophisticated thinkers who urgently need to express that sophistication in a foreign language, not to spend hour after hour on basic or intermediate level texts and tasks. The chances of electrical engineers being interested in a run-through of a point of grammar are tiny, but that interest can become acute when the question arises from the texts that express the focal ideas of their work. Courses need to be short, relevant and highly focused to be effective.

The LACS courses for lecturers and researchers can be divided into three main categories: pure language courses at various levels, courses on lecturing and presenting orally in English, and courses on advanced academic writing in English. Whereas all three types of instruction receive positive participant evaluations, the writing courses are by far the most popular and successful. In some ways, this is strange. Whereas the other types of course are firmly founded in the theory of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and hence focus on pragmatic (Björkman 2011) communicational and pedagogical strategies as much as on language per se, the writing courses are potentially far 'drier'. Firth has repeatedly pointed out (Firth 2009: 1990) that oral ELF interactions involve a shared consensus "that interactants attend, wherever possible and feasible, to the message substrate of language, while perspicuously and adeptly disattending to speech perturbations and non-standard features in linguistic form" (Firth 2009: 149). In ELF, communicative efficacy takes priority over linguistic 'correctness', but in the standard English as a foreign language (EFL) model, 'non-native speakers' eternally and hopelessly struggle to match the expertise of the native speaker. This EFL deficit model is at best irrelevant and at worst harmful to the needs of ELF speakers. For this reason, the teaching of oral forms of English to researchers and lecturers at LACS Aalborg emphasizes communicational and interactional strategies rather than linguistic correctness.

However, the expressed needs of advanced academic writers at Aalborg University are completely different. L2 research writers face a perceived reality in which they need to produce sophisticated and error-free high-level prose in English to pass the 'gatekeepers' (Seidlhofer 2004: 222) of international publication. In reality, of course, not all gatekeepers are native speakers, and even if they were, there is no guarantee that their linguistic and stylistic sophistication would match their disciplinary expertise. Even more interestingly, parts of the academic community have adopted the ELF platform to mount a determined attack on the assumption that 'native English' is or should be the default language for publication. Be this as it may, researchers with a native language other than English request training in writing English language academic texts which are formally 'correct' by 'native writer' standards. This entails attention to a large number of issues in grammar, syntax, lexis, cohesion, coherence, structure, voice, mood, rhetoric and style – in other words, the traditional focus when English courses are seen in terms of second Language acquisition. There is something Quixotic about attempting perfection in a foreign language. There are so many facets that need improving in so little time that the potentially endless content of the course risks seeming both tedious and trivial for its audience. It is therefore quite remarkable that it is precisely the academic writing course offered by LACS that receives the most positive evaluations.

Structure of the LACS Academic Writing in English Course at Aalborg University:

The LACS writing course is designed for 24 researchers and lasts 13-16 hours, depending on whether there are three workshop sessions or four. All 24 participants attend the introductory session, which consists of a four hour introduction to the basic principles of writing that will be in focus for the rest of the course. There is a heavily 'instructional' load here, so the flow of information is constantly interrupted by practical re-writing exercises. The first part of the session covers principles and methods of coherence and cohesion, with a particular focus on paragraphs and ways of connecting them. The most important part of Session 1, however, is the intense focus on sentence structure. As well as revising the grammar of various sentence types, participants meet a number of stylistic criteria, such as sentence variety, complex simplicity, balanced sentences, old-new information structure within the sentence, and the advantages and disadvantages of passives and nominalizations. For example, non-native and L1 researchers often over-elaborate the subjects of their sentence by extensive post-modification. As well as creating an awkward gap between the head-noun of the subject and the main verb, this practice tends to place all the important 'news' towards the beginning of the sentence and leave the sentence seemingly vacant at the end. This stylistic infelicity is explained in terms of a set of principles: the old-new sentence structure, the sanctity of the (S-V-O) heart of the sentence and the need for a balanced sentence. Importantly, however, participants are told that this is a stylistic matter, in that 'mistakes' of this kind are not always grammatically problematic, but that they tend to produce communicational obscurity and an unhelpful impression of complexity. One of the core messages of the course is that complex intellectual effort will be required of readers in understanding and criticizing the core concepts of advanced research reporting: consequently, the communication of those ideas and their background should be as straightforward as possible. Complexity of style for its own sake is regarded as a weakness in English.

One week after the introduction, all participants deliver two pages of an article or thesis that they are already drafting. The instructor then provides detailed written commentary in preparation for the first workshop session. Any type of error or opportunity for improvement is marked and commented, but the strongest emphasis is placed on the questions of cohesion, sentence structure and mood that were introduced in Session 1. To ensure that there is plenty of material for the workshop, as many as 55 comments are provided for each text. However, no actual corrections are provided. Each comment acts as a clue to a problem that will need discussion and redrafting in the workshop.

For the workshops, the participants are divided into three groups of eight, each with its own three-hour workshop session per workshop-round. The majority of the time is used in redrafting the participants' own texts, but each session starts with a brief presentation of a topic requested by the participants. The presentation is accompanied by practical exercises, and the participants are advised that these grammatical rules should only be seen in terms of their use-value as tools to improve the communicative efficacy of their own academic writing.

The last two hours of each workshop session are devoted to the participants' own texts. This is the core activity, and a strict framework is imposed to ensure that the pedagogical principles behind the activity are put into operation to maximize learning. The eight participants form four pairs, and the texts with detailed written instructor commentary are returned to their authors. Each pair only works on the text of one partner in the pair at a time. It is a central principle of the course that all redrafting involves consultation between two peers. After both partners have focused on redrafting the first text, both turn their attention to redrafting the other partner's text. They have been told that participants together should create solutions to the problems identified in the written feedback and write them into the text: understanding the problem is only the beginning, as the central activity is writing for improved communication. The instructor feedback solely raises questions; the answers are provided by the author and a peer. While the pairs are cooperating to identify problems and to find the best way to redraft, the instructor is available to answer questions and check the new versions. This is important because the redrafts are not collected again for further commentary: they remain the responsibility of their authors.

This pattern is repeated for the remaining workshop sessions in the following weeks: participants write and deliver two new pages on their research for each workshop round. One of the advantages of the repeated structure is that with familiarity, the participants quickly move to a feeling of mastery of the process. The only recurring criticism in evaluation is that the course was so useful that it should have been longer.

Aims and Core Characteristics of the LACS 'Academic Writing in English' Course

The results of the workshop redrafting process in the LACS course need empirical verification. The aims, however, are clear. First, participants should repeatedly apply and practice the core principles of cohesion, coherence and sentence structure in rewriting their own texts and in helping partners to redraft. At the same time, the repeated correction of minor grammatical errors means that they quickly become a minor irritation that participants spot while attending to larger structural problems. Thus, minor individual errors are reduced without much conscious attention. Second (and relatedly), the participants are to apply fairly basic linguistic and communicational principles to the type of highly sophisticated texts that they actually need to produce: the aim is that they will integrate foundationally necessary skills with the sophistication that they already master (see below). Third, each participant should become aware of the need to write for a reader, as the reader is right next to her and trying to understand the text in order to help her redraft. Fourth, while receiving serious and detailed instructor feedback on errors and weaknesses, participants should remain in control of the process; in fact, pairs often discuss issues and improvements beyond those mentioned in the instructor's comments. Moreover, the cooperative redrafting process means that the author and partner are allied in trying to solve a puzzle together, but the author 'has the edge' because the intellectual ideas and the field are her strength. Explaining basic concepts to a peer

might seem a waste of time in a writing course, but as well as bolstering the author's identity, this activity helps participants to meet the second aim above; in explaining orally what they were trying to express in complex prose, L2 academic authors often find the exact formulation that will clarify the written version. The final aim is that participants will still use peer feedback in writing after completing the course.

Whereas the achievement of these aims remains unverified by empirical investigation, evaluations leave no doubt that users find the course extremely useful. The popularity of the course raises the question of why the participants regard it as being so effective. What, if anything, distinguishes this course? There are many candidate answers, some of which have already been briefly suggested above, but here we will focus on a discussion of just three selected dimensions: the match between the particular needs of researchers and (1) the main message of simplification, (2) the authenticity of the writing and redrafting process (3) the reciprocal strength derived from dialogical interaction in a peculiar mixture of instructor and peer feedback.

The needs of the L2 researcher as an advanced basic learner

Critics of the process-oriented approach to teaching writing have pointed out that academic genres are bound up with power, privilege, class and cultural literacy. Delpit (1988) has pointed out with reference to Afro-American students in US colleges:

Teachers do students no service to suggest, even implicitly, that 'product' is not important. […] students will be judged on their product regardless of the process they utilized to achieve it. And that product, based as it is on the specific codes of a particular culture, is more readily produced when the directives of how to produce it are made explicit (Delpit 1988: 287).

Nobody is more aware of this than apprentice academics. PhD students and young lecturers have got where they are by assimilating the codes of a particular genre. Of course, anyone who enters a particular speech discourse is at a disadvantage at first (Bakhtin 1986). The entrant must listen and make small contributions in a gradually widening interaction that moves from passive to active as she gathers more and more of the rules and norms of the interactions that dynamically constitute the discourse. This process can take years. Within a wider speech genre or discourse there are a number of specific genres, all with their own rules and norms to be appropriated. Generally speaking, the better founded she is in the overall discourse, the better the learner is equipped to deal with the specifics of higher level academic genres. This reflects the way in which we move gradually from general skills at a lower level in the education system to increasingly specific studies at a higher level. We tend to think in terms of accumulating content or 'knowledge', but this is also an 'initiation' into a discourse community (Russell 1990: 53; Swales 1990) through increasingly specific genres of specialization, each built on the level below. Whereas the main new 'rules' or 'directives' for learning an advanced genre may be fairly explicit, they naturally build on a vast wealth of buried tacit/implicit practices that constitute the foundations of a language, a culture, a discourse and the basic genre.

In this regard, the situation of L2 researchers writing academic English is atypical. Often, they will have more or less mastered an advanced academic discourse apparatus and its foundations at each level in their own language, but may be far more restricted at the lower levels in English. With academic journals and presses tending to publish in English as a lingua franca, much of the researchers' reading at the highest levels is in English, so the higher and more specific the genre, the more familiar they will be with its high-level, explicit norms. They cannot actually be researchers without having absorbed the higher level genre/discourse rules within their discipline (Ramanathan and Kaplan 1996). On the other hand, this high level proficiency may be combined with great uncertainty about norms of the second language, culture, discourse and genre at the more basic levels. The majority of L2 researchers will have completed the greatest part of their studies in their own language, and their formal training in English will have stopped at high-school level. The result is a gap between the fairly basic level of English learnt at school and the advanced disciplinary genres that scholars master in connection with their research. Faced with this problem, the L2 researcher must find a way to write publishable articles in English. It should be noted that this perception of 'deficit' is not intended as an endorsement of native speaker norms as criteria for the academic writing of 'non-native speakers': rather, it reflects a contemporary reality.

The most common 'coping mechanism' is to copy the style, syntactic patterns and lexical expressions of the 'grand-masters' and peers of one's discipline. At worst, this tendency to re-cycle chunks of sophisticated professorial discourse may lead to unintentional plagiarism (Roig 1999), but the more common result is 'patchwriting' (Pecorani 2003; Yongyan Li and Casanave, 2012), a stultified and jargon-filled text whose obscurity masks the acuity of the academic mind behind it. To express their own thoughts, to synthesize ideas and to avoid plagiarism, researchers must reword chunks of discourse. The peculiar combination of high level linguistic expertise in a specialized genre with lower level uncertainty produces the oddly contorted communication of 'the advanced basic learner'. In particular, this means that 'chunks' of high level technical and disciplinary jargon are often connected by text marred by basic and intermediary level lexical, terminological & syntactic weaknesses. Often, high level jargon remains undigested and unexplained because the author lacks the intermediate skills (or the confidence) to embark on the unpacking and manipulation of the ideas that a native speaker would find indispensable.

Given the specific nature of these challenges facing L2 researchers, three characteristics of the LACS course in Academic Writing for researchers and lecturers are particularly suitable to the needs of the participants: simplification, authenticity and dialogic interaction.

Simplification

The focus on simplicity is a pivotal feature of a course that helps L2 researchers express complex ideas with sophisticated clarity. The aim is not to raise the level of complexity of the prose, but to find and use the basic and intermediate structures and lexis that are needed to connect, paraphrase and explain cutting edge ideas. The aim is certainly not to 'dumb down' the writing but to achieve the balance of simple

and complex that competent writers have at their disposal in their own language. The repeated emphasis on strategies for improving sentence structure, coherence and cohesion rather than on 'errors' means that L2 writers are provided with skills to achieve straightforward communicational excellence on a par with L1 writers. While this is in focus, correcting small, residual 'deficit' errors becomes a minor inconvenience to be dealt with as a side issue or in a final proof reading before submission. Although 'correct English' is not the main aim of the course, many of these errors disappear after a few workshop sessions.

Authenticity in the content and practice of writing

The authenticity of the LACS workshop sessions is conceivably a central contributor to the popularity of the course. The need of the L2 participants is to write articles and books that can communicate complexity in sophisticated and clear prose and thus live up to the norms of the gatekeepers in the academic community. Rather than artificial exercises that anticipate potential problems, the central activity of the LACS academic writing course involves addressing that real need directly by working on authentic drafts of the students' own writing. Thus, the re-writing 'activities' derive directly from authentic communicational needs, and participants experience maximum involvement in a set of rhetorical and communicational problems which, in other circumstances, would hardly interest them at all. The amount of time that an individual participant spends on any particular issue or skill is determined by the rate of occurrence of that issue in the author's work. The importance of each issue, however, is negotiated in interaction.

Dialogic interaction: instructor and peer feedback

Standard approaches to second language acquisition and to the teaching of English as a foreign language may involve a power imbalance, but that imbalance is more striking in the case of academic writing for publication than in the case of oral interaction. Participants in an oral interaction using English as a lingua franca are involved in activities whose central characteristics are not unlike those of communication between native speakers. The success of the exchange is not measured by the grammatical or semantic correctness of the language involved but by the achievement of communicational goals through the interactional negotiation of meaning. In true live interaction, there is no time out or position of objectivity from which one might judge the quality of the linguistic performance of the participants – native or non-native speakers. In academic writing, however, the rules of style, grammar and composition are tightly defined in any language, and, to be published, L2 writers are obliged to observe those rules. Every aspect of their linguistic and stylistic performance is open to comment and criticism. Whether or not they resent having to write in English, the participants need rapid and effective help to pass the gatekeepers of the world of academic publishing. Participants who register for the LACS course are looking for advice on how to write excellent academic prose in English.

The problem of trying to meet such needs should be obvious. The main danger in this deficit model is that the balance of knowledge is on the side of the expert language instructor. The participants genuinely want to learn, but the tedium of traditional language learning where there is only one answer is unlikely to engage the full attention of the academic researcher. However, closed tasks with simple answers are the staple of basic and intermediate language learning. At first sight, it might seem that the focus on the participants' own texts might redress the balance of power and interest the participants, but the effectiveness of this remedy depends entirely on the nature of the feedback provided.

Recent studies have investigated the relative weaknesses and strengths of peer and instructor feedback in academic settings (Strijbos, Narciss & Dünnebier 2010: Nebe 2013). Instructor feedback needs to be accompanied by further dialogue to be of any use to the author (Nebe 2013). As long as instruction occurs in large, 'economical' groups, extensive dialogue is unlikely to occur. On the other hand, peer feedback is often well-received but may not offer the same expert insight as instructor feedback. This is particularly likely to be true when the peers are L2 users and the instructor is either an L1 speaker or a trained expert in the language. However, the LACS Academic Writing in English course offers a dialogical alternative that combines both types of feedback. The initial feedback is prepared in minute detail by the instructor, but no precise criticism or solution is provided. The pairs who receive this instructor feedback cooperate in discussing it and in redrafting the text in light of the instructor's written commentary and of their own reflections on the text. In cooperating with a partner to find the optimal draft, the author is involved in detailed discussions of what she is trying to express. These discussions often reveal issues that extend beyond the feedback provided and open a dialogue that would be impossible between a single instructor and multiple participants. In other words, the feedback and redrafting process primarily unfolds in dialogical fashion between peers, but is stimulated by the expert input of the instructor. Importantly, authors remain masters of their own texts, and the effort to explain their own sophisticated thinking is always in focus. As both partners take turns in filling the roles of author and 'peer assistant', reciprocal respect and involvement are demanded of both. The nature of the activity is far from the dry exercise of grammatical or stylistic points, yet the same knowledge set is exercised in a far more effective and personalized way than could ever be achieved in more traditional forms of teaching. The redrafting process itself is where the learning happens reciprocally. Research is a long and lonely process where sharing and exposure may be associated with evaluation, critique and risk: in LACS workshops, the researcher is not alone, and writing becomes a shared and reflexive activity.

It is important not to exaggerate the 'free dialogical' aspect of peer feedback and shared redrafting. Participants expect a high degree of instructor involvement, and the instructor's role remains crucial. The main agenda for the workshops is set by the top-down instruction provided during the introductory session. The written feedback that prompts the discussion and redrafting process is provided by the instructor. The instructor circulates during the redrafting process to answer questions and comment on redrafts. Nevertheless, the fact that L2 researchers retain control of their own authentic texts during the process means that the course's doctrine of

communicational 'sophisticated simplicity' constantly interacts with the author's grasp of complex prose. Out of this tension and in interaction with her peers as partners and the instructor as consultant, the author forges her own style. By the end of the course, few participants write perfect 'native' English, but most write communicationally effective prose which can compete with the production of native speakers. In this regard, the course matches the pragmatic and interactional needs of true lingua franca interaction while recognizing that, for now at least, the majority of gatekeepers in the international academic community still adhere to some version of native written English as an ideal.

