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LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGES (UDC 81)

ЛЕКСИКО-СЕМАНТИЧЕСКАЯ РАЗМЕТКА ИМЕННЫХ КЛАССОВ В МИНОРИТАРНОМ АФРИКАНСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ: ДАННЫЕ ЯЗЫКА НДОНДЕ
Научная статья

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Аннотация

Статья посвящена лексико-семантической разметке именных классов в одном из миноритарных языков банту – ндонде, который до сих пор не был включен в мировой научный оборот. Параллельно рассматриваются вопросы лингвистической классификации языка ндонде и социальной истории языкового сообщества ндонде. На основе данных нашего полевого исследования языка ндонде можно выделить 18 именных классов. В статье анализируются грамматические особенности и особое внимание уделяется лексико-семантической характеристике каждого именного класса. Даже эти предварительные данные по языку ндонде имеют важное не только научное, но и практическое значение для уточнения классификации языков банту и написании сопоставительных грамматик.

Ключевые слова: языки банту, язык ндонде, социальная история, лингвистическая классификация, именной класс, семантика, лексико-семантическая разметка.

LEXICAL-SEMANTIC TAGGING OF THE NOMINAL CLASSES IN THE MINORITY AFRICAN LANGUAGE: THE NDONDE LANGUAGE DATA
Research article

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Abstract

The article deals with the lexical-semantic tagging of the nominal classes in Ndonde, one of the Bantu minority languages, which has not yet been included in the world scientific revolution. At the same time the complexity of linguistic classification of the Ndonde language and the socio-history of the Ndonde speaking community are considered. Basing on personal field research data Ndonde nouns are classified into 18 nominal classes. The article is devoted to the analysis of grammar features and lexical-semantic characteristics of each of these nominal classes. Even these preliminary data on Ndonde language are important not only scientific but also practical importance to refine the classification of the Bantu languages and writing comparative grammar.

Keywords: Bantu languages, Ndonde language, socio-history, linguistic classification, nominal class, semantics, lexical-semantic tagging.

Introduction

This paper addresses some issues around the ambiguous genealogical status of Ndonde, a Bantu language spoken by approximately 2 500 people in Lindi and Mtwara Regions in southeastern Tanzania. It is argued that the unclear linguistic affinity of the Ndonde language is the result of the socio-historical background of its speakers, characterized by a substantial amount of contact and intermingling, as well as a relatively recent consolidation of an ethnic identity.

The main issues will be discussed: the problematic linguistic classification of Ndonde, the socio-historical background of the Ndonde speaking community and further insights with regard to the modern status of the Ndonde language, the question of the lexical-semantic tagging of the nominal classes in the Ndonde language.

The ambiguous linguistic affiliation

The classification of the Bantu languages by M. Guthrie [9] placed Ndonde as a member of the Southeastern Bantu under group 20 in zone R with number 24, along with the languages Yao, Mwera, Makonde, etc. In contrast to the languages of this group, quite thoroughly researched and described in the scientific literature, Ndonde was not systematically analyzed either in linguistic works or in studies on history and ethnography. Practically there are no works on the language of Ndonde [14, P. 203].

The ethnolinguistic map in the south of Tanzania is very complex. The boundaries between the neighboring languages are practically insignificant. The speakers of various languages, living side by side, are mostly polylingual speakers: in addition to the native language and official Swahili (and less often English), they also speak two or three other languages of neighboring Bantu ethnoses.

The small number of the Ndonde ethnos raises the question: is Ndonde a separate language (albeit closely related) or a dialect of some other language [2]. Such a problem is not new. As is well known, 'often with quite obvious areal division into certain local language varieties it is rather difficult to qualify the degree of their autonomy with respect to each other and the surrounding languages. In many cases in practice of interpretation and classification of such units there is ambiguous solution of the question whether the language varieties of a particular area are:

a) separate closely related languages;

b) dialects of a single language;

c) dialects forming a "transition zone" or "zone of vibration" between two (or more) related languages (in the latter case, additional difficulties are also connected with the geographical boundary, sometimes quite conditional, on both sides of which these local units should be located, related to various communities);

d) a number of closely related languages with dialects belonging to them, etc. [5, P. 127].

Only in one recently published work [13, P. 7] Ndonde is classified as one of the dialects of the Makonde language community along with such dialects as Matabwe, Nyima and Malaba.