Conclusion

At Aalborg University, LACS courses for academic staff aim to develop sophisticated simplicity in the communication of complex intellectual processes. Participants still receive help with traditional L2 topics, but the instruction emphasizes communicational strategies and pragmatic issues rather than linguistic deficit. This concern with strategies and pragmatics helps writers to achieve some of the same competences that allow ELF speakers to achieve interactional excellence, regardless of the varieties of English they speak to each other. Nevertheless, L2 researchers as 'advanced basic learners' have very specific needs when it comes to writing for gatekeepers with an idealized version of native speaker English. The resulting balance between instruction, dialogue and respect for the author's intellectual autonomy might explain the popularity of the course.

Most detailed ELF studies have focused on oral interaction, while ELF approaches to academic writing have tended to be polemical. Generally speaking, therefore, more detailed research is needed into the troubled field of academic writing in English as a lingua franca. A useful first step would be a systematic empirical study of the effects of the LACS course at Aalborg to make sure that the positive perceptions of participants are matched by real results.

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ENGLISH – LINGUA FRANCA FOR MEDICAL STUDIES

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Abstract

This paper deals with English/Latin as lingua franca for medical studies. It outlines study programmes at the Faculty of Medicine in Pilsen both in the Czech and English languages. Firstly, it points out the difficulties students may encounter when mastering English medical terminology. Then it introduces English as lingua franca for IFMSA, an organization providing students with academic mobilities. Finally, it comments on teacher's practical knowledge and experience in teaching ESP with respect to his/her professional development.

Keywords: faculty of medicine, lingua franca for medicine, medical terminology, student/ academic mobilities, IFMSA, ESP teacher

Anotācija

Angļu valoda – lingua franca medicīnā

Šis raksts saistīts ar angļu/latīņu valodas kā medicīnas *lingua franca* pasniegšanu augstskolā. Rakstā analizētas studiju programmas Kārļa Universitātes Pilzenes medicīnas fakultātē čehu un angļu valodās. Pētījumā analizēts, kādas grūtības studentiem var rasties, apgūstot medicīnas terminoloģiju angļu valodā; angļu valoda aprakstīta kā IFMSA (Starptautiskās Medicīnas Studentu Asociāciju Federācijas) *lingua franca*, kas nodrošina studentus ar akadēmisko mobilitāti; komentēts skolotāja praktisko zināšanu un pieredzes nozīmīgums ESP (angļu valodas profesionāliem mērķiem) pasniegšanā saistībā ar pasniedzēja profesionālo attīstību kopumā.

Atslēgvārdi: Medicīnas fakultāte, *lingua franca* medicīnā, medicīnas terminoloģiju, studentu akadēmiskā mobilitāte, IFMSA, ESP pasniedzējs

Introduction

In past few decades there has been a strong tendency towards globalisation both in economic and cultural fields which may strenghten the process of internationalization in higher education. This calls for educational programmes including the language ones that would facilitate students' preparation for academic mobility and their future position mainly in the European employment market. In the Czech Republic,

like in other European countries English has become lingua franca for international communication and the main medium of instruction for university students.

1. University Studies

Charles University as the leading university in the Czech Republic offers high quality teaching in the Czech and English languages, an excellent research record and academics that are outstanding professionals in their disciplines. Charles University has over 50,000 students, including 6,000 international students coming to the university to obtain their degree. They are attracted by its more than a six hundred-year-old tradition and significance. Today the University has 17 faculties including that in Pilsen.

1.1. Faculty of Medicine in Pilsen

Faculty of Medicine in Pilsen offers accredited master's degree programmes in General Medicine (six years) and Dentistry (five years) in both the Czech and English languages. At the present time there are 1,410 Czech students and 56 international students in Czech programmes and 386 foreign students in English programmes. During its existence since 1945 the school has educated almost 9,000 doctors who are now practising their professions both in the Czech Republic and abroad. Medical studies in English do not have such a long tradition, they were first offered in 1992. The number of foreign students has risen significantly (from 29 to 114) which is in line with the university's aim of internationalism and its ability to provide extensive teaching in the English language. As can be seen from Table 1, the number of Czech students admitted to the 1st year in both general and dental medicine has doubled, as well as the number of international students in the Czech programme.

Table 1

Total numbers of Czech and international students admitted to the 1st year

Academic Years 1992-2014	Cz.program. GM Czech Stud.	Cz.program. GM Intern.Stud.	Cz.program. DY Czech Stud.	Cz.program. DY Intern. Stud.	Engl. program. GM Intern. Stud.	Engl. program. DY Intern. Stud.
1992/93	**106**	**8**	**21**	**1**	**27**	**2**
1995/96	85	10	16	0	20	4
1998/99	196	9	40	2	22	0
2001/02	200	10	31	0	19	0
2002/03	239	7	42	1	25	11
2003/04	243	9	38	1	30	9
2004/05	251	6	54	0	60	29
2005/06	200	5	52	0	87	18
2007/08	226	6	44	1	94	23
2009/10	206	5	50	1	80	19
2011/12	204	15	55	1	91	24
2012/13	198	8	49	1	90	15
2013/14	**211**	**16**	**47**	**3**	**97**	**17**

Notes: GM – general medicine DY – dentistry

1.2 Medical Studies in English

To introduce English programmes for foreign medical students was not an easy task at all. There were three basic aspects to be taken into account: preparing new syllabuses, gathering study materials and creating the new ones, and last but not least helping university teachers and doctors-specialists in university hospital who participate in teaching medical students with mastering the English language. University education in a foreign language (English) represents new challenges also for students who come from a different language environment but for whom English has become lingua franca for international communication and understanding. Indisputable advantage for the students is the fact that nowadays English is also lingua franca in academic/medical environment. This role was previously fulfilled by Latin – a language of communication in academic environment in medieval times. Even today the branch of medicine is associated exclusively with Latin though its roots lie in Greek. English has adopted about 75% of original medical terminology to its needs. The connection of Latin and English makes mastering English medical terminology easier for the students coming to the Faculty of Medicine in Pilsen from the countries with Latin/Greek background such as Portugal and Greece. These students make up about 67.4% of all international students at our faculty at the present time (see Table 2). Students from other language background: Sweden, Germany, Austria, Iran, Saudi Arabia, etc. (except Great Britain and the USA) may find studying English medical terminology more difficult also in view of the fact that Latin language is not taught to foreign students in English programmes.

The knowledge of English of international students entering our faculty has been of quite a high level (B2-C1) in the past few years which is in accordance with the European strategy to strenghten and unite language education presented by CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). It has clearly specified the standards of language abilities in an internationally comparable manner which facilitates educational and occupational mobilities. Before that the students' level of English was mixed (it was not specified) which caused the fact that nearly 20% of them had to leave the faculty due to their inability to comprehend professional lectures and seminars although they had passed entrance exams in English (biology, chemistry, physics) including a motivational interview.

Table 2

Countries the international students come from

Country	Number of students (total number 386)	Percentage
Portugal	183	47.4%
Greece	77	20.0%
Sweden	36	9.4%
Germany	28	7.3%
Great Britain	24	6.2%
Iran	10	2.6%
Saudi Arabia	7	1.8%
the USA	3	0.7%
Austria	3	0.7%
Other countries	15	3.9%

1.3 Languages for the Czech programme

Czech students represent about three quarters of all students at our faculty. Prevailing number of them study in Czech, but there are a few exceptional students who have completed studies in the English programme. To reach the language competencies needed for the European employment market, they are offered professional language courses in English, German or French. The professional courses (medical terminology) are aimed at first year students and as you may see from Table 3 the majority of them (227 out of 280) choose English in view of their future career and possible students' mobilities. Last but not least, students feel confident in English since it is a compulsory subject at primary and secondary schools. Because of the geographical position of the Czech Republic in Europe German and French languages may be interesting for our students as well but their number is significantly lower. All students of Medical terminology which is compulsory should reach level B2-C1. Medical study programme also offers a number of elective subjects among which languages play an important role. In the second year students may choose other foreign language courses: basic or for medical practice. Students of the subject "Foreign language for medical practice" finish on level B1-B2. The third year elective subject concentrates on medical readings in a foreign language (see Table 3).

It is necessary to highlight Latin as a compulsory subject for all first year students including the international ones (studying in Czech) because it is undoubtedly lingua franca for the medical studies and medicine in general in Czech background.

Table 3

Foreign languages for Czech programme: academic year 2013/2014

1st year (2 semesters)	**Compulsory subjects: Latin + 1 foreign language** Latin language (**280**) Medical terminology in English (**227**) Medical terminology in German (28) Medical terminology in French (6) Medical Terminology in Czech (19)
2nd year (2 semesters)	**Elective subjects** English (7), German (36), French (11) or Spanish (16): basic course English (10), German (16), French (8) or Spanish (5): courses for medical practice
3rd year (1 semester)	**Elective subjects** English (15), German (10) or French (8) through medical readings

2. Problems of teaching English medical terminology

Although the role of Latin is beneficial for studying medical English in many respects, it also introduces some problems in its teaching. In this paper we concentrate on the most typical difficulties the students with a partial knowledge of Latin may have in acquisition of English medical terminology, and we deal with mutual interference of both languages within the medical linguistic context. These problems reflect the situation at our medical faculty because of concurrent teaching of Latin and English

languages at the very beginning of medical studies. Whereas Latin is helpful in the study of anatomy (anatomical terminology), it causes difficulties in its application to medical English. That is why we as English teachers have to pay special attention to the accurate acqusition of borrowed Latin expressions which in the course of time and under the influence of English have often lost their original forms.

In teaching medical English we start with a description of the human body and body systems in which the specific terms occur. What problems may our students encounter when learning these terms? Students generally tend to use Latin/Greek terms which they are familiar with from their classes of anatomy and Latin. But only a small group of such terms is completely identical with its Latin/Greek origin (e.g. rectum, urethra, colon) and can be used without any spelling/grammatical changes. Lots of words may more or less differ from their original pattern in spelling (e.g. diaphragma – diaphragm), word order (e.g. vena cava superior – superior vena cava) or both (e.g. columna vertebralis – vertebral column). Students often do not respect these slight differences and use the words incorrectly following the rules of Latin instead of concentrating on the structure of the English language (e.g. word order: noun – adjective/L; adjective – noun /E). Sometimes students even use terms as pulmo (L) to describe the lung, cor (L) for the heart or hepar (G) for the liver, although the only acceptable words for describing these organs are the English words. Students should also be familiar with the group of words using both Latin/ Greek and English expressions and should be aware of their appropriate usage. Latin/Greek terms are preferable in technical description of the human body and its organs, body systems and their functions, etc., whereas English terms (lay terms) are used at the communicative level (doctor – patient, nurse – patient, patient – patient). This particular knowledge is desirable to be used by our students especially during their medical practice abroad.

We teach our students to comprehend that the fundamental unit of each medical word is the root which establishes the basic meaning of the word and is the part to which modifying prefixes and suffixes are added. This is important for forming adjectives, compound words and combining forms. For this purpose the knowledge of Latin is very helpful mainly in cases when more than one original root corresponds to the English word (e.g. *mast-*, *mamm-* refers to breast; *thorac-*, *steth-*, *pect-* refers to chest; *nephr-, ren-* refers to kidney). We teach our students to fix the correct words by using them in collocations (e.g. mammary gland, thoracic cavity, pectoral girdle, renal failure) or in a linguistic context (e.g. Nephrology deals with the kidney and its diseases. Mastitis is an inflammation of the breast.)

It is impossible to omit some notes on pronunciation. The pronunciation of both original and anglicized medical terms in most cases differs from the original Latin/ Greek pattern. That is why we start practising pronunciation of these words at the very beginning of the English medical course (because at the same time our students are trained in the Latin pronunciation) and we continue with it throughout the whole course. We pay special attention to the pronunciation of prefixes, suffixes and word endings including Latin/Greek plurals (prefixes: hydro- [haidrəu]; leuco- [lju:kə]; psycho- [saikəu]; suffixes: -itis [aitis] and word endings: fungi [dʒai] or [gai]; larvae [i:]). Problems our students may have concern visual-auditory perception and interference between the original Latin/Greek and English pronunciation of the same

or similar words, e.g. gingivitis [dʒindʒi'vaitis] or jejunum [dʒi'dʒu:nəm]. When seeing these words, they understand the meaning but when only hearing them, they do not understand. It is good to combine listening with reading to fix both correct pronunciation and word comprehension.

Learning the Latin terminology together with English lay terms is not the only way of mastering medical English. An integral part of medical language is professional slang (jab, junkie, speeder). In this area English plays an indisputable role. Today's English is a living organism which sensitively responds to the rapid development of science, new technologies and society. In connection with globalisation and the strong economic position of English-speaking countries, new English words including medical terms are borrowed into the language systems of other countries. Typical examples are words such as shock, screening, AIDS, CT, etc. Borrowing words from English strenghtens the role of English as a lingua franca also in medical English because it represents a living bridge connecting all medical specialists regardless of their countries of origin or knowledge of Latin.

3. English – lingua franca for IFMSA

Knowledge of foreign languages, English in particular, is necessary also for student mobilities. There are lots of possibilities within the Lifelong Learning Programme such as Erasmus, Comenius or Grundtvig. Students are offered one- to two-semester exchanges, special scholarship programmes or they may take part in Young European Scientist Meetings. Czech and international students at the Faculty of Medicine of Charles University in Pilsen can collaborate with IFMSA (International Federation of Medical Students Associations), an independent non-governmental organization connecting 105 organizations in 95 different countries. It is affiliated to the United Nations and the World Health Organization (WHO). Its main aim is to support international cooperation in professional education and spread ideals of humanity. It offers international clerkships for medical students around the globe, combining the curricular benefit to the cultural enrichment. There are two basic types of study visits by IFMSA: professional exchange (SCOPE) and research exchange (SCORE). Both exchange programmes offer students unique educational and cultural experience in addition to the regular medical curriculum. A professional one means an exchange of a medical student who undergoes a medical practice in a hospital abroad. Participation in a research exchange is based on cooperation in intensive and focused research projects, which allow medical students to expand their knowledge of specific scientific areas of their choice. The study exchanges take place in Europe (Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Lithunia, Portugal and Spain), South and North America (Brazil, Mexico, and Peru), Africa (Egypt, Tunisia) and Asia (Taiwan, Thailand, and Turkey), in fact all continents are included with the exception of Australia. The English language is used for communicative purposes in all participating countries (oral and written communication, websites, documents, etc.).

Table 4 shows a growing number of students interested in study exchange participation. The number of students applying for study visits has almost doubled since 2004. This may be caused by higher awareness of our students about the activities of IFMSA, better language capability and their effort to get acquainted

with working conditions in medical professions abroad. At the same time the number of study visits has been increasing gradually with the peak in the year 2010. Since 2006 students may also participate in research exchange programmes.

Table 4

Number of students applying for study visits offered by IFMSA in 2004-2014

Academic Year	Number of students (CZ/I) applying for study visits	Total number of study visits	Number of professional exchanges	Number of research exchanges
2003/2004	36/ 9	22	22	x
2004/2005	28/ 6	26	26	x
2005/2006	31/11	22	22	x
2006/2007	32/10	27	23	4
2007/2008	57/11	38	33	5
2008/2009	46/14	41	38	3
2009/2010	74/15	46	38	8
2010/2011	54/16	43	35	8
2011/2012	65/10	41	35	6
2012/2013	53/17	36	32	4
2013/2014	59/15	40	35	5

As English is lingua franca for this organisation, the language exam is considered to be a major criterion for the allocation of the study visit. Until 2012 testing was provided by our teachers of English at the Department of Languages. To guarantee the objectivity of this exam it included both written and oral parts which were evaluated by three examiners. Students from English programmes were usually better in oral parts while Czech students reached better results in written grammar tests. The students were given certificates of their English comprehension in professional field confirmed by our Department. Since 2013 all students (Czech and international) wishing to take part in exchange programmes have to undergo National Language Test by IFMSA. Tests are now prepared centrally by one language department for the participants from all medical faculties from the Czech Republic (8). Students must demonstrate above all their knowledge of medical terminology and academic language, reading and listening comprehension as well as their ability to use appropriate language in medical communication.

4. The role of ESP teachers

The teachers of today need to adapt themselves to changing and challenging surrounding environment and they should search for new approaches in language teaching. Their main role is transferring these changes into educational system and adjusting them to the needs of their schools and students. In order to do this, they must continuously improve their own competences and work on their professional development. The important role of an ESP teacher (Hutchinson & Waters 1991:157) is to prepare suitable teaching materials in accordance with the content of each topic, the specificity of technical language, required skills development, and last but not least student's own knowledge and abilities. There are three possible ways of

creating teaching materials: selecting from existing materials (evaluation), writing own materials (development), and modifying existing materials (adaptation).

There are lots of different authentic materials (drug leaflets, hospital admission cards, health history questionnaires, various diagrams, etc.) that are suitable for class presentation but they must be adapted for that purpose (simplification, explanations, prompts, gaps, pictures, etc.). At the same time they may be used for practising all language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing).

As university students undergraduates and postgraduates should develop a wide range of academic English skills, teachers in their turn have to include students' needs into the language syllabuses. Whereas the undergraduates need to be familiar with highly technical and subtechnical vocabulary, symbols and formulae and technical abbreviations on the one hand and lay terms on the other hand, the postgraduates should master mainly lay terms in appropriate context and abbreviations of non-Latin origin because other vocabulary based on Latin is commonly used in their everyday work. Postgraduates are also trained in skills for academic writing used mainly when preparing posters and presentations. This is reflected in the usage of technical, less technical, popular-science texts and specific grammar.

At the present time ICT (information and communication technologies) belong to important teachers' competences, that is why we are trying to involve preparing and creating computer-based educational materials into our teaching programmes. We participate in a three-year project MODIM (Modernization of educational methods through e-technologies) involving all departments of the Faculty of Medicine. The key activities of this project are the following: wide support of authors creating electronic study materials and e-courses, ICT education of academic workers and other employees of the faculty and implementation of shibboleth technology in teaching hospital. So far we have published two e-materials: How to prepare a successful power point presentation step-by-step aimed at first aid for emergencies and Selected chapters from English grammar in medical context (part 1). Together with our colleagues from the language department we have been intensively working on a medical electronic translation dictionary in eight languages (Czech, Latin, Greek, English, German, French, Spanish, and Russian) which we hope will be of great use for undergraduate and postgraduate students of both general medicine and dentistry. We expect to create interesting and meaningful electronic materials supporting our traditional classroom teaching which can be also used for self-study and preparing for language exams.

Conclusion

In our paper we have tried to present English as lingua franca for medical studies both in Czech and English programmes and also for students' mobilities organised by IFMSA. We have outlined some problems our students have when learning English medical terminology currently with the Latin one. We have come to the conclusion that the interconnection of English and Latin in medicine is evident and practical usage and knowledge of both languages in medical practice is desirable. Students may verify this when participating in medical exchange programmes. An

important advantage is that students may participate in study exchanges more than just once. Generally they have very good experience with their stays abroad and that is why they are trying to maintain and improve their level of English which is also reflected in the following IFMSA testing. Those who have not succeeded for the first time are strongly motivated to make progress and show their language ability in the following years.

We are aware of the fact that the teacher himself plays a significant role in his professional development in order to be able to pass his personal practical knowledge and experience to his students. Together with his colleagues and with the support of his institution he is able to bring about changes and consequently implement new thoughts and strategies into the teaching process with the use of state-of-the-art technologies. All the innovations must be done with respect to the needs and demands of the students.

Professional development is a challenge for us, teachers, who want to follow new approaches and tendencies in our work. To avoid negative factors, e.g. burnout syndrome, it is necessary to take control of our own development, continuously look forward, think positively and enjoy the work with our students.

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LATVIEŠU VALODA KĀ INTEGRĀCIJU VEICINOŠS FAKTORS STUDIJU VIDĒ

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Anotācija

Nacionālās identitātes un sabiedrības integrācijas jautājumi ir 21. gadsimta izaicinājumi sabiedrības konsolidācijas procesā, lai nodrošinātu gudru, ilgtspējīgu un integrējošu valsts izaugsmi. Šīs savstarpēji papildinošās prioritātes ir ceļš uz augsta līmeņa nodarbinātību, produktivitāti un sociālo kohēziju(Eiropa 2020).

Raksta mērķis ir analizēt latviešu valodu kā līdzekli sabiedrības integrācijas un kohēzijas veicināšanā un, balstoties uz veikto analīzi, izstrādāt ierosinājumus integrējošas vides pilnveidošanai. Pētījums sniedz ieskatu valsts valodas un sabiedrības integrācijas politikā un tās īstenošanā, analizē izglītības piedāvātās iespējas apgūt valodas, atzīstot arī neformālo valodas mācīšanos. Augstākās izglītības iestādes dod nozīmīgu ieguldījumu latviešu valodas kompetences attīstībā, organizējot formālās (arī neformālās) valodas apguves iespējas gan Latvijas iedzīvotājiem, gan ārzemniekiem.

Apzinoties nepieciešamību izstrādāt kompleksas programmas atvērtas un integrētas sabiedrības radīšanai, izmantojot latviešu valodas apguvi un veidojot vidi, kas nodrošina valodas un kultūras pieredzes pilnveidi un sociālo sakaru paplašināšanos, lai mazinātu komunikatīvās un psiholoģiskās barjeras, ir nepieciešams turpināt darbu pie valodas apguves projektiem, kuru rezultātā tiktu radīta metodoloģiskā un metodiskā bāze valodu apguvē, kas paaugstinātu izglītības kvalitāti un veicinātu turpmāko sabiedrības integrāciju un kohēziju.

Atslēgas vārdi: valodu apguve, studiju vide, sabiedrības integrācija un kohēzija.

Abstract

Latvian as an integration-facilitating Factor in the Study Enviroment

The state national identity and society integration has to respond both to the challenges of the 21st century and enhance the society consolidation processes in order to ensure smart, sustainable and inclusive growth of the country (*Europe 2020*).

The *purpose* of the paper is to analyse the Latvian language as a means of society integration and cohesion and based on the analysis conducted and best practice review elaborate suggestions for further society integration opportunities. The study applies *evaluation design* as it provides an overview of the corresponding legal enactments in the field of official language and society integration policy and their implementation, an analysis of educational opportunities for language learning paying special emphasis to non-formal adult language learning, as well as reveals the examples of best practice in the field.

Language learning is provided both in formal and non-formal education. Significant contributors in developing people's Latvian language competence are higher education institutions providing both formal and non-formal language learning opportunities for inhabitants of Latvia and foreigners.

The findings of the study indicate that in promoting the Latvian language competence it is necessary to develop comprehensive programmes that focus on creation of open and

integrated society. It is necessary to continue working at language acquisition projects the result of which is the creation of methodological and methodical base for language learning that would enhance education quality and can serve as a basis for further society integration and cohesion.

Key words: language learning, study enviroment, society integration and cohesion.

Valodu apguve kā tolerantu un dialoģisku attiecību veidošanās pamats

Valodas apguves un pilnveidošanas iespēju paplašināšana ir būtisks priekšnoteikums sabiedrības integrācijai, saliedētībai un socializācijai. Izglītības kvalitātes nodrošināšanas nepieciešamība izvirzījusi jaunas prasības gan valodas apguvējiem, gan pedagogiem. Valodas prasme kļuvusi par svarīgu nosacījumu, kas dod iespēju darboties sev vēlamā jomā.

Valodas lietotāji ir sociālas būtnes, sabiedrības locekļi, kuriem noteiktos apstākļos, konkrētā situācijā un dažkārt arī specifiskā darbības jomā jāveic dažādi uzdevumi. Uz darbību orientētā pieejā students kā sociāla būtne izmanto un realizē savas kognitīvās, emocionālās un gribas iespējas, pilnveidojot sadarbības prasmes, patstāvību un atbildību. Darbības komunikatīvā pieeja saistīta ar personības interesēm un profesionālajām vajadzībām, kuru realizācijā jāizmanto valoda kā profesionālās darbības realizācijas „instruments”, bet studiju procesā un praksē valoda veic specialitātes apguves funkciju.

2010. gadā veiktajā pētījumā „Ārstniecības specialitātes ārzemju studentu profesionālās latviešu valodas kompetences veidošanās” (Līsmane 2010) tika analizēta valodas studiju procesa vide, ārvalstu studentu vajadzības, intereses un valodas apguves motivācija. Pētījums veikts, iesaistot tajā galvenokārt vienas specialitātes (ārstniecības) un vienas augstskolas (Latvijas Universitātes) ārzemju studentus, citu specialitāšu un citu augstskolu ārzemju studenti iesaistīti, lai rastu priekšstatu par kopīgajām un atšķirīgajām iezīmēm un tendencēm vispār.

Ievērojams skaits to cilvēku, kas mainījuši tradicionālo vidi, dzīvo jaunā sabiedrībā, nonākuši saskarsmē ar citu kultūru un sociālo vidi, apgūst prasmi ar to kontaktēties. Nepieciešamas refleksijas par savas un citas valsts valodu, vēsturi, sabiedrību, kultūru, tās savdabību, dzīves stilu, lai izvairītos no konfliktiem un veicinātu sapratni saskarsmē ar jauno vidi.

Divu vai vairāku personu virzību uz kopīgu mērķi nodrošina sadarbība. Sadarbībā nepieciešama saskarsme. Saskarsmē izpaužas trīs galvenās funkcijas: komunikatīvā, interaktīvā un aperceptīvā. Saskarsmes intensitāte un efektivitāte ietekmē savstarpējo attiecību realizāciju darbības taktikā. Būtiska nozīme profesionālās saskarsmes modelēšanai mācību apstākļos ir saskarsmes situāciju izvēlei.

Franču sociologs E. Morēns ir izteicis atziņu, ka: *„Dialoga princips nozīmē divu vai vairāku atšķirīgu 'loģiku' savienojumu vienā veselā sarežģītā veidā (papildu, konkurējošā vai antagoniskā), dualitātei neizzūdot kopumā”* (Morēns 1999, 77), bet valodas apgūšana nozīmē citu – tolerantu un dialoģisku – attiecību veidošanos, jo

zināt kādu valodu nozīmē būt komunikatīvi kompetentam, būt spējīgam un gatavam iesaistīties dialogā.

Valodas studiju procesā ārstniecības programmas ārvalstu studentiem valodas apguves procesā nozīmīga virzība – no elementārā latviešu valodas līmeņa līdz profesionālās latviešu valodas kompetences līmenim studiju procesā, kas aktualizējas, gatavojoties praksei slimnīcā vai rezidentūrai Latvijā. Būtiska kļūst izpratne ne tikai par angļu valodas lietojuma iespējām Latvijā, bet saikne ar reālo situāciju, kas noteiks arī latviešu valodas lietojuma iespējas vai nepieciešamību reālās saskarsmes situācijās, lai, izprotot citu attieksmi un vēlmes, veiktu savus pienākumus un piedāvātu pacientam savu palīdzību viņam pieņemamā un saprotamā valodā un veidā. Darbības efektivitāti negarantē tikai valodas komunikatīvā kompetence, bet nepieciešama kļūst arī starpkultūru kompetence, kas ietver toleranci, citas kultūras, varbūt arī cita sociālā slāņa, cita dzīvesveida izpratni un pieņemšanu, cieņu un empātiju, realizējot valodas kompetenci dažādās situācijās un atšķirīgās vidēs.

J. Habermāss kā interakcijas teorētiķis, parādot komunikācijas nozīmi dzīvesdarbībā, akceptēja diskursu kā interaktīvā procesa rezultātu, kā sociālās prakses formu. Valoda kā sistēma, tās izpratne dod mums iespēju runāt, izmantot to kā pašizpausmes un pašrealizācijas līdzekli. Tās ciešā saikne ar cilvēka iekšējo monologu un pašrefleksiju ir viens no nozīmīgākajiem verbālās komunikācijas psiholoģiskajiem elementiem un nosacījumiem komunikācijas nodrošināšanas procesā. Valoda ir unikāla sistēma, bet, trūkstot valodas zināšanām un valodas sistēmas izpratnei, komunikatīvās kompetences nepietiekami attīstītais līmenis var radīt daudzas problēmas. Komunikācija ir veids, kā studentus iesaistīt autentiskā mutvārdu vai rakstveida saziņā, šo saziņas prasmju veidošanā, izprotot, ka tieši valoda ir gan kultūras apziņas forma un izpausme, gan svešvalodas apguves līdzeklis. Svešvalodas komunikatīvās kompetences veidošanās pamatojas uz dzimtās valodas komunikatīvo kompetenci.

Katrs valodas lietošanas akts notiek konkrētā situācijā kādā sociālās dzīves jomā un valodas vidē (studiju vai profesionālās darbības, vai interešu jomā):

► personiskā joma, kuras centrā ir attiecīgā persona kā indivīds (*vieta*: studenta kopmītne, īrēts dzīvoklis; *personas*: radi, draugi, paziņas);

► sabiedriskā joma, kurā persona darbojas (sabiedriskās vietas: institūcijas, iestādes; *personas*: ierēdņi, darbinieki u.c.);

► izglītības joma, kurā persona iesaistās organizētā mācību procesā (*vieta*: universitātes auditorijas, laboratorijas; *personas*: docētāji, grupas biedri, administratīvais personāls u.c.);

► profesionālā joma, kurā persona strādā, veic kādu darbu, praktizējas (*vieta*: slimnīca, laboratorija; *personas*: medicīniskais personāls; ārsti, medicīnas māsas, praktikanti).

Daudzas situācijas vienlaikus var būt saistītas ar vairākām jomām. Saziņas procesā starp valodas apguvēju, lietotāju un viņa sarunu partneri var rasties sarežģījumi un pārpratumi dažādu ārēju apstākļu dēļ. Tie var būt fiziskie apstākļi, sociālie apstākļi, laika ierobežojumi un citi apstākļi (finansiālie apstākļi, stresa situācijas).

Par valodas apguvēja progresu liecina prasme iesaistīties komunikatīvajās darbībās un izmantot saziņas stratēģijas:

- ► darbības un stratēģijas (*runāšana*: monologs, argumentācija, publiski paziņojumi, uzstāšanās auditorijā; *rakstīšana*: referāti, raksti);
- ► darbības un stratēģijas (dzirdes uztvere – *klausīšanās*: dzimtās valodas runātāja sapratne, klausīšanās auditorijā tiešā klātbūtnē, paziņojumu un instrukciju klausīšanās, raidījumu un ierakstu klausīšanās; redzes uztvere – *lasīšana*; audiovizuālā uztvere – TV un filmu skatīšanās);
- ► darbības un stratēģijas (monologs, dialogs, neformāla saruna, lietišķa diskusija, sadarbība ar noteiktu mērķi, intervija; rakstveida saziņa u.c.);
- ► komunikācija.

Starp komunikatīvajām vajadzībām un valodas līmeņiem pastāv noteiktas sakarības:

- ► pirmā vajadzību grupa atbilst kontaktu dibināšanai, veidošanai, attīstīšanai; tā var tikt apmierināta verbāli semantiskajā līmenī un realizēta komunikācijā;
- ► otrā vajadzību grupa korelē ar saskarsmes situācijām, kas piedāvā sadarbību;
- ► trešā vajadzību grupa atbilst saskarsmes situācijām, kurās personība tiek virzīta uz sava partnera adekvātu uztveri un situācijas izpratni.

Svešvalodu apguves hipotēžu analīze rāda, ka visefektīvākā ir tā hipotēze, kas balstās uz daudzkultūru paradigmu starpkultūru situācijā. Viens no svarīgākajiem šīs hipotēzes postulātiem ir tas, ka svešvalodas apguves procesā students veido savu individuālu, viņam atbilstošu, patstāvīgu valodas sistēmu, kurai piemīt gan dzimtās valodas un svešvalodas galvenās iezīmes, kā arī specifiskās īpatnības, kas nav atkarīgas no pirmajām divām valodām. Starpvaloda jeb starpvalodu kompetence kā savdabīgs vektors virzībā no dzimtās valodas uz svešvalodu attīstās ļoti dinamiski, balstoties uz valodas apguvēja vispārējo valodas un runas pieredzi, turpina veidot un paplašināt nākamās valodas apguves pieredzi, izmantojot dažādas taktikas un stratēģijas studiju un profesionālās saskarsmes situācijās.

Students, balstoties uz savu valodas un kultūras pieredzi, pakāpeniski virzās uz svešas valodas un svešas kultūras sistēmas izpratni un apguvi. Šis process, protams, ir pietiekami sarežģīts, tāpēc apgūt valodu un kultūru pilnībā neizdodas visiem. Konstruējot individuālo gramatiku, kas dažkārt veidojas stihiski, rodas priekšstats, ka varbūt nemaz nepastāv kādas īpašas likumsakarības. Tomēr, kā rāda studentu izteikumu analīze, tas neatbilst reālajai situācijai. Studentu individuālā gramatika parāda „savdabīgu" gramatikas minimumu, kas raksturīgs dzimtās valodas apguves sākumposmā, bet tad tiek pārnests uz daudz augstāku attīstības pakāpi un tiek veidots atbilstoši sarežģītāku ideju, domu, izteikumu, runas formulēšanai.

Protams, domāšana šajā valodas apguves līmenī ir atbilstoša tādu valodas vienību konstruēšanas stadijai, kādu nosaka tieši šīs valodas vienības. Tas, kurš apgūst valodu no pirmsākumiem, kontaktējoties šajā valodā, nepretendē uz gramatisku pareizumu, bet izvirza mērķi: censties izteikt galveno būtību, jēgu. Students konstruē teikumus vispirms „pēc nozīmes", nevis pēc apgūstamās valodas gramatikas likumiem. Izveidojot savu valodas apguves stratēģiju un saskarsmes stratēģiju apgūstamajā valodā, students paplašina savas komunikatīvās iespējas tajās situācijās, kurās viņa svešvalodu pieredze nav atbilstošā līmenī, lai nodrošinātu komunikatīvās darbības

vajadzības pietiekami augstā līmenī. Šajā gadījumā viņš pārfrāzē, pārstrukturē dažādus izteikumus, cenšas nojaust nepazīstamo vārdu nozīmi, izvairās no nepazīstamu tēmu apspriešanas, izmanto līdzekļus, kas kompensē viņa ierobežotās, vēl nepietiekamās zināšanas, izmantojot gan verbālās, gan neverbālās stratēģijas. Šīs stratēģijas valodas apguvējs var izmantot gan apzinātā, gan arī neapzinātā līmenī, jo svešvalodu apguve, mācīšanās ir attīstošs process, kurā pilnveidojas arī valodas apguves stratēģiju mijiedarbība un attīstās jaunas saskarsmes stratēģijas.