However, in Atlas of Tanzanian languages it takes 140 place among 150 languages numerically speaking on it, i.e, is regarded as a separate language [6, P. iii]. According to the internal classification of the Tanzanian languages, the Ndonde language is placed in the group VII "Rufiji-Ruvuma", the subgroup C "Ruvuma" together with languages such as Yao, Mwera, Makonde, Maraba, Lomwe, Matambwe and Makua [6, P. xi].

The ambiguous socio-historical background

At one time Ndonde was one of the largest ethnic groups in the south of Tanganyika (modern Tanzania). The time of the rise of the Ndonde ethnos is attributed by the Tanzanian historian J. Nyagali [16, P. 9] to the middle of the 19th century, around 1860, i.e. time of military expansion of the Nguni tribes from the southeastern regions of South Africa to the north. At the same time, he cites the name of the leader of the ethnic union of Mvera and Ndonde *Mkulungwa Mkuchika*, according to the historian, widely known in the 19th century. During the German rule in this region (Deutsch-Ostafrika) the leaders (in Swahili *majumbe*) were appointed to help the colonial authorities. J. Nyagali gives the names of twenty two leaders in southern Tanganyika, two of whom were leaders Ndonde [16, P. 10], i.e. at the beginning of the 20th century the Ndonde ethnos was still large enough to have its representation in the local authorities. Essentially, the study of the Tanzanian historian cited above is one of the attempts to understand the complex areal ethnic history of the Bantu peoples in the south of modern Tanzania. As J. Nyagali considers, at the end of the 19th century Ndonde occupied vast areas of the southern districts of Tanganyika, from Kilwa in the east to the west Livale [16, P. 12]. According to all probability, we can say that modern ethnic differentiation has developed, in general terms, in this region at the end of the 19th century, and at this time Ndonde ethnicity was quite numerous, and occupied a vast territory.

The modern status of the Ndonde language

On the map of present-day Tanzania, in all the southern and southeastern regions of the Lindi district from Kilwa to Livale and beyond, one can find individual members of this ethnic group, but their most compact residence is observed in the Nachingwea region, where, according to Atlas languages of Tanzania, live 2229 people [6]. The Nonde language is on the verge of extinction: if in 1987 the number of speakers on it was about 33,000 [14], then in 2007-2008, it decreased to 2 458 people [6], and according to our observations during the field research in southern Tanzania in 2014 the native speakers of Ndonde continues to decline. Thus, at present the ethno-linguistic and geographical area of Ndonde decreased significantly and became dispersed.

Such situation, known as "language'death", has a simple explanation: the systematic expansion of the Swahili language, the growth of large cities with the outflow of rural youth, the increase in the number of inter-ethnic marriages and etc. At this point it is important to mention the impact of Swahili on Ndonde as a reflection of the general sociolinguistic pattern in Tanzania. The rapid growth of Swahili constitutes a major threat to the ethnic languages like Ndonde. For instance, Swahili is used both as a medium of instruction and a subject for primary education. Moreover, Swahili functions as a means of mass communication.

The actual sociolinguistic profile of Ndonde indicates that the language and the culture of this ethnos are kept only by the people of the older generation. The only domains in which Ndonde is used have been confined to the home and within the small Ndonde community. In fact, the Ndonde language serves traditional situations.

Method

Our main goal was to describe the nominal class system and mark out the nominal classes in Ndonde, the significant feature of the grammar. Ndonde native speakers were presented with questionnaires compiled on the basis of the two-hundred-thousand list of Swadesh (The Swadesh wordlist) with the addition of African realities. We managed to interview six informants from different rural areas of southern Tanzania, mainly from Mtwara region [3, P. 13]. Comparison and analysis of their answers allows us to give a preliminary description of the nominal class system of the Nonde language.

Therefore, our research began precisely with the identification of features of the nominal system of Ndonde. In this article, only two criteria will be taken into account: morphological and semantic. The description of the entire agreement system of Ndonde requires further study.

Discussion

In the Bantu languages there are up to 27 nominal class oppositions. There are fewer classes in the Nonde language. The morphological criterion, namely the form of the prefix of the noun, allows us to tag 18 classes. In fact, Ndonde nouns may be divided into classes distinguishable by the pairs of prefixes which indicate the singular and plural numbers. Each noun class receives a numerical designation in accordance with the general Bantu classification, proposed by Bleek [7], Meinhof [15] and Guthrie [9].