Valodas apguve profesionālās saskarsmes struktūras un satura kontekstā

Starpgrupu komunikācija ietver vairāk sociāli un profesionāli, bet ne lingvistiski pamatojamas atšķirības, kaut arī grupu ietvaros var tikt lietotas pat vairākas valodas. Tas izskaidro situāciju, kāpēc profesionālā terminoloģija (arī profesionālais slengs) ir dažreiz labāk saprotams vienas profesijas pārstāvjiem, kas runā dažādās valodās, nekā vienas valodas runātājiem, kas pārstāv dažādas sociālās vai profesionālās grupas. Studiju procesa un topošo ārstu profesionālās darbības satura analīze rāda, ka „komunikatīvie uzdevumi, kas jāveic studentiem, var būt arī diezgan vienveidīgi un tipizēti, atbilstoši konkrētam valodas stilam, teksta tipam, gan arī tādi, kas paredz nosacījumu izmantot dažādus žanrus, runas tipus, veidus utt." (Koroļova 2003, 201; Gaļskova 2004).

Dažādu specialitāšu mediķu profesionālās saskarsmes struktūras un satura analīze ļauj mums secināt, ka attiecībā uz struktūru šādu saskarsmi ir mērķtiecīgi diferencēt, izmantojot krievu zinātnieka B. F. Lomova koncepciju par saskarsmes periodiem un cikliem (Lomovs 1976, Koroļova 2003, 86), ar periodiem saprotot katra konkrētā saskarsmes posma saturu, kas atbilst vienai tēmai. Piemēram, pat anamnēzes ievākšanas procesā var izšķirt dažādus saskarsmes posmus: iepriekšējo slimību anamnēzes ieguvi, konkrētās slimības anamnēzes noskaidrošanu utt.

Ar saskarsmes ciklu tiek saprasts sarunas partneru, komunikācijas subjektu mijiedarbības akts, kas ietver savstarpējus izteikumus (piemēram, atbilde – jautājums) attiecībā uz vienu un to pašu informācijas objektu. Cikls var būt verbāli →verbāls vai arī verbāli→neverbāls, atkarībā no saskarsmes uzdevumiem un noteikumiem. Piemēram, uz ārsta runas komentāru, izteikumu, jautājumu pacients var reaģēt gan verbāli, gan arī ar mīmiku vai žestiem, vai fizisku darbību, veicot ārsta lūguma izpildi. Citiem vārdiem, cikls ir dialoga minimālā vienība. Kā runas minimālā vienība ir runas darbība jeb akts (funkcionāli orientēts izteikums), kura mērķis ir iedarboties uz partneri, ko nosaka ārsta profesionālās darbības un ko motivē konkrētās saskarsmes nosacījumi.

Izvēloties šādu profesionālās saskarsmes strukturētu dalījumu ārsta profesionālās darbības procesā, mēs cenšamies maksimāli ņemt vērā valodas kā saskarsmes instrumenta funkcionēšanu, īpaši informācijas apmaiņas un nepieciešamās savstarpējās sapratnes gadījumā. Saskarsmes nosacījumi un apstākļi, saskarsmes situāciju ietekmējošie faktori – vieta, laiks –, dalībnieki determinē ārsta, studenta/ praktikanta runas darbības veidu. Profesionālajā saskarsmē ir svarīga saskarsmes situāciju tipizācija, saskarsmes struktūras un satura īpatnību izpratne. Mācību

situāciju modelēšana un runas darbības satura īpatnību noskaidrošana atbilstoši profesionālās saskarsmes situācijām, kurās realizēsies komunikācijas process ar slimniekiem latviešu valodā, ir būtiska, jo ārzemju studentam būs nepieciešama latviešu valodas prasme:

- analizējot saslimšanas gadījumus, slimības gaitu, ievācot slimnieka anamnēzi, iegūstot informāciju, uzdodot jautājumus pacientam, precizējot iegūto informāciju, to pārbaudot un papildinot, sniedzot nepieciešamās rekomendācijas, skaidrojot, komentējot veicamās darbības;
- saziņas procesā ar slimnīcas nodaļas medicīnisko personālu, prakses vadītāju, slimnieka radiniekiem un tuviniekiem vai kolēģiem;
- lasot, uztverot, izprotot informāciju (mutvārdu un rakstveida paziņojumus, dokumentus u.c.);
- rakstu valodas prasme (norīkojumi, slimības vēsture, receptes, dažādas izziņas un medicīniskie atzinumi).

Specialitātes apguve ārstniecības programmā ietver speciālo zināšanu apguvi, receptīvo un reproduktīvo prasmju veidošanos, personības dažādu iezīmju un īpašību pilnveidi, kas notiek tikai daudzkārtēja treniņa rezultātā, īstenojot attiecīgus kopsakarīgus darbības aktus atbilstīgi uzdevumiem un dabiskajiem apstākļiem to norises gaitā. Medicīnas speciālista veidošanās un izaugsmes specifika izpaužas īpašā *„slimnīcu prakses"* apguves procesā (Koroļova 2003).Atbilstoši ekspertu datiem, ārsta prakses laikā studenta pienākumos ietilpst: slimības vēstures noformēšana, ārstēšanas plānošana, piedalīšanās profesora vai ārstējošā ārsta vizītēs. Šādu profesionālās darbības vispārējo un konkrēto uzdevumu galvenais saturs ir ierakstu veikšana slimības vēsturē, slimnieku izmeklēšana, iztaujāšana, uzklausīšana, ieinteresētība un gatavība sniegt palīdzību, dalība rīta konferencēs, tā ir gan rakstveida, gan mutvārdu saziņa, aktīva produktīvo un receptīvo runas darbības veidu izmantošana praksē.

Pēc Krievijas zinātnieku (Borzenko 1983, Koroļovas 2003, 146) datiem, komunikatīvā kompetence (19%) reālās profesionālās saskarsmes situācijās sniedz priekšstatu par jaunā speciālista profesionālās darbības kvalitāti. Tādējādi mediķu profesionālajā saskarsmē par visnozīmīgāko tiek uzskatīta dialoga prasme. Tā ir prasme veidot dialogu, veikt iztaujāšanu, piedalīties slimības vēstures apspriešanā, iesaistīties komunikācijā ar citiem ārstiem, medicīnisko personālu, slimnieka radiniekiem utt.; tās nozīmīgumu uzsver gan Krievijas zinātniece O. Koroļova (2003), gan Vācijas zinātnieks Karenbergs (2009), kuri savās valstīs izstrādājuši metodikas ārzemju studentu saskarsmes veicināšanai: „Методическое обеспечение профессионально – ориентированного обучения иностранных студентов – медиков общению на русском языке в процессе подготовки к клинической практике" (Koroļova 2003), „Fachsprache Medizin im Schnellkurs. Für Studium und Berufspraxis" (Karenbergs 2009).

Valodas apguve un studiju vide Latvijas Universitātē

Studēšanas vēstures izpēte, interešu un vajadzību izpēte, valodas apguves motivācijas izpēte, pirmās svešvalodas, otrās svešvalodas apguves pieredzes

izpēte; profesionālo, tikumisko un kultūras vērtību izpēte sniedz priekšstatu par dažām respondentu grupām.

Vērtējot atbildes (1. grupa), dažkārt parādās savdabīgas iezīmes:

I, arī II semestra students var justies dezorientēts, apjucis, neadekvāti vērtēt situāciju, būt neapmierināts, vientuļš, pārsteigts, nespējīgs pielāgoties jaunajai situācijai, vīlies. Kopumā studentam:

- nav skaidra priekšstata par sevi, apkārtējiem, savu vietu šajā vidē, trūkst informācijas;
- raksturīga mainīga, neizveidojusies vērtību sistēma, dominē pragmatiska pieeja;
- nav skaidra priekšstata par savu profesionālo nākotni (vai arī nevēlas to atklāt);
- pašrealizācijas telpa ir ierobežota; bieži nepieņem un neizprot vidi, kurā atrodas;
- atšķirīgs, neviendabīgs mācīšanās prasmes līmenis;
- nepietiekams latviešu valodas apguves līmenis.

Respondentiem (2. grupa) raksturīgas šādas iezīmes:

- neadekvāta sevis vai citu, situācijas izpratne, bet attieksme ir pietiekami pozitīva;
- vērtību (arī profesionālo) sistēma ir izveidojusies, balstoties uz praktisko dominanti;
- profesijas izvēle ne vienmēr ir adekvāta, tā īsti neatbilst personībai, jo tā balstās uz priekšstatiem par karjeru un materiālo labklājību;
- priekšstats par savu nākotni ir skaidrs, bet to ir noteikuši objektīvi apstākļi;
- pašapliecināšanās varētu realizēties dažādās jomās;
- vidējs mācību izziņas kompetences līmenis;
- pietiekams profesionālās latviešu valodas apguves līmenis.

Šiem studentiem (3. gr.) raksturīgas galvenokārt pozitīvas iezīmes:

- skaidrs priekšstats par sevi, savu vietu, citiem, Latvijas situāciju, attieksme pret to ir pozitīva;
- vērtību sistēma ir izveidojusies, tai raksturīga nopietna attieksme, augsts atbildības līmenis;
- brīva un apzināta profesijas izvēle, to noteikusi profesionālā interese, adekvāts pašvērtējums;
- plašas pašapliecināšanās iespējas, daudzveidīgas intereses, radošs raksturs un iniciatīva;
- skaidrs priekšstats par savu nākotni, specializāciju, adekvāti profesionālie priekšstati, valsti, kurā norisināsies profesionālā darbība;
- augsts mācīšanās un komunikatīvās kompetences līmenis;
- labs profesionālās latviešu valodas apguves līmenis.

Visām trim grupām raksturīgas šādas iezīmes:

- ārstniecības programmas studenti apzinās savas izvēles nozīmīgumu;

- studenti pieļauj, ka varbūt tiks mainīta studiju vieta (valsts, augstskola), bet specializācija diez vai mainīsies;
- viņi neuzskata, ka svarīgi iegūt augstāko izglītību (diplomu) vispār, jo viņus interesē tikai šī specializācija; izvēle ir noturīga;
- ārstniecības studiju ilgums ir 6 gadi; tālāk – studijas rezidentūrā, jo studenti virzīti uz specializāciju; tas apliecina, ka profesijas izvēle ir pietiekami apzināta;
- protams, ir būtiski, vai nākotnē viņš paļaujas uz tikai uz sevi, vai rēķinās ar ārējiem apstākļiem, vai viņš sevi nākotnē realizēs savā mītnes zemē vai Latvijā;
- sevis realizācijā un apliecināšanā (svarīgs ir atalgojums), saskarsmes ievirze (sociālās saiknes), darbības ievirze (apgūt konkrētās profesijas zināšanas, prasmes, iemaņas), arī no šīs ievirzes būs atkarīga topošā speciālista darbības stratēģija;
- profesionālā izvēle ir atbildīgs lēmums, kas rada dzīves perspektīvu, jo tā nozīmē iekļaušanos (integrāciju) sabiedrībā, noteiktas sociālās pozīcijas projicēšanu nākotnē.

Studentu personīgā iesaiste un ieguldījums, kā arī augstskolā īstenotā izglītības politika ietekmē valodas lietojuma vidi kā valodas apguvi nodrošinošu faktoru. Saskaņā ar Eiropas Padomes metodoloģijas principiem valodas apguvē izmantojamas tās metodes, kas visefektīvāk kalpo mērķu sasniegšanai un atbilst valodas apguvēja vajadzībām noteiktā sociālā kontekstā. Šis sociālais konteksts arī ir studiju vide, kuras ietvaros varam runāt par studiju kvalitāti, efektivitāti un pieejamību. Efektivitāte ir atkarīga no apguvēja motivācijas un individuālajām iezīmēm, kā arī no procesā iesaistītajiem cilvēkiem un materiālajiem resursiem.

Latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas apguve var norisēt arī kā tieša pievēršanās autentiskiem paraugiem: 1) radio, ierakstu, dziesmu u.c. klausīšanās; TV, video ierakstu skatīšanās un klausīšanās, 2) neadaptētu tekstu (reklāmu, paziņojumu, subtitru u.c.) lasīšana, 3) datorprogrammu lietošana, darbs on-line vai off-line režīmā, 4) sporta vai citas aktivitātes, kas norisinās latviešu valodā, 5) nepastarpināti kontakti ar dzimtās valodas lietotājiem, 6) pieejamo pašmācības līdzekļu izmantošana.

Secinājumi

1. Jauno speciālistu izglītības saturā svarīgs ne tikai profesionālais, bet arī sociālais un iekļaujošais aspekts. Nepieciešams elastīgs studiju kursu piedāvājums un efektīvas studiju vides organizēšana, kas veicinātu ne tikai speciālo zināšanu apguvi, bet arī gatavību saskarsmei ar Latvijas slimnīcu pacientiem, profesionālajai saskarsmei latviešu valodā gan praksē slimnīcā studiju laikā, gan rezidentūras posmā un iespējai piedāvāt sevi darba tirgū, ja students izvēlas palikt Latvijā.
2. Valodas kompetence kļūst par būtisku profesionālās kompetences apliecinājumu. Attīstot vienu kompetenci (valodas komunikatīvo kompetenci), pilnveidojas citas kompetences (starpkultūru kompetence, profesionālā

kompetence). Jautājums par šo kompetenču pilnveidi saistās ar procesiem pasaulē, Eiropā un Latvijā.

3. Teorētiski pamatotu studiju modeļu un atbilstīgu mācību līdzekļu izveide latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas apguvei ārstniecības jomā ir būtisks pedagoģiskās darbības aspekts, bet jāatzīst, ka ārzemju studentu valodas lietojuma vides un sociālo sakaru ierobežotība Latvijā neveicina profesionālās latviešu valodas kompetences veidošanos.

4. Studiju procesa mērķtiecīga virzība uz medicīnas leksikas un terminoloģijas paplašināšanu un gramatisko konstrukciju pilnveidošanu atbilst profesionālā dialoga vajadzībām ārstniecības praksē.

5. Studiju procesa organizācija, balstoties uz hermenētisku izpratni kā saprašanās pamatu, dialoģismu un vispārcilvēcisko vērtību pieņemšanu, veido efektīvu vidi, kas nodrošina valodas un kultūras pieredzes pilnveidi un sociālo sakaru paplašināšanos.

6. Studentu profesionālās darbības izzinošais, pārveidojošais, vērtīborientējošais un komunikatīvais aspekts un profesionālās latviešu valodas kompetenci veidojošā valodas komunikatīvā kompetence un starpkultūru kompetence ir nozīmīgi faktori studenta, topošā ārsta, profesionālajā integrācijā sabiedrībā un pašrealizācijā.

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ESP AND GLOBALIZATION IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

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Abstract

Globalization and interculturalism are the aspects that today are essential to the majority of the world universities that provide teaching to international students. The present article deals with the research on how international students study alongside with home students in foreign country programs at tertiary level. The focus is on distinguishing how to tailor the teaching process to the needs of both home students and international students, as well as what questions the academic personnel have to pay attention to in order to successfully deal with students who may face significant difficulties studying abroad, starting with local language, insufficient knowledge of the English language as the language of studies, lack of discipline-specific vocabulary, finishing with different modes of teaching and learning and different expectations and conventions about participation and performance.

Keywords: globalization, tertiary education, academic spoken discourse, lecturing styles, discourse markers, lecture perception.

Anotācija

ESP (angļu valoda speciāliem mērķiem) un terciārās izglītības globalizācija

Globalizācija un starpkultūru saskarsme ir aspekti, kas šobrīd ir būtiski vairumam pasaules universitāšu, kur mācās ārzemju studenti. Šajā rakstā analizēti pētījumi par to, kā studenti no dažādām valstīm mācās kopā ar vietējiem studentiem nacionālajās universitātēs. Rakstā uzsvars ir uz mācību procesa pielāgošanu studentu vajadzībām, kā arī uz to, kam jābūt akadēmiskā personāla uzmanības lokā, lai veiksmīgi risinātu grūtības vietējās valodas, angļu valodas, disciplīnas specifiskās leksikas un citu zināšanu trūkuma dēļ.

Atslēgas vārdi: globalizācija, terciārā izglītība, akadēmiskais diskurss, lekciju stili, diskursa marķieri, lekcijas uztvere

Introduction

Studies of local and foreign students in a foreign language in Latvian higher educational institutions have become an integral part of current day educational reality in Latvia. The reality which the local university personnel have to face is the necessity to work with culturally-diverse students with different levels of the English language competence from different EU and non-European countries. In order to achieve academic success, students must overcome many difficulties, among which is understanding of academic spoken discourse in a foreign language.

The present research is a result of a 3-year study of soft science business lectures delivered by Latvian and foreign academic personnel to Latvian and foreign students

in English as a lingua franca in Turiba University. The necessity of this research has emerged from both sides – lecturers who complain about insufficient results of students learning in Language 2 (L2) and students who are not fully satisfied with the results of their studies. Thus, the aim of the research was to determine the characteristics of a lecture in L2 and the peculiarities of academic spoken discourse; to discover the strengths and pitfalls of perception of academic lectures by learners and to find the answer to the main question: What is required on behalf of a lecturer in order to ensure efficiency of the lecture perception and comprehension by a student.

The present article will outline the theoretical findings on lecture structure, lecturing styles, micro and macro features of academic lecture, namely discourse markers, discuss lecturers' and students' background knowledge in lectures (schemata knowledge). Further the author will present her research of lecturing and comprehension of lectures, which was carried out in the form of a questionnaire among the students; as well as the author will provide the analysis of her findings and will make conclusions.

Theoretical Framework

Lecturing styles and multi-functional nature of a modern academic lecture

The lecture "remains the central instructional activity" (Flowerdew 1994:1). Academic lecture discourse is a complex speech process, which involves communication rather than reading a text. In the course of a lecture, subject teachers provide output of their theoretical and practical knowledge, use specialized vocabulary and professional jargon, demonstrate their ability to construct sentences, show attitude to the theme, express their point of view, argue, summarize and conclude. The academic lecture delivered in the English language is likely to develop students' 'micro' and 'macro' skills of the target language, terms coined by Kelly (in Mynard and Carson, 2012:52). By micro skills we understand students' ability to restate, paraphrase, question, confront, while macro skills include such learners' skills as, giving feedback, supporting, evaluating, etc. The style of lecture chosen by a lecturer is dependent on purpose, subject, theme, knowledge ability of students and their schemata. A lecturer chooses and applies the style which is the most appropriate to the conditions of time, number of listeners, subject area.

Modern academic lecture by its structure is significantly different from what it was several decades ago. The former lectures were conducted more in a form of a 'reading style' (Dudley-Evans & John 1994:148), where a lecturer was reading a lecture from notes previously prepared at home or delivering it as if reading, whereas students had more a passive role of taking notes, putting questions to the lecturer in order to clarify concepts and to check understanding. Studies on lecture styles done before Dudley-Evans and John included Goffman's and Bereday's classifications. There was the use of 'talk-and-chalk style' (Bereday in Flowerdew 1994:203) which was characterized by delivering the material with the use of blackboard. Again, students were mainly involved in organizing information in the way of note-taking. Goffman

(1981:171) distinguished three modes of lectures – 'memorization', 'reading aloud' and 'fresh talk'. 'Memorization' applies to a lecturing style where a lecturer does not read his/her script, but follows it closely and thus it is almost identical to 'aloud reading'. 'Fresh talk' may be characterized by free speech of a lecturer on the topic with the use of notes. Frederick (1986:45) refers to 'participatory lecture', which is closer to discussion.

With the advance of modern technologies and extensive use of Power Point where a lecturer structures his speech according to the logical plan of his presentation in slides, several other characteristics of lectures may be mentioned. First and the most important shift in delivering a lecture is that today it is not a purely spoken discourse; it is often accompanied by the text from slides on the screen, it has 'multi-faceted nature' (Swales (1995) in Camiciottoli, 2007:16), where, on the one hand, they (lecturers) serve the function of 'transmission and dissemination of knowledge' with the use of all professional terminology and concepts (Merlini (1983) in Camiciotolli, 2007:24) which is more characteristic to written genres of academic writing and, on the other hand, we can find a lot from dialogic devices, e.g. metadiscursive expressions, imperatives, argumentative sequences. Bakhtin (1986: 61-62) attributes lectures to a 'secondary speech genre' which he describes as the sphere of communication that is relatively formal and culturally organized. Another important characteristic of a modern lecture is its interactiveness, which means that a modern lecture is delivered in a form of a conversation with the involvement of students into discussion of the theme. According to Benson (in Camiciotolli, 2007:50), lectures are becoming less formal and more interactive with the role of the lecturer who is more a 'facilitator' and a 'guide' with "open style" lecturing which allows for better comprehension. If a lecturer provides students with hand-outs of his presentation the role of note-taking decreases, since students are more preoccupied with following the speaker rather than writing notes on his speech. Both the complex nature of a lecture and interactive approach may be a cause of difficulty for students who study in English as L2. The fact that students possess ready-made hand-outs can also have dubious effect of correct notes made by a lecturer and lack of personal notes that are integral part of a study process since they foster memorization and improve studies. That is why, one of the areas of studies was to determine what lecturing styles are most preferable to students and what lecturing styles academic personnel choose in their work, as well as to recognize, the role of note-taking in the lecturing process.

Discourse Markers

Literature on lecture discourse reveals the significant role of discourse markers (DMs) in the organization of an academic lecture. Fraser, B (1990:392) defines discourse markers as "expressions which signal a sequential relationship between the current basic message and the previous discourse". According to Schifrin (1987:24) DMs are "sequentially-dependent units of discourse which serve an integrative function in discourse and therefore contribute to discourse coherence." The roles of these lexical items in an academic lecture are to start the speech, to connect ideas, to change topics, to indicate important parts in the speech, to summarize, to conclude and many others. Moreover, the use of discourse markers is a handy tool in the process

of lecture comprehension by students in an academic environment. This is one of the distinguishers of a spoken academic discourse from the written academic text. Researchers (Chaudron and Richards 1986; Murphy and Candlin 1979; Morell 2001 in Camiciotolli 2007:80) differentiate between micro-markers (lower-order DMs) and macro-markers (higher order DMs). Micro-markers indicate links between sentences within the lecture, or function as fillers. Micro-markers are subdivided into the following categories: segmentation, contrast, casual and emphasis. For example *so, right, ok, alright* are the elements that are used to indicate pauses and can be attributed to the 'segmentation' category; as an element a pause gives speaker time to consider what has been said and to prepare for the following part, to a listener pause is a possibility to process the information, to analyse and to create mental feedback. Moreover, pause is a good rhetoric tool to attract attention, to emphasize important parts of one's presentation. Studies of the previously mentioned authors have shown that the most spread lexical item of 'contrast' category is a particle *but*, which is most frequently used in American and British corpus of academic lectures (Gomez & Fortuno 2005: 173). Emphasis micro-markers may include such elements as *of course*, *you can see*, *actually*, *obviously*, *unbelievably*, *naturally*, *in fact* and others (Chaudron and Richard's, 1986 in Camiciotolli 2007:80). Macro-markers highlight major information in the lecture and the sequence or importance of that information. In the study "The Effect of Discourse Markers in the Comprehension of Lectures" (1986), Chaudron and Richard's show that macro-markers "are more conductive to successful recall of the lecture than micro-markers. Micro-markers do not aid the learner's retention of the lecture" (Chaudron and Richard's, 1986:123). The taxonomy of micro and macro-skills developed by Richards (1983) defines the skills that are important for successful academic listening comprehension by students. Richard's list of 18 skills for lecture comprehension includes the following: ability to identify the purpose and scope of lecture; ability to identify the topic of lecture and follow topic development; ability to recognize the role of discourse markers of signalling structure of a lecture; ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject / topic; ability to deduce meanings of words from context; ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g. pitch, volume, pace, key).

Meanwhile, the quality of listening and understanding lectures by a student depends on lecturers' competence to deliver information. It is self-evident that the speech of a lecturer should be coherent, precise, logically organized, and cohesive. Subject teachers are to be competent to state the purpose of the lecture, to be capable of generalizing, to make hypotheses, to initiate ideas, make the right choice of lexical items, explain terminology, choose suitable intonation to signal the shift of themes in the lecture, to demonstrate their attitude to the topic, to be able to apply various lecturing styles, to be able to use instruction – to suggest, recommend, advise and instruct.

The present research is aimed at finding out to what extent students' comprehension is affected by the use of discourse markers by the lecturer, as well as making clear whether lecturers in Turiba University apply discourse markers in their lectures delivered in English as lingua franca.

Note-taking

A number of researchers have studied students' notes as a means of insights into the comprehension process. Trzeciak, J. and Mackay.S.E. (1994:20) have worked out listening note-taking strategies. "Unlike reading, you can't stop a lecture and review as you listen." They mention three stages of note-taking: pre-listening research, taking notes during the lecture and work with notes after the lecture.

Before the lecture it is advisable to revise the previous lecture, pre-read about the lecture, check the pronunciation of any new words or discipline-specific language. Taking notes while listening to a lecture can be divided into the following:

Listening for structural cues (signpost/ transition words, introduction, body and summary stages)

Looking for non-verbal cues (facial expression, hand and body signals)

Looking for visual cues (copy the content of any visual aids used (e.g. OHTs), note references to names and sources)

Listening for phonological cues (voice change in volume, speed, emotion). (Rost, 2002:407)

After the lecture it is sensible to revise lecture notes within 24 hours, tidy up handwriting and write a short summary in one's own words.

Analysis of additional comments extracted from students' questionnaires

The research was carried out in the Turiba University during the first semester of the Academic year 2013-2014 and consisted of two stages – written questionnaires and follow up face – to face interviews. Participants constituted a group of Latvian students studying in English, Erasmus students and overseas students studying in Turiba University in English. 70 students filled in the questionnaires. 8 students provided additional comments to the questionnaires. All of them were at Upper-Intermediate (4) and Advanced (4) levels of the English language proficiency. 3 students were from Latvia and 5 were foreign students from France, Malaysia, Belarus and Uzbekistan (2). The answers helped to understand more individual needs of different students, as well as to look at the cultural aspect of education.

Additional remarks helped to understand better students' expectations from a lecture and a lecturer. A student from Uzbekistan (Upper Intermediate, 2BA) noted that some lecturers have a monotonous style of speaking, she also mentioned that when a student has to prepare for assessment he needs to find extra information by himself. She emphasized that a lecturer should provide more information for students to learn more: "When I have to prepare for exam or test, I have to find extra information by myself and it takes a lot of time". This could be explained by the fact that culturally education in countries of Central Asia is different from the Baltic States. In an Islamic-rooted high-power distance high-context Uzbekistan the lecturer is an authority, a trustworthy person who performs the role of a Guru, students show bigger "respect for scholars" (Lewis, 2006: 386), expect a lecturer to be the major source of information. Whereas Latvians are more low-context and practice more horizontal lecturing style where the role of a lecturer is that of a facilitator,

mentor, motivator, instructor rather than a pure source of information. This could partially explain why lecturers in universities in Latvia expect independent work and individual student's involvement in the study process which includes reading extra materials and independent work.

Another student from Uzbekistan complained that Latvian lecturers pay more attention to local students and put them higher grades. This comment may signify that Uzbek students expect more attention from the lecturer because they "like personal attention and wish to think that you are doing business on a personal basis," (Lewis, 2006: 387). In other words, in order to reach successful results in the teaching-learning process, student-lecturer relationship should be considered from the cultural point of view.

Several students mentioned the style lecturing as problematic. For example, a student from Belarus writes: "The lecture should make us as participants in his lecture, not just listeners." A student from Malaysia (Upper – Intermediate, 1MBA) mentioned that some lecturers prefer reading style: "their lecturing style usually is reading the slide from the computer or paper without much explaining about the point. In this case, probably we (students) can read slides ourselves and understand them ourselves. A lecturer usually spends 1.5 or 2 hours on the presentation and the students just waste theit time sitting and waiting." Another student from France (Upper – Intermediate, 3 BA) also complained about the lack of interactive communication in a lecture: "That's a problem because we should discuss together and participate in lectures." A student from Belarus added "some lecturers cannot hold the attention of students, because of monotonous speech, no contact with the audience, (by contact I mean asking questions, opinion, or giving tasks). I'm interested in studies a lot, but after 15-30 minutes, my attention is fading and I am thinking of something else. So, I gain knowledge only while preparing for tests." These remarks point out lack of interaction in a lecture which is an integral part of learning process. As Northcott (2001:6) put it, "interactive style is one which provides for and encourages various levels and types of student participation", whereas non-interactive style would have strong teacher control and little audience input (Morell 2004 in Camiciotolli 2007:50). Thus, one of the important preconditions of successful lecture might be interactive style with the involvement of students and ensuring their feedback during a lecture. A Malaysian student mentioned the problem of pronunciation which in his opinion hinders appropriate perception of the lecture. However, this could be the question of cultural and linguistic difference of various people whose L1 dialectically, grammatically, synthetically and on other levels differs from English which is L2 for Latvian academic personnel, whose English is also affected by Latvian or Russian accent, sentence structure and grammar constructions. The question of pronunciation of academic personnel which was mentioned as an obstacle in lecture perception by the majority of students will be discussed in more detail later in the present article.

Students from Latvia shared the opinion of international students concerning interaction during the lectures. "From my point of view, some lecturers do not interact a lot with the audience and consequently don't make students be interested in the subject. So the lecturers are actually just going through prepared slides and that's it. I think it would be better and more interesting if they spoke more themselves and communicated with the students." (Advanced level, 3BA). Another

student (Advanced level, 1BA) mentioned that lecturers perform quite well, but some students have inadequate language skills and this makes the process less efficient. From the point of view of what language skills are mostly developed studying in English, it was noted that during two first years of studies these are mostly listening and speaking, "because that's what we do during the lectures (listen to professors or present our work), reading skills are "fully on the shoulders of the students, if you want to read some additional literature", whereas writing skills are advanced in later stages of studies, starting from year three, when students get more written tasks.

Interviews of students

The aim of students' interviews was to discover in more detail what difficulties students experience studying in a foreign language. The main questions that were of interest included those about lecturing styles, differences that students see in studying in L1 and L2, choice of lecturers, international aspect of studies, note-taking, public speaking skills and presentation skills of lecturers, as well as necessity of the use of discourse markers as an integral part of academic spoken discourse. Additionally, students were asked about lecturers' pronunciation and to what extent it affects lecture comprehension. Interviews were recorded on an IC Recorder Sony ICD – UX71. The recorded spoken discourse was further analyzed and typed in a Word version. 11 students from Poland (3), Ukraine, Lithuania, Belarus (2), Uzbekistan, France (2) and Latvia were asked a range of questions about their experience of studies in Latvia. Students ranged from Intermediate to Advanced level of English language proficiency. In general the students answered 16 questions.

Motivation of studying in a second language

All students answered that the reason of studying in English was its international status; they also emphasized the possibility to enhance their English language skills along with learning a subject. Some students from Belarus mentioned that they do not have a chance to study in English in the universities of their home country; another reason of choosing Latvia and studying in English was the quality and lower study fees, as well as future possibility of getting employment in EU countries. All respondents answered that their language skills improved since they started their studies in Turiba University. Erasmus students who study in L1 in their home university mentioned that they managed to raise their level of English even within one semester of studies. Another factor was that most of the literature is available in English which simplifies the study process. French students from the Faculty of Tourism expressed the idea that it is a necessary to change the French mentality and prove that not only the French language is necessary to know but also other languages, especially in tourism. Most of respondents stated that studying in a foreign language forces "brain work twice harder" by experiencing a double load – first translating into the mother tongue or looking for explanations of new concepts and only then memorizing or activating this knowledge. Some students from Lithuania, Uzbekistan and Belarus who had a lower level of English admitted that they found it difficult to express themselves due to limited vocabulary in L2. They pointed out that studying in native language is easier is because one can use more synonyms and express himself better.

Comprehension of the content of lectures

The aim of the research was to find out whether learners experienced difficulties with understanding the content of a lecture. The respondents answered that there was a period of adaptation which took from one to two months. The following subjects were relatively problematic to be understood fully, e.g. when students of the Faculty of Tourism had to study Information Technologies, Psychology, Sociology, Accounting, Financial Management, Commercial Law or Civil Law. When they had to use the new terminology independently, it required more individual work – reading, translating, and getting consultations from teachers or group-mates. Some students mentioned that at the beginning of the study process experienced the necessity of reading professional literature in L1 while preparing for tests. Answers to a question concerning what examples lecturers provide for better understanding of content included examples on theory, personal experience of the lecturer, examples from literature as well as use of visuals (pictures, videos, graphs, etc.). Almost everybody mentioned the role of a student in the process of exemplification. One student stated the necessity of finding her own examples for concepts. All agreed that each lecturer has individual approach to giving examples as well as every student has individual learning style that makes one method more successful than the other, e.g. "I have visual memory. Most helpful for me were charts, statistics, figures, numbers, and pictures." Another student answered: "I like when the idea was explained with samples from a totally different area. I prefer simple examples for difficult concepts."

Students 'opinions on what changes are required in lecturing styles of the lecturers

Results of students' questionnaires showed that one of the reasons why perception of academic spoken discourse may fail is inefficient lecturing style chosen by lecturers. In order to reveal what lecturing styles are most common in the university and what styles are most favourable for students, the students were interviewed to find out their opinion. Views of respondents concerning successful lecturing styles included: 1. Participatory or interactive lectures – "close-to-life" discussions with the involvement of students, a small size of groups, and more discussion. One student from Latvia said: "The most fruitful lectures were when the lecturer forgot about his plan and started an improvised discussion with students." 2. Conversational style – a lecturer speaks informally, with or without notes. Students admitted the positive role of Power Point presentations accompanying oral speech of a lecturer. Reading style was mentioned as an inefficient lecture style, when interaction is nullified and the dominant role in communication is that of a lecturer. It was noted by several respondents that where there is "no interaction, there is no contact. Lecturers come, say what they have to say and leave and they are not interested in whether they had delivered what they had to deliver." This style of following notes/slides without eye contact, without expectation of students' feedback, with lack of public speaking skills does not add to material acquisition of the material. "Some lecturers read the materials; they do not share personal experience, or interact or give case studies, as a result they do not involve students in the process." When asked why students think

lecturers choose this inefficient style, possible reasons given were lower level of language skills of academic personnel than required for lecturing and lack of public speaking experience. Students noticed interconnection between language proficiency and interaction among the participants of the lecture – the less confident a lecturer feels in his ability to communicate in a foreign language, the more he prefers to choose a self-centred approach of lecture style – reading from slides. Another factor to be noticed is cultural aspect of education. Erasmus students from France admitted that in home universities lecture consists of two stages – first theory is provided by a lecturer during several weeks and then it is followed by practical work of students where they work on projects in groups or individually. Difference in style was confusing for those students. There were also opinions about individual style of lecturers; some students agreed that **"style of speaking depends on the personality of the teacher".