Lexical-semantic tagging

Ndonde is a Bantu language spread in Tanzania. Bantu languages are a large group of languages, part of the Niger-Congo macrofamily. These languages are spoken in almost all sub-Saharan Africa. The nominal system in the Bantu languages is an important lexico-grammatical category that defines all levels of the language [8]. Often it is called the dominant of the grammatical system, and the Bantu languages are simply languages with nominal classes that tie together different parts of the language structure and turn it into a coherent organism. Exploring the semantics of nominal classes, some of the outstanding scientists came to the conclusion that the nominal classification reflects the real relations existing between the phenomena of objective reality and their evaluation by a person. In nominal classifications he singled out several different principles reflecting the subject division, the ratio of objects in space, their comparison in size and quality, the emotional evaluation by those realities that the speakers call these classes [4, P. 110-111].

The tagging of nominal classes in Ndonde is as follows: class 1 (mu-, mw-, m- / *muunu* 'man', *mwaana* 'child', *mmada* 'slave'); class 1A (Ø, a- / *mama* 'mother', *amavi* 'sister'); class 2 (wa- / *waanu* 'men', *waana* 'children', *wamada* 'slaves'); class 3 (mu-, m- / *mutwe* 'head', *mmele* 'body'); class 4 (mi- / *mitwe* 'heads'); class 5 (li- / *litanda* 'lake'); class 6 (ma-, m- /

matanda 'lakes', *meho* 'eyes'); class 7 (chi-, ch- / *chileu* 'chin', *chaka* 'year'); class 8 (vi-, vy- / *vileu* 'chins', *vyaka* 'years'); class 9 (in-, ny-, im- m-, Ø / *inyama* 'meat', *nyumba* 'house', *imamba* 'crocodile', *mbwa* 'dog', *kiu* 'thirst'); class 10 (di- / *dinyama* 'meats', *dimbula* 'rains'); class 11 (lu- / *luhunde* 'river'); class 12 (ka- / *kayanga* 'small stone'); class 14 (u- / *utumbo* 'stomach'); class 15 (ku- / *kukumbukila* 'thinking', 'to think'); class 16 (pa- / *pandu* 'near the place'); class 17 (ku- / *kundu* 'to the place'); class 18 (mu- / *munyumba* 'in the house').

Semantic features of nominal classes in the Nonde language

Semantics of the 1st class (mu-, mw):

Usually, when describing the semantics of a class, two aspects are taken into account: grammatical and lexical semantics. As for grammatical semantics, the names of the first class are peculiar only to the singulare number, as well as a sign of personality (according to the classification of Meinhof [15, P. 28], this is the 'class of people'). On this basis, the 1st class differs from most other classes (except for 1A and 2nd).

In this class, the names of different persons are found on the basis of age, social, professional characteristics, related relations, ethnic and religious affiliation, etc., for example: *muundu* 'man, *mwana* 'child', *mpakani* 'neighbor', *mkongwe* 'wife', etc.

Semantics of the 1st A class (subclass) (Ø, a-)

As well as the 1st class, the subclass of the 1st A is characterized by signs of singular and personality / animality.

The lexical semantics of this class coincides with that of the 1st class, i.e. this class includes different names of people, especially many kinship terms, for example: *lusla* 'kid', *gido* 'woman', *mama* 'mother', *mati* 'aunt', *waki* 'grandfather', *wavi* 'grandmother'. At the same time, many Swahili borrowings are prefixed by a-: *akaka* 'brother', *ajomba* 'uncle' by analogy with the original terms of kinship: *atata* 'father', *amavi* 'sister'.

However, in the 1st class, besides the names of people, there are also names of animals, possibly totemic, for example: *nyehe* 'bird', *hawanga* 'dog', *hyomba* 'fish', etc.

Semantics of the 2d class (wa-)

The grammatical semantics of the 2nd class consists in the formation of the plural for the 1st and 1st A classes: *wakongwe* 'wives', *waluswa* 'kids', *wahawanga* 'dogs'.

The lexical semantics also coincide with the 1st and 1st A classes.

Semantics of the 3rd class (mu-, m-)

For the grammatical semantics of this class, the sign of singularity is characteristic.