Question of note-taking

As the results of questionnaires showed, note-taking is mostly problematic with lower level students or first year students who are at the initial stage of studies. Interview question about note-taking helped to clarify how students take notes and to what extent it is helpful in learning process. Respondents were asked about the correlation of hand-outs (copies of presentation slides) and note-taking. Students mentioned three types of use of hand-outs: one when hand-outs were distributed before the lecture, the other – when lecturers sent materials or hand-outs to students' emails before or after the lecture and students did not always have them for a lecture, and practical lectures where some processes were demonstrated, e.g. food and beverage where hand-outs were not always available.

Note-taking also depended on individual learning style of students. Some students (Poland) stated that they liked when hand-outs were distributed with most of the data present in them, it allowed focusing their attention only on listening to the speech rather than on taking notes. It is possible to assume that these students have auditory memory. Some students from Belarus mentioned that they preferred to have hand-outs with minimum text available so that they could take more additional notes by themselves. They said that in their home country the lecturing style was mostly with the focus on the lecturer who reads information and students write word-by-word transcript of the lecture. Another opinion was that hand-outs should include only the main information and some visuals (graphs, pictures, diagrams, etc.), students wanted to structure additional information around the main ideas themselves, often adding personal examples. Such approach is more characteristic of visual learners.

Demonstration type of lecture was described as the most complicated for note-taking since it included several simultaneous processes: observation of the demonstration, following a lecturer's speech in a foreign language and note-taking. It was noted that it was easier to take notes during demonstration when the lecturer used whiteboard.

Asked about the quality of notes taken, the majority of respondents answered that at the beginning of the study process they often switched from English to L1. Some of them put down concepts and ideas in English, while examples were written in a native language.

Opinions about positive role of all information available in hand-outs were divided: one part of respondents considered that full text allows preparing better for assessment, others thought that much text provided in hand-outs stopped learners from adding their own notes and as a result made copies less personalized and more difficult to study for tests.

It was concluded that irrespective of learning styles of students, all of them still prefer to take notes during a lecture, either in L1 or in English.

Speed of lecturer's talk

Another question concerned speed of speech of a lecturer which is logically connected with perception of spoken discourse and production of notes. Speed of lecturing as a hurdle in lecture comprehension was mentioned only by foreign students (France, Turkey and Uzbekistan), all of whom were of Pre-Intermediate and Intermediate level. In case with students from Turkey or France it should be stated that experience of work with them always proved their lower level of English language proficiency in comparison with domestic students. As Comiciotolli (2007: 49) stated there are "two factors that influence speech rate: individual propensity, but also a setting where lecturers and audiences may or may not share the same speech community". Latvian lecturers working with lower-level foreign students may consider that their speech rate may be too fast and can create difficulty in lecture comprehension. Advanced and Upper-Intermediate level students stated that the speed of lecturers was adequate: it was easy to follow the speech when a lecturer was changing intonation and making pauses, asked rhetoric questions and invited the students to participate in discussion. Students noted that when a lecturer's speech was monotonous without change of the speed and tone, it created difficulty in comprehension and caused the loss of concentration after 15 minutes of listening.

An Intermediate level Erasmus student from Lithuania for whom a semester in English was an exception from the usual routine of studies in the Lithuanian language noted that some lecturers' fast speed complicated the process of auditory perception of lectures, since while he was busy with assimilating information paralleling translating produced chunks of speech, a lecturer was already ahead with a new piece of information. As a result, he often did not have time to take any notes.

Whereas another student from the Ukraine (Upper-Intermediate) noted that for her the speed of lectures was slower than that of Ukrainian teachers and her personal speed of speech: "in the Ukraine all lecturers go faster than here, here it is slower, my speed is faster that some lecturers'. It is cultural. Ukrainians speak fast", thus she managed to make translations of unknown terminology into L1, add her examples and take proper notes.

Correlation of lecturers' presentation skills and students' comprehension of lecture discourse

Although almost 30 % of students who participated in filling out questionnaires mentioned the need of lecturers to improve their skills of presentation and public speech, at the interview stage those skills were assessed much more positively. The received comments concerning what exactly might be improved showed that some

lecturers could work on development of more interactive style, could have better contact with the audience, even at the level of establishing eye-contact. Reading style of lecturing that does not motivate the audience and so does not foster efficient acquisition of knowledge was pointed out as a major disadvantage.

Use of discourse markers in academic lectures

The researcher wanted to know whether students notice and see the necessity of the use of discourse markers in spoken academic discourse. The majority confirmed that there is a correlation between the use of linking words, public speaking elements which, in their opinion, help to perceive lectures and to comprehend lecturer's speech. Students said that they understand the function of these expressions: "they help to understand the switch of topics and themes, however, the words used were closer to informal style rather than formal conventions, something like: "OK, next slide, let's go further". The change of a slide on the screen also helped to understand the shift of the topic and idea." Students asserted that discourse markers make spoken speech easier to process; it makes it different from written discourse. Most of respondents agree that lecturers use them in the course of their speech: "These elements help to follow the structure, passing from one thought of a speaker to another. They help us to understand where there is a contrast in the sentence." "They help to follow, to compare things, to conclude. If a lecturer does not use these markers, it is more difficult to follow his speech." Another factor noticed by the respondents was that the use of discourse markers helps to organize mental processes of a lecturer as well as assists in the perception of the lecture by the students.

Conclusions

Having analysed the results of students' questionnaires and interviews the following conclusions were drawn:

- By choosing studies in a foreign language students want both to acquire professional knowledge and to improve language skills. That is the factor to be considered by lecturing staff, without ignoring the language skills of students and paying strict attention to the development of their personal language skills.
- Lecturers are responsible for delivering lectures at highly professional level of English, having well-structured plan of content, following the rules of good public speaking skills, and considering intercultural aspect of students. Lecturers say that it is possible to work on structure when there is enough time available to prepare for lectures and for the course of lectures as such.
- Abundant number of concepts, new professional lexis and ideas should be provided with sufficient theory, adequate explanation of terminology and good international examples.
- Speed of lectures has to be tailored to different language levels of students, more repetitions, paraphrases of main concepts and ideas should be used. Lecturers agreed that there is a need to adjust lecturer's speech to the needs of different students.

- • "Conversational style", "Participatory lecture" are the most appropriate lecturing styles. Students' interaction and feedback are expected. Academic staff agreed that there is a need to improve interaction, to have more group work, discussions, to follow feedback of learners.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE UPV LANGUAGE CENTRE TO THE SELECTION OF ACADEMIC EXCHANGE STUDENTS

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Abstract

The creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) has provided an evidence to the need for the development of language policies at universities.

The Language Centre at the Universitat Politècnica de València (UPV) plays a key role in the selection and training process of students opting for mobility grants and has designed a computer-based language test that can be administered to a large number of students simultaneously, with immediate release of results, contributing to the internationalisation of the UPV and its integration into the EHEA.

Keywords: Language Centres, mobility programmes, language assessment, internationalisation, test design

Background

One of the goals of the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area is to facilitate the integration of graduates in the international market. According to the official Bologna process website, "employability is the ability to gain initial employment, to maintain employment, and to be able to move around within the labour market" (the official Bologna process website, July 2007). Universities face the challenge of promoting student employability, as highlighted by the President of the European Union, Mr Schavan, in the press conference held in London in 2007: "In the future, the Bologna states want to increase their focus on the employability of graduates" (Germany's Presidency of the European Union Press Release, London Communiqué 2007).

The mission of higher education institutions should be to provide students with the skills and abilities required to increase their international competitiveness: "The role of higher education in this context is to equip students with skills and attributes

(knowledge, attitudes and behaviours) that individuals need in the workplace and that employers require" (The official Bologna Process website, July 2007).

To meet these goals, universities must develop policies and action plans that increase their graduates' competitiveness in the international market and promote the Europe of Knowledge. Exchange mobility programmes have become a vital link and an essential instrument in the chain of European integration.

However, the implementation of such plans faces a number of challenges. According to the report on the implementation of the Bologna process (European Higher Education Area in 2012: Bologna Process Implementation Report), the main obstacle to student mobility is funding: "the financial restrictions imposed in recent years and the reductions in the amount of money perceived by grant holders have had a strong impact on mobility programmes." The second obstacle concerns recognition of qualifications, – a matter which must be jointly approached by all member states through the restructuring of their programmes and clearer description of their study plans. Finally, a third remarkable drawback mentioned in the report is the lack of knowledge or poor command of a second language. University-based language centres play a major role in the development and implementation of these language policies and language education plans (Ingram 2001; Ruane 2003; Grainger 2009, Poljaković 2011) as they actively contribute to the successful implementation of key aspects of the Bologna Process by providing the linguistic and intercultural tools for effective mobility.

The Universitat Politecnica de Valencia (UPV), as a member of the EHEA and committed to the Bologna process goals, has developed action plans that support the mobility of students and researchers and promote the participation of its community members in different exchange programmes by subsidizing grants and language courses and reducing the cost of the candidate selection process.

During the academic year 2011/12 and according to the statistical data of European Commission (available: http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/index_en.htm#_themes=higher_education#_doctype=statistics#_years=_2013), Spain was the country which sent the highest number of students abroad followed by Germany, France, Italy, and Poland. Considering only the Erasmus programme, Spanish universities sent 38 553 students to European universities either to continue their studies or for job placements as a part of the programme.

 In 2013 the Universitat Politècnica de València sent 1 473 students as a part of the Erasmus programme, 127 students as a part of the PROMOE programme, and 41 students as a part of Euromovex, – the university's own programme to promote student mobility and obtain a double degree (2013 Activity Report of the Vice-Rectorate of International Relations and Cooperation, see Figure 1).

Distribution of UPV outgoing students by host country (2013)

host countries 2013
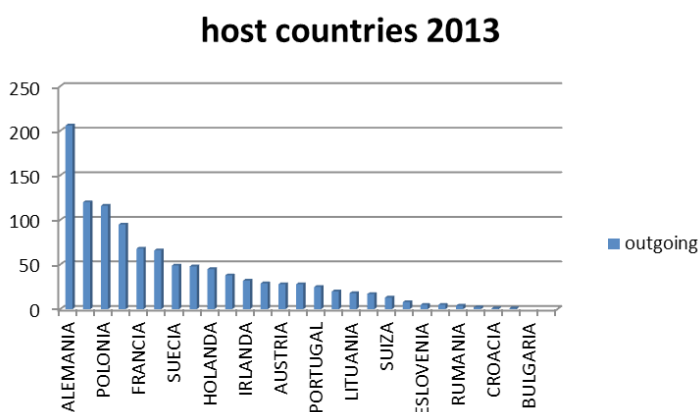
As shown by these figures, there is a need to determine students' linguistic competence at UPV in order to assign grants, as well as to do so in a fast, effective manner that provides reliable data to international exchange offices so as not to place an undue financial burden on the university. With this goal in mind, the UPV Language Centre (CDL) has designed a computer-based language test that can be administered to a large number of students simultaneously at a minimum cost.

On the other hand, even though most exchange programmes between European universities provide a specific support for language training and run courses for mobility students, these courses are only subsidised for minority languages in education. This means that in case of the languages such as English, German, French, and Spanish, no subsidised courses are offered to train students before travelling to a host university, and the home institution, and ultimately, the student are responsible for providing the knowledge and training if required (Erasmus – Facts, Figures & Trends 2012). Thus, Spanish universities face the challenge of establishing a mechanism that ensures their students' competitiveness in the languages of host universities. The results of the language test developed by the CDL also help to determine the language needs of future exchange students and design specific language courses before their departure to the host universities.

Most exchange programmes – with some exceptions – do not establish unique official requirements as regards the language competence of the candidates, and allow the host universities to determine their own criteria. This lack of standardisation prevents the UPV from identifying general valid criteria for mobility students, but, given that most host universities require at least a B1 level of English for a person to be accepted as an Erasmus student, the UPV International Relations Office has decided to require from the candidate students applying for an Erasmus grant to have at least a B1+ level in the language of instruction of the host university.

The students have different ways to accredit their language competence as shown in the following table and receive a different score depending on the accreditation system.

Methods of accrediting language competence

	Language Certificates acknowledged by ACLES	**Language placement test developed by the UPV CDL**	**B2 language courses included in their BEng. Degree**
C2	10 points	X	X
C1	8 points	X	X
B2	6 points	5.5 points	5.5 points
B1+	X	4.5 points	4.5 points
B1	4 points	3.5 points	3.5 points
A2	2 points	1.5 points	1.5 points
A1	1 points	0.5 points	0.5 points

The reason for this linguistic requirement is based on the fact that, although most Erasmus students in the universities do not travel to an English-speaking country, 56% of them take part in the English-language programmes in European universities, as shown in Figure 2.

Since most host universities require students to possess a good command of English, the test described in this paper has been designed to assess the English language, although similar computer-based tests for German and French have been developed and administered during the present academic year (2013/2014), following the structure described below.

Instruction language in host institutions
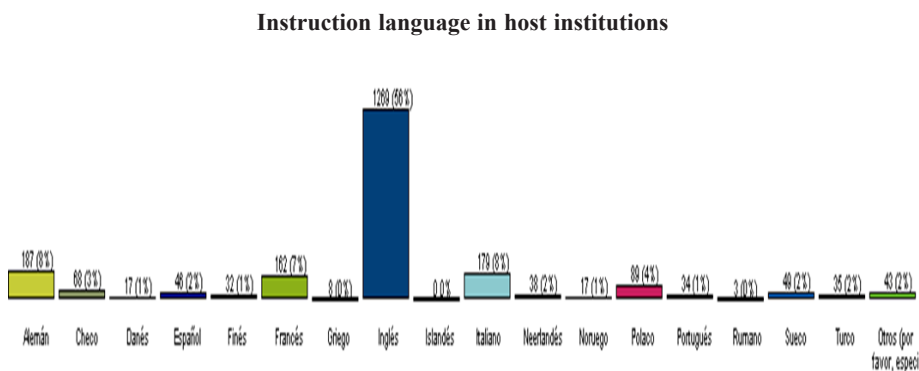
English language test design

For many years the English language test for the selection of mobility students at the UPV was paper-based, at a great financial cost to the university (examiners, markers, schoolrooms). It was also time-consuming and cumbersome, given the large number of tests (ca. 1,400) to be marked within a limited period of time every year.

In 2012 the Vice-Rectorate of International Relations and Cooperation asked the CDL to design a language test that met reliability, validity, effectiveness and efficiency criteria, while providing financial and time savings.

The Universitat Politècnica sends between 1,300 and 1,500 students every year, and the test had to be administered within two days at most, providing the results immediately. Additionally, the test should not take longer than 1 hour, as it is administered during the regular lecturing time.

Taking into account these conditions, the test was structured into two sections: English Language Use section consisting of multiple choice and gap-filling questions, and a Listening comprehension section consisting of multiple choice questions.

The exercise types were selected according to several factors. Firstly, they had to be adaptable to the technical specifications of the computer system on which the test was to be run. Secondly, the exercises had to permit automatic marking with no need for a later revision by a marker. Thirdly, exercise types had to be familiar to students.

To comply with time restrictions, the English Language Use section was designed to last 25 minutes. This test section consists of 50 grammar questions that cover the four language levels – phonetic-phonological, syntactic-morphological, lexical-semantic, and pragmatic – adapted to multiple choice or gap-filling exercise types.

Although most of the host universities demand at least a level B1 of English, the test comprises items that range from level A1 to level C1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for a better planning of further training courses according to the results obtained in the test; level C2 was not included as it is very uncommon among Spanish university students and thus it is impractical to determine the according candidates' level.

The Listening comprehension section lasts 23 minutes and consists of three tasks corresponding to three audio files for levels A2, B1 and B2, respectively. Each recording is repeated twice, and students cannot stop, rewind or manipulate the audio files. The structure of this section is, as follows:

- Listening comprehension 1 (level A2) – 4 minutes (5 questions)
- Listening comprehension 2 (level B1) – 9 minutes (6 questions)
- Listening comprehension 3 (level B2) – 10 minutes (6 questions)

The decision of including only these three levels responds to the time constraints. Additionally, the weighting of the listening section is lower than that of English Language Use section as this section is used to fine tune the results obtained in the language section and thus more accurately determine the levels of language competence required for grant allocation, namely, levels B1+ and B2.

Administration of the test

The experience of administering and carrying out level tests for access to the annual courses at the Language Centre served to administer a simultaneous test to about 1,400 students requesting an academic exchange grant. The process had to be fast and yield immediate results. Students register for the online test through a university platform, where groups have been previously created for different dates and times so that students can register for the group that best suits their schedule.

Simultaneous morning and afternoon groups were created, and examinations were held in the computer classrooms in two centres, the Industrial Engineering School and the Business Administration School, each lab with an approximate capacity of 25/30 candidates per session. Thus, almost 1,400 students who had applied for an academic exchange grant for the 2014/15 school year were assessed in two days. Results were released immediately, which helped to speed up the selection and academic exchange grant allocation process in comparison with the process used in previous years consisting of the administration of a printed test, which was more expensive and time consuming and less environmentally friendly.