The peculiarity of the lexico-semantic structure of the third class is the absence of the sign 'personality / animation'. According to the semantic classification of Meinhof [15], this class is conditionally called the 'class of trees', but the set of lexical meanings of the nouns included in it is much wider: in addition to the names of different plants and trees, there are also names of various natural phenomena, parts of the human body and animal, seasons of the year, etc., for example: *mlandi* 'tree', *mkongo* 'tree species', *mhitu* 'forest', *mwedi* 'moon', *mwanga* 'sky', *mwenge* 'fire', *mmele* 'body', *mutwe* 'head', *muhu* 'day (daylight hours)' and many others.

Semantics of the 4th class (mi-)

By the numerical sign, the nouns of the fourth class are the plural correlates of the third class. Meanwhile the 4th class contains a number of nouns that do not have a correlate of the singular number of the 3rd class, i.e. meaning pluralia tantum: *miayi* 'blood'. Correlates of the singular can belong to other classes, for example: *mikege* 'women' < *mkege* (1st class), *miyongo* 'snakes' < *nyongo* (1st A class), *michila* 'tails' < *uchila* (11th class). The correlation between the 4th class and other noun classes in number is as follows: 1–> 4, 1A–>4, 3–>4, 11–>4.

The lexical semantics is correlated with the one-root name of the noun of the 3rd class or the corresponding nouns of other classes, i.e. 1st, 1st A and 11th classes.

Semantics of the 5th class (li-)

The grammatical semantics of the 5th class is characterized by the presence of the singular sign, and for a number of nouns – a sign of singularia tantum (for example: *lihuhunga* 'dust'). In the Bantu languages, augmentatives usually belong to this class as well as all nouns that convey some idea of greatness, of hugeness, of heaviness or nobility. In the Nonde language, this feature is not realized.

The lexical semantics is diverse. In this class fall the names of round objects, fruits and parts of plants, parts of human and animals bodies, a number of physical phenomena, etc., for example: *liyai* 'egg', *lilombe* 'corn', *liyamba* 'leaf', *likongwa* 'bark', *litumbo* 'stomach, belly', *liduwa* 'lake', *liwingu* 'cloud', etc.

Semantics of the 6th class (ma-, m-)

The 6th class, in contrast to the 2nd and 4th plural classes, has more complex grammatical semantics. In addition to the expression of the plurality of the corresponding correlates of the singular (*litumbo* 'belly' > *matumbo* 'bellies') the prefix of this class **ma-** marks the nouns pluralia tantum. Usually these are the names of liquids, for example: *maasi / machi* 'water', *mahuta* 'fat, vegetable oil', *medi* 'snow / ice', etc. At the same time, the nouns of the 6th class are not only the plural correlates of the 5th class, but also of other classes, for example: *makoti* 'neck' < *ukoti* 'neck' (14th class), *madodo* 'feet' < *ludodo* 'foot' (11th class), *madila* 'roads' < *indila* 'road' (9th class), *mawiko* 'fruits' < *mwiko* 'fruit' (3rd class). Thus, the correlation by the number of the 6th class is represented as follows: 3–>6, 5–>6, 9–>6, 11–>6, 14–>6.

A similar picture can be observed in other Bantu languages, for example in Swahili, where, according to Gromova [1], the prefix **ma**- neutralizes the category of the class in the plural.

The lexical semantics is in accordance with the meaning of the noun of the 5th class. Also, the lexical semantics expands its boundaries due to the semantics of the corresponding nouns of other classes of the singular.

Semantics of the 7th class (chi-, ch-)

In terms of content, the grammatical semantics of this class is characterized by a sign of singularity.

The lexico-semantic structure of the 7th class, which is called the 'class of things', includes the names of various subjects, for example: *chipula* 'knife', *chilongo* 'potty'. This class includes also a list of the nouns that denote body parts (*chihua* 'chest', *chala* 'hand'), some physical phenomena (*chilo* 'night'), name of animals (*chiboko* 'behemoth'), etc.

Semantics of the 8th class (vi-, vy-)

For the grammatical semantics, the sign of plurality is characteristic. The lexical semantics corresponds to those nouns of the 7th class: *vipula* 'knives', *vihua* 'chests', *viala* 'hands', *vinanda* 'beds'.

Semantics of the 9th class (in-, ny-, im-, m-, Ø)

The general grammatical attribute of the 9th class the singular category, which does not have regular matching in the plural. A number of nouns of this class can be defined as singularia tantum, for example: *mariri* 'cold', *kiu* 'thirst'.