Sessions of 1hour and 30 minutes were held in order to explain operation of the tool and for students to become familiar with the system before taking the test, as the previous experience with level tests had shown that unfamiliarity with the tool might have an impact on the test results.

The presentation lasted about 30 minutes and consisted of a PowerPoint document created to inform candidates about the operation of the software. The aim was that all students received exactly the same information and could navigate through the programme before taking the real test.

To start the test students had to register by entering their ID card number and subsequently clicked on "Start Exam".

The programme then opened a window which showed the different sections of the test, i.e. the training section plus the English Language Use and Listening Comprehension sections. Students were told about the total time of the test (i.e., approximately 1 hour) and the number of questions and time for each of the individual parts of the test.

The students were able to practice and become familiar with the layout of the application by navigating through the questions and the menu. The system also incorporates a timer which displays the time remaining in the respective section. A particularly relevant part of this training session is that corresponding to the audio part, where students can check and adjust the volume before the examination starts.

As it was important for us to know the students' opinion of the test and, more specifically, about the platform used to administer it, we designed a satisfaction questionnaire which could be accessed via Google at the following address: www. etsiam.upv.es/paris/encuesta/; the link was sent to all the participants who were asked to voluntarily fill in the questionnaire so as to detect potential problems and improve the tool in the future.

The questionnaire consisted of a first part that included the candidate's general data while preserving anonymity, and 11 questions aimed at compiling information about the test and the tool so as to be able to define actions to improve the process.

Results

One of the advantages of the platform is that it provides the test results immediately. The tool enables obtaining the numerical data per student, as well as the graphical representation of the data, displaying both the student distribution by score and the number of correct answers per item.

Figure 3

Graphical representation of test results
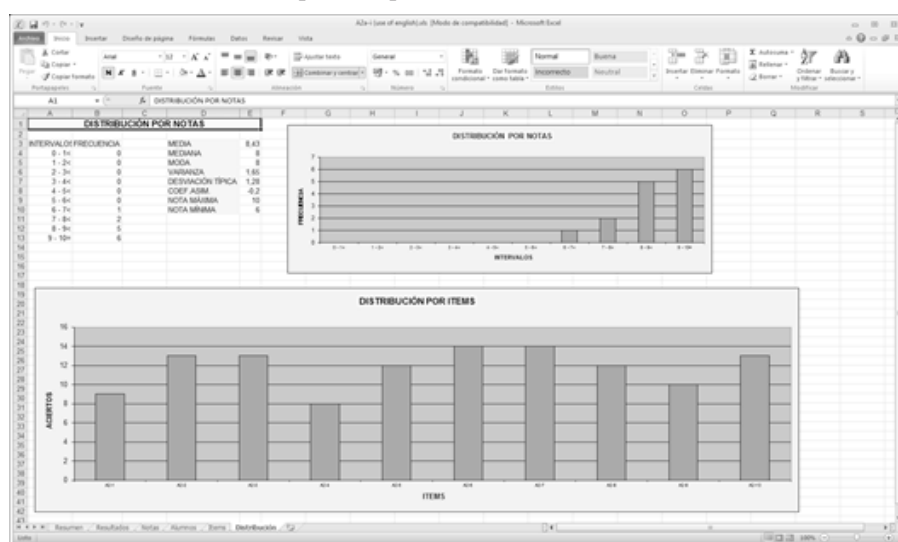
The graphical representation of the results allows us to detect any anomalous deviation in any of the test items more clearly than merely through a numerical representation, and thus to correct the final computation before sending the candidates' scores to the international relations offices. In addition to the two graphs, the program also displays some common statistical values of the scores, such as the average, the mean, the standard deviation, etc., which provide further information about the test results.

The results are automatically calculated, assigning a specific weight of 80% of the score to the English Language Use section and 20% to the Listening Comprehension section. The different weights assigned to each section of the test are based on their reliability when establishing students' linguistic competence levels, since the addition of audio exercises makes it possible to define students' level of knowledge more accurately.

The distribution of levels in accordance with the CEFR in the English Language Use section was, as follows:

- A1 = 1-5 points
- A2 = 6-15 points
- B1 = 16-25 points
- B1+ = 26-35 points
- B2 = 36-44 points + C1 = 45-50 points

Level B2 is assigned to students who have given the right answers to between 36 and 50 questions, which also comprises level C1, as it is not necessary to distinguish between B2 and C1 levels because the maximum level required for the allocation of the grants is B2.

The different specific weights which had been assigned to the English Language Use and Listening Comprehension sections were due to the limitations arising from the total length of the test (1 hour). The Listening Comprehension is used to fine tune the results obtained in the language section and thus more accurately determine the levels of the language competence. In other words, students who have obtained a score corresponding to level B1+, i.e. between 26 and 35 points, must obtain at least 50% of the right answers in the Listening Comprehension section to confirm that level. Should a lower percentage be obtained, the candidate's competence level would be redefined as B1, as in the case of the student 23 in the following figure.

Figure 4

Fine-tuning according to Listening results

As the next figure shows (Figure 5), most candidates' knowledge corresponded to the B1 level, which means that they have to improve their knowledge of English before enrolling into the mobility programme. The results of the test have also been used by the CDL to design specific courses that better suit the needs of students applying for mobility grants so that students who had been selected but do not have sufficient linguistic skills may meet the requirements of the host institutions. As

stated by Robert M. DeKeyser (2007: 208), "the quality of the students' learning experience abroad depends to a large extent on their preparation at home".

Figure 5
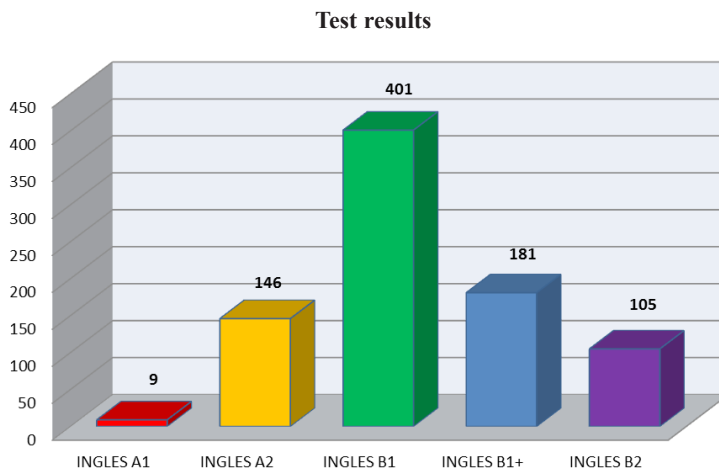
Test results

The final results of the test were sent to the international relations offices in the various schools, which then selected the best candidates on the basis of their score and the requirements of each host university.

In addition, having a sufficiently broad population sample, comprising approximately 1,000 students who took the test, enabled us to analyse in detail the data obtained for every item and thus reclassify some of the items. This new information was employed to revise some of the items existing in the initial database in order to create more reliable items which are better aligned to the CEFR competence levels and will be used when designing future tests.

As regards the satisfaction survey, it was voluntary, and a total of 218 students completed it. It was sent several months after the test was held and, according to the results, it could be claimed that users were satisfied not only with the platform but also with the test itself and the results obtained.

Conclusions

In order to achieve the goal of facilitating the integration of graduates into international markets as established by the Bologna process, universities should provide students with the resources required to increase their international competitiveness. The various actions to meet these goals include student mobility programmes as a way to increase graduates' international competitiveness.

The commitment of the Universitat Politècnica de València to the philosophy underlying the Bologna Process and the creation of the European Higher Education Area is reflected in the high number of students who take part in exchange programmes.

In this sense, even though there are no general linguistic requirements in the host institutions, the Universitat Politècnica de València has considered important to require that candidates have a minimum level of competence, corresponding to level B1+ of the CEFR, in order to ensure that the process is successful and students make the most of their stay abroad.

To this end, the UPV Language Centre has designed a computer test that has made it possible to evaluate the linguistic competence of a large number of candidates for mobility grants in a reliable and effective way within a two-day period.

The main advantages of this method, as opposed to a paper-based test, are the immediate release of the results, as well as the savings both in financial terms and in the time spent administering and marking the tests.

The test has two sections: a English Language Use section, comprising 50 questions corresponding to levels A1 to C1 of the CEFR, and a Listening Comprehension section consisting of three listening tests corresponding to levels A2, B1 and B2, and whose aim is to define candidates' linguistic competence more accurately.

The results obtained served to improve the work of the international offices in the various UPV schools when selecting the students who might perform better during their stay in foreign institutions, and thus increase their competitiveness in the national and international market.

In addition, these results enable designing of the more specific training courses that are better suited to meet the real needs of students who are given an exchange grant, emphasising those aspects which have been highlighted as problematic in the students' linguistic skills as a result of the analysing the various test items.

The satisfaction survey conducted among the participating students confirmed that the platform worked adequately, as the participants rated the various aspects of the tool and its operation very highly. They found it easy to use, and their expectations regarding their results were met.

The obtained results also served to improve the alignment of some items with the CEFR levels and to remove from the database some other items which did not discriminate well. Thus, in the coming years we will have a more reliable database that is consistent with the descriptors established in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages for each linguistic competence level.

We believe that the Language Centre plays a relevant role for the allocation of academic exchange grants, as it helps to speed up the process of evaluating students' linguistic competence in a fast, economical, and reliable way.

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LES SIMULATIONS GLOBALES COMME OUTIL POUR LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE LA COMPÉTENCE COMMUNICATIVE DANS DES SITUATIONS DE COMMUNICATION DE LA VIE QUOTIDIENNE ET PROFESSIONNELLE

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Résumé

La simulation globale est un support méthodologique qui permet de travailler tout en se divertissant. Basée sur des tâches communicatives à réaliser dans le cadre d'un projet commun, elle permet aux apprenants de s'approprier de nouveaux savoirs et savoir-faire en langue étrangère grâce aux démarches centrées sur les objectifs communicatifs, linguistiques et culturels.

Cette étude se propose de présenter la stratégie pédagogique de la "simulation globale" dans la perspective actionnelle, de repérer les avantages et les risques de la mise en place d'une simulation globale, ainsi que d'analyser l'intérêt pour l'apprentissage du français et les possibilités de l'emploi de cet outil pédagogique dans le contexte universitaire.

Abstract

Global simulation is a set of classroom techniques that allows to work and to have fun at the same time. Based on accomplishing communicative tasks for a joint project, it allows learners to acquire new knowledge and to develop skills in foreign language through approaches and activities focused on communicative, linguistic and cultural goals.

This study aims to present the pedagogical strategy of "global simulation" in the context of task-based teaching approach, to identify the benefits and risks of applying a global simulation in class, to analyze the interest and possibilities of using this classroom technique for French language learning in the university.

Mots-clés: simulation globale, jeu de rôle, compétence communicative

Aperçu historique

Aujourd'hui, la finalité de l'enseignement des langues est de "faire de l'apprenant un individu plurilingue, au minimum capable de se débrouiller dans les situations les plus courantes de la vie quotidienne, et, ainsi, de permettre une meilleure compréhension et communication entre les peuples" (Tagliante 2006: 26). Pour atteindre cet objectif, l'enseignant de langue est à la recherche constante d'une méthode idéale, d'un manuel parfait, d'exercices adaptés le mieux possible aux besoins des apprenants. Les apprenants, de leur côté, s'attendent à des cours intéressants, à des activités ludiques, à une progression rapide et efficace.

Après avoir découvert la simulation globale il y a quelques années, nous avons constaté que certains enseignants de langues étrangères ne la connaissaient pas, tandis que les autres l'utilisaient avec succès avec des publics différents. Ceci a suscité notre intérêt à en savoir plus sur ce support méthodologique, à la fois ludique et sérieux, qui oblige l'apprenant à mobiliser tous les moyens d'expression de langue et qui ressemble, au premier abord, à une accumulation de jeux de rôles mais dont la valeur communicative est beaucoup plus complexe.

Les premières tentatives d'introduction du jeu comme outil pédagogique en classe de FLE datent de la fin du XXe siècle, suite à la naissance, dans les années 1970, de l'approche communicative qui met l'accent sur des activités d'expression ou de compréhension qui se rapprochent de la réalité de la communication (Robert, Rosen & Reinhardt 2011: 91). Les jeux communicatifs se caractérisent par deux composantes: l'installation de l'activité dans la sphère de l'illusion et l'utilisation de la parole et du langage comme moyen d'interaction authentique (López 2002: 7). Cela incite certains didacticiens du FLE à créer et expérimenter les premières simulations globales en tant qu'alternative aux anciennes méthodes d'aprentissage et manuels de l'époque, en accentuant l'utilisation des techniques de créativité, la centration sur l'apprenant, l'importance des aspects communicatifs en classe de langue.[1] Cependant, ce n'est que dans les années 1980 et 1990 que la réflexion sur la créativité et sur les techniques d'animation s'approfondit, et ainsi peu à peu les jeux et les activités d'expression dramatique s'approprient une nouvelle place dans la classe de langue. À cette époque, les simulations globales généralistes en lieu clos (l'immeuble, le village, l'île) se développent.

Au milieu des années 90, une nouvelle approche appelée "approche actionnelle" fait son apparition. Elle reprend tous les concepts de l'approche communicative en y ajoutant l'idée de "tâche" à accomplir dans les multiples contextes auxquels un apprenant va être confronté dans la vie sociale (Tagliante 2006: 64). La perspective actionnelle se propose d'initier les apprenants non seulement à communiquer avec l'autre mais surtout à agir avec l'autre (Robert, Rosen, Reinhardt 2011: 94). Il faut donc trouver un cadre où les apprenants abordent des points linguistiques, langagiers et culturels de manière naturelle et logique, où ils sont le plus actifs et autonomes possible. Le procédé pédagogique de "simulation globale" motive l'apprenant, favorise l'apprentissage et répond à part entière à ce besoin d'autonomie dans la communication quotidienne. D'ailleurs, des simulations globales plus spécifiques, des simulations à visée professionnelle arrivent bientôt sur le marché (l'hôtel, l'entreprise, l'hôpital, le procès), ayant pour but principal d'assimiler les contenus lexicaux et les discours spécifiques. Lors de leur utilisation, il convient de maintenir un équilibre entre le réel et le pragmatique d'une part et l'invention et l'imaginaire d'autre part.

Bien qu'utilisées depuis 30 ans et appréciées par les uns, les simulations globales laissent méfiants les autres face aux défis de leur mise en place, elles continuent

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[1]   Les didacticiens du BELC (Bureau d'Enseignement de la Langue et de la Civilisation françaises à l'étranger), F. Debyser, J-M. Caré, C. Yaiche, mettent au point les premières simulations dans des ateliers de créativité des stages d'été (Yaiche 1996: 13).

pourtant à se développer en ayant de plus en plus recours à l'ordinateur et à l'internet comme source de recherches documentaires et de ressources en tous genres, voire comme l'endroit du déroulement de la simulation (Capriles 2004).

Définition et "mode d'emploi" d'une simulation globale

La meilleure définition de la simulation globale serait celle de son auteur même, Francis Debyser: "Une simulation globale est un protocole ou un scénario cadre qui permet à un groupe d'apprenants pouvant aller jusqu'à une classe entière d'une trentaine d'élèves, de créer un univers de référence – un immeuble, un village, une île, un cirque, un hôtel – de l'animer de personnages en interaction et d'y simuler toutes les fonctions du langage que ce cadre, qui est à la fois un lieu-thème et un univers de discours, est susceptible de requérir. [..] Décrire le monde, raconter la vie et vivre la comédie des relations humaines, tel est le pari pédagogique des simulations. C'est l'ampleur de cette ambition qui explique le terme de "global"." (Debyser 1996: préface)

Autrement dit, la simulation globale est un projet de création collective dont la réalisation met en jeu les acquisitions linguistiques, l'utilisation de documents authentiques, l'imagination, les jeux de rôle, les pratiques de communication orales et écrites, la rédaction et la création littéraire (Caré, Debyser 1995: 5). Cette technique de classe peut être aussi bien utile pour le développement d'une compétence linguistique ou communicative générale que pour l'acquisition d'une compétence spécialisée en milieu professionnel. Elle peut être utilisée dès le niveau débutant jusqu'au niveau avancé avec des apprenants de tous âges.

On retrouve dans la définition même de F. Debyser, les principales étapes qui constituent le canevas de toute simulation globale: établir le lieu et planter le décor, le faire habiter par des personnages avec leur identité, leur physique et leur caractère, puis faire prendre vie au tout par des interactions orales et écrites. Après avoir imaginé les relations entre les personnages et leur rôle dans le décor, on peut choisir un scénario d'événements qui permet de mettre en perspective les principales séquences de la simulation (Yaiche 1996: 26). À ces étapes principales doit s'adapter tout le contenu linguistique, socioculturel et méthodologique que les situations imposent. Cependant, le lexique, les éléments grammaticaux et discursifs ne sont pas simplement pratiqués; ils servent de moyen pour résoudre une situation, un problème donné. F. Yaiche souligne que ce canevas d'invention est simplement une chaîne de propositions d'activités qui laissent la porte ouverte à des techniques d'animation diverses et à des activités communicatives très variées, quasiment illimitées qui s'articulent les unes avec les autres (Yaiche 1996: 28). Les apprenants sont en communication constante, qu'il s'agisse de conversations et d'échanges écrits de tous les jours ou de discours officiels et de la correspondance professionnelle.

Le déroulement général de la simulation s'accompagne de phases "où l'on ne joue plus": on s'arrête pour expliciter un problème de langue, éclaircir un point de vocabulaire ou approfondir un point de grammaire. Si l'on suit les étapes proposées, les contenus s'y intègrent naturellement et avec une progression logique, selon les

objectifs formulés par l'enseignant dans le cadre pédagogique qu'il s'est fixé, que ce soit pour la langue générale ou professionnelle.

Toutes les simulations globales sont des projets à l'issue desquels les participants se retrouvent avec un volume considérable de créations. Quel que soit le public, le résultat "touchable" est la preuve des talents individuels et des efforts collectifs des participants réunis dans un ouvrage commun qui leur permet de se sentir valorisés et capables de créer en langue étrangère. C'est le moment où l'apprenant en tant qu'„être actif" au centre du processus d'apprentissage, peut se rendre compte de ses progrès en langue étrangère (Tagliante 2006: 26).

Contraintes d'une simulation globale

L'enseignant qui décide de mettre en œuvre une simulation globale, doit chercher tout d'abord à obtenir des informations pratiques sur le déroulement et le fonctionnement d'une simulation, les conditions de sa mise en œuvre, ses contraintes et ses points forts, son adaptabilité au contexte institutionnel. À part l'existence des ouvrages spécialisés sur la créativité et les activités ludiques en classe de langue, ainsi que sur les simulations globales en particulier, l'Internet peut fournir des informations précieuses dont des témoignages de personnes qui ont réalisé ce genre d'expérience.

La majorité de ces comptes rendus, d'une grande utilité pour les enseignants qui souhaitent se lancer dans de tels projets, prouvent que la simulation globale est, en principe, une idée simple avec une mise en œuvre complexe, apportant des résultats intéressants. Pourtant, il faut prendre en compte que l'enseignant peut se trouver confronté à un certain nombre d'obstacles dont les plus cités sont l'incapacité de l'apprenant d'accepter "le contrat d'apprentissage"[2] pour la simulation globale qui est le jeu ayant pour but de permettre de progresser en langue étrangère, la perte de l'objectif linguistique à cause de l'imagination trop excentrique et quasiment incontrôlable des apprenants, la contrainte temporelle imposée par le nombre ou la périodicité des séances.

De même, le grand nombre de productions réalisées qui doivent être corrigées et classées, ainsi que la difficulté de l'évaluation individuelle de chaque apprenant lors de la réalisation du projet, sont des défis supplémentaires. Pour une plus grande cohérence dans le déroulement de la simulation, Isabelle Delahaye trouve qu'il est pertinent d'organiser les séances en leur donnant un rythme réglé à l'avance: retour sur la dernière situation, découverte d'un élément nouveau, choix de la réaction face à cet événement, travail langagier permettant d'avoir les moyens de réagir à cet événement, jeux de rôle, retour sur les productions des apprenants (Delahaye 2011: 4).

Ces contraintes incitent une fois de plus à se poser la question sur le rôle et les devoirs de l'enseignant dans la simulation globale. Il est évident que l'enseignant doit mobiliser des ressources et des compétences en animation très variées pour faire fonctionner une simulation globale. F. Yaiche évoque une liste non exhaustive des

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[2]   Christine Tagliante propose une liste non exhaustive pour l'enseignant et pour l'apprenant des engagements d'apprentissage à respecter (Tagliante 2006: 59-60).

tâches[3] qui peuvent incomber à l'enseignant, en faisant ressortir 5 rôles auxquels celui-ci doit être formé: l'expert, la personne-ressource, l'animateur, le modèle, le médiateur (Yaiche 1996: 102). La simulation est dite "globale" parce qu'elle mobilise la totalité des rôles qu'un enseignant peut tenir (Yaiche 1996: 108). L'enseignant qui se sent prêt à assumer ces rôles doit être disponible, prêt à proposer, à donner des idées, à encourager, à conseiller, voire motiver si nécessaire, à limiter l'imagination des apprenants ou la relancer. En résumé, il doit être compétent, vigilant et souple.

La connaissance des difficultés et la compréhension des enjeux qui peuvent surgir dans la pratique d'une simulation globale ne provoque pas de réticence quant au choix pour ou contre cette approche; au contraire, cela aide à s'y préparer le mieux possible.

Perspectives des simulations globales à l'université: cas de l'Université de Lettonie[4]

Après avoir pris connaissance de différents canevas de simulation globale, des exemples de leur mise en place et des témoignages de leur fonctionnement, la question de savoir s'il serait possible d'utiliser une simulation globale en cours de FLE à l'Université est revenue logiquement. Le contexte universitaire diffère considérablement du contexte dans lequel la simulation globale en tant que pratique éducative a été créée et ensuite développée. Pourtant, certains bénéfices de la simulation globale sont incontestables, par exemple :

- elle permet d'enrichir l'offre de cours de FLE;
- elle permet aux étudiants de niveau intermédiaire ou avancé de réactiver et de perfectionner leurs connaissances en français;
- c'est un support méthodologique attrayant pour les apprenants qui cherchent à avoir de véritables échanges en langue étrangère;
- elle donne à l'enseignant l'occasion de construire des parcours interdisciplinaires et d'intégrer différentes matières pour les groupes hétérogènes.

Les possibilités de l'application d'un modèle de simulation globale dans des contextes de didactique universitaire dépendent de plusieurs critères: le nombre d'heures prévues pour l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère, l'hétérogénéité du public due à la spécialisation des étudiants et leur niveau en français, les besoins des apprenants, ainsi que le besoin de l'évaluation académique.

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[3] "Il met en place des situations, organise, régule, parfois désigne les groupes, sous-groupes ou apprenants pour telle ou telle tâche, veille à ce que l'information réciproque des participants soit faite, diffuse les renseignements aux uns, les productions aux autres, donne des conseils, corrige, éventuellement archive, affiche, pourvoie aux petits matériels nécessaires à la confection des travaux, enregistre, filme, stocke sur disquette informatique...bref, il doit être un Maître Jacques organisé." (Yaiche 1996: 102)

[4] Il s'agit ici d'étudiants non spécialisés en FLE: pour la plupart, le français est la troisième ou quatrième langue étrangère.

Actuellement, le nombre de points de crédit accessibles pour les cours optionnels à l'Université de Lettonie, y compris les cours de langue, a considérablement diminué.[5] Cette situation conduit à la recherche de solutions, telles que la réduction du nombre d'heures de cours tout en maintenant la qualité et l'efficacité de la formation, conformément aux objectifs communicatifs des apprenants. Au premier abord, la simulation globale ne conviendrait pas à ces besoins puisque la durée minimale d'une simulation type est de 40 heures (Yaiche 1996: 27). Or, en FLE et en FOS, la tendance récente va vers la diminution de la durée de la simulation globale. Dans certains canevas, on réduit les étapes de lancement de la simulation au profit des productions orales et écrites, en proposant aux apprenants un scénario de cadrage qui précise le lieu de l'action, le profil des identités principales et la nature de la scène finale. Plus centré sur un événement que sur le lieu, le scénario permet de placer immédiatement la simulation dans une dynamique et de coller au plus près des objectifs d'apprentissage. Par exemple, en entreprise, la simulation peut avoir une forme encore plus réduite: on organise des simulations de réunions ou de repas d'affaires sur une journée.

Les programmes d'enseignement du FLE actuels et la progression sont prédéterminés, élaborés sur la base des manuels de français général. Pourtant, si les enseignants ou les concepteurs du programme le jugent nécessaire, ils peuvent y apporter des modifications. De même, il est possible de créer et de proposer de nouveaux cours et programmes. Ainsi, la simulation globale peut être incluse dans un cours existant, ou proposée en tant que module à part entière.

Les étudiants de l'Université de Lettonie qui sont visés par l'offre de cours des langues étrangères, sont des jeunes âgés de 19 à 24 ans, venant de toutes les filières (économie, langues classiques, informatique, biologie, philosophie, etc.) qui choisissent les cours de FLE en tant que cours optionnel. Leurs connaissances en français correspondent à tous les niveaux, du débutant complet au B1 du CECR, certains étudiants ayant une bonne maîtrise de l'oral, mais des lacunes systématiques à l'écrit. Les étudiants qui optent pour l'apprentissage du français au lieu de l'anglais ou une autre langue étrangère, expriment assez souvent la nécessité de cours de français à visée spécifique, par exemple, dans le but de poursuivre leurs études en France, de faire un stage ou de trouver un emploi dans un pays francophone. D'autres veulent une réactivation rapide des acquis scolaires, en mettant l'accent principalement sur la communication orale dans des situations de la vie quotidienne. Par sa souplesse, l'appel à la créativité et l'utilisation d'un vaste éventail d'activités, la simulation globale est à même de répondre aux objectifs communicatifs des apprenants cités ci-dessus.

À présent, l'utilisation de la technique de simulation en cours de FLE à l'université se limite à des "micro-simulations" ou des jeux de rôle "étendus", se rapprochant le plus possible de la réalité. Ceci est possible grâce à certains manuels qui intègrent des mini-parcours de canevas de simulation globale en guise de "révisions" pour la

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[5]   4 crédits correspondent à 64h académiques d'enseignement, soit 48h de cours en classe. Une grande partie des étudiants n'ont droit qu'à 2 crédits par semestre, ce qui constitue 24h de cours en classe.

consolidation des compétences acquises à la fin d'une unité.[6] Cependant, malgré le bien-fondé du concept, la durée consacrée à ces activités est souvent trop courte. Faute de temps accordé par le programme d'enseignement, ces mini-simulations en petites séquences de communication de la vie de tous les jours ou professionnelle, ne sont pas entièrement développées. Ainsi, la réalité qu'elles cherchent à recréer est discontinue et parfois incohérente. Par conséquent, si l'on réfléchit à l'intégration d'une simulation globale dans le cadre d'un programme d'études existant, le manque de temps pour la réalisation des activités entraîne un danger pour tout le projet et la simulation risque de devenir un accessoire des contenus du cours. Elle perd ainsi son importance didactique et ne représente plus qu'un divertissement qui n'apporte pratiquement rien à la progression des apprenants. Par conséquent, l'idée de proposer une simulation globale comme module à part entière dans le contexte universitaire serait plus judicieuse.

Une autre contrainte temporelle est présentée par la répartition des cours sur la durée totale du semestre: cela représente un ou deux cours d'une heure et demie par semaine. Dans ce cas, dans le cadre universitaire, on ne peut pas envisager une simulation intensive. À son tour, une simulation extensive risque de briser l'imaginaire des apprenants par le caractère trop fractionné de l'emploi du temps. Le meilleur modèle envisageable pourrait être le déplacement de la simulation globale à la fin du cursus pour ne pas rompre le plaisir de l'invention (Yaiche 1996: 161). De plus, une telle simulation globale offrirait aux apprenants l'occasion d'auto-évaluer leurs compétences.

Avant de se lancer dans l'exploitation des canevas d'invention, il convient à l'enseignant de choisir entre les deux types de simulation, généraliste ou fonctionnelle, tout en tenant compte du public cible (Yaiche 1996: 66). D'une part, les groupes hétérogènes des étudiants qui choisissent les cours de FLE à l'Université de Lettonie en tant que cours optionnels se verraient proposer une des simulations globales généralistes ce qui leur permettrait par conséquent de se sentir plus à l'aise dans les situations de communication de la vie quotidienne. D'autre part, quant aux simulations fonctionnelles, le niveau des connaissances de langue pourrait constituer un obstacle puisque très peu d'étudiants ont les niveaux B1-C1 du CECR en français. L'aptitude à utiliser certaines simulations toutes faites serait restreinte, ce qui obligerait l'enseignant à élaborer un cours avec une méthodologie spécifique, intégrant toutes les compétences communicatives pour que ces cours ne se limitent pas à l'apprentissage du vocabulaire propre au domaine concret et aux éléments langagiers. Cependant, l'opportunité d'utiliser les simulations globales pour la communication professionnelle augmente depuis que certaines filières universitaires ont inclu le français dans leurs programmes.[7] Cela ouvrirait la possibilité d'enseigner

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6   Cf. parmi les manuels utilisés à l'Université: "En situation" dans "Objectif Diplomatie", Hachette-Livre (2006) ou "Projet Dossier" dans „Alter Ego 1+", Hachette Livre (2012).
7   À la faculté de sciences sociales, c'est le programme de licence en sciences politiques (un parcours de 192 heures académiques); à la faculté d'économie et de gestion, le programme de l'économie internationale et diplomatie commerciale (un parcours de 96 heures académiques).

le FOS et employer des simulations globales "professionnelles" telles que "Conférence internationale" ou "Entreprise".

Il y a 7 ans, une première tentative dans le domaine de la simulation globale pour l'enseignement du FLE a été effectuée à l'Université de Lettonie. Un nouveau programme d'études a été ajouté à l'offre des cours de français pour non-spécialistes. Le cours "Préparation aux études en France" a été inspiré par l'accroissement de la mobilité estudiantine et sa conception était basée sur des situations de communication pouvant être vécues par des étudiants lettons dans le cadre de leur séjour universitaire en France ou dans les pays francophones. Ce cours donnait la possibilité aux apprenants ayant atteint le niveau B.1.1 du CECR de mettre en pratique les moyens langagiers et communicatifs acquis dans les cours de français général tout en acquérant de nouvelles compétences de communication.

Après avoir identifié les besoins langagiers et culturels des apprenants, ainsi que les situations de communication auxquelles ils seraient confrontés lors de leur séjour à l'étranger, deux grands axes d'études ont été dégagés. Le premier se rapportait à la vie universitaire, le second portait sur la vie quotidienne. Pour une vraie acquisition des compétences communicatives, les concepteurs du programme ont cherché à privilégier l'approche actionnelle qui sollicitait davantage l'esprit d'initiative et l'autonomie des apprenants. Ainsi, ceux-ci devaient s'investir dans le procédé afin de faire face à une tâche centrale de communiquer avec tous les moyens disponibles, tandis que l'enseignant était amené à présenter des éléments langagiers nécessaires à une communication efficace. Les activités étaient conçues de façon que les apprenants puissent par la suite se corriger les uns les autres ou s'auto-corriger. L'interaction et la collaboration entre les apprenants facilitaient la construction commune des savoirs.

Dès le début, certains aspects de ce module semblaient s'apparenter à la simulation globale, notamment, les objectifs d'apprentissage, les types d'activités proposées et leur enchaînement logique, l'interdisciplinarité, le fusionnement du travail individuel et du travail de groupe. Actuellement, ce cours n'a plus lieu en raison du nombre insuffisant d'étudiants inscrits. La réorganisation du curricula suivant le "mode d'emploi" de la simulation globale pourrait, éventuellement, lui redonner une nouvelle envergure.

Conclusion

La simulation globale est un support méthodologique qui peut être intégré à divers types d'enseignement et doit être adapté à l'âge et au niveau des apprenants afin de leur donner de l'autonomie dans différentes situations de communication de la vie quotidienne ou professionnelle. Le caractère ludique et créatif de la simulation favorise cette autonomie: les apprenants se sentent moins contraints par la correction linguistique et plus motivés à communiquer. Cette technique de classe, considérée aussi comme méthode d'enseignement/apprentissage à part entière, est interdisciplinaire, car elle permet aux apprenants d'acquérir des compétences dans plusieurs domaines spécifiques, autres que purement linguistiques grâce aux recherches qu'ils font afin de se documenter sur l'univers à créer.

Face au grand nombre de méthodes qui existent sur le marché, et malgré le renouvellement de celles-ci, il est toujours difficile d'en choisir une qui puisse répondre entièrement aux besoins du public visé. La simulation globale peut rémédier au manque de manuel puisque sa réalisation met en jeu les acquisitions linguistiques, l'utilisation de documents authentiques, l'imagination, les jeux de rôles, les jeux linguistiques et communicatifs, les pratiques de communication orales et écrites, la rédaction et la création littéraire. D'un point de vue pédagogique, la simulation globale présente plusieurs intérêts:

- elle permet une véritable mise en situation, quotidienne ou professionnelle, pendant laquelle la langue est envisagée comme outil et non comme objet de savoir;
- elle permet de pratiquer des échanges communicatifs oraux et écrits très variés ainsi que d'utiliser et de combiner de manière naturelle et complémentaire les activités qui sont d'habitude réalisées en classe de façon éparpillée;
- elle rend la méthodologie très active par l'alternance des phases d'apprentissage et des phases d'invention, ce qui assure que toutes les connaissances acquises sont (ré)utilisées en situation de communication;
- elle permet aux apprenants de ne pas avoir peur des erreurs, de se sentir moins gênés en s'exprimant, grâce au contexte et aux rôles fictifs, ce qui favorise également la dynamique de classe et la coopération entre les apprenants;
- elle donne une dimension ludique à l'apprentissage ce qui stimule le désir d'apprendre;
- elle permet d'apprendre la langue-cible tout en s'appropriant l'univers socio-culturel visé.

Grâce au vaste éventail des activités interactives et créatives que la simulation globale permet d'intégrer dans l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères, ce support méthodologique contribue au développement d'un ensemble de savoirs et de savoir-faire linguistiques, socioculturels, discursifs et stratégiques, qui, réunis, forment la compétence de communication.

De nos jours, les simulations globales continuent d'évoluer. De nombreuses pistes de réflexion restent à explorer, par exemple, à savoir si l'animation d'une simulation globale à visée professionnelle pourrait se faire uniquement en ligne grâce aux outils que présente Internet (blog, wiki, courrier électronique). Par ailleurs, ce n'est que par la mise en pratique des simulations globales que cette technique d'enseignement s'apprend et se perfectionne.

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