The lexical semantics is not homogeneous and can not be reduced to separate minimal semantic ranks/groups. According to the general semantic classification of Meinhof [15], this class is defined as the 'animal class', but in addition to the names of domestic and wild animals and other fauna, this class contains the names of household items, certain diseases, names of plants, for example: *ing'ombe* 'cow', *nyongo* 'snake', *ihinga* 'calebas', *imbwe* 'cataract', *nyumba* 'house', *imbalu* 'bamboo', etc.

Semantics of the 10th class (di-)

The grammatical semantics of the 10th class – the plural for those groups of nouns that are not marked by singularia tantum. Nouns of the 10th class correlate in number with correlated single-root nouns of the 9th class, as well as with certain groups of nouns of the 6th grade: *dimbula* 'rains' < *mbula* 'rain' (9th class), *indila* 'road' > *madila* 'roads' (6th class), i.e.

The lexical semantics of the nouns of this class correlates with the correlated single-root nouns of the 9th class.

Semantics of the 11th class (lu-)

In terms of content the nouns of the 11th class are characterized by the presence of a singularity criterion, according to which this class correlates with the 10th class: *luhombe* 'nail' > *dihombe* 'nails'.

The lexical semantics of the nouns of this class is not homogeneous. The basic vocabulary contains the names of objects of thin or elongated shape, for example: *lupembe* 'horn', *luchiya* 'root', *lupaara* 'wing'.

Semantics of the 12th class (ka-)

The plan of content of this class is characterized by the presence of a sign of singularity. According to the common Bantu classification, the plural form of the 12th class is transmitted by the 13th class with the prefix **tu-**. However, the 13th class in Ndonde is absent, and the plurality is expressed in accordance with the norms of the original word.

The general semantic characteristic of the 12th class is diminutiveness, i.e. partial or complete minimization of the original noun, for example: *kayanga* 'small stone' < *liyanga* 'stone', *kabijango* 'clan' < *ibijango* 'tribe'.

Semantics of the 14th class (u-)

For the grammatical semantics of this class the sign of singularity is characteristic. The 14th class does not have the own class of plural correlate. Thus, the nouns belonging to this class receive the prefixes of other classes to form the plural number, for example: *ukoti* 'neck' > *dikoti* 'neck' (10th class), *uwimbo* 'hair' > *mawimbo* 'hair' (6th class), i.e.

The lexical semantics of this class are not homogeneous. Along with the specific nouns in the 14th class, abstract nouns are represented: *uyukuta* 'satiation', *ugoni* 'adultery', etc.

Semantics of the 15th class (ku-)

This is a class of so-called infinitives that function as verbs and verbal nouns. They do not have a plural number, and their lexical semantics is a designation of action, process, condition, for example: *kulongela* 'speak', *kuliima* 'plow'. Any verb, issued with a class marker – the prefix ku-, can, like the noun, perform nominal functions: be subject, object, the nominal part of the predicate, determine agreement with the members of the syntagma.

Semantics of the 16th (pa-), 17th (ku-) and 18th (mu-) classes

All three classes are so-called Locative classes. In this case, only the 16th class has a unique locative noun – *pahaali* 'place, location'. The semantics of the Locative classes, as in other Bantu languages, is defined as follows: the prefix marker of the 16th class **pa**- denotes the close location, the prefix of the 17th class **ku-** – the distant or uncertain location, the prefix of the 18th class **mu-** – being inside or on the surface, for example: *papii* 'here, close', *kulipa* 'there, far away', *kulehu* 'somewhere there', *muyo* 'straight'.

Results

Thus, the Ndonde language shows the typological universals of Bantu languages at the level of grammar with the inevitable features of a lexical-semantic character. The nominal classes in Ndonde are tagged by a definite set of lexico-grammatical features. Thus, the lexical semantics of each class has been described through a certain set of characteristics. A smaller set of characteristics indicates greater homogeneity of the class (for example, in the case of classes 1, 2, 1A, 16, 17, 18), and a larger set of characteristics means a higher degree of heterogeneity (in the case of other classes, for example, classes 7, 8).

In Ndonde there are additional classes, unlike Swahili, for example, class 1A (Ndonde: *atati* 'my father'), and unlike the languages of the P20 group, for example, the Mwera language (P22), there are no classes 2A (Mwera: *acatati* 'our fathers') and 13 (Mwera: *tukono* 'small hands') in Ndonde.

Conclusion

This paper has raised some issues regarding the complex of linguistic classification of the Ndonde language, socio-history of the Ndonde language community reflected in the modern status of Ndonde, the question of the death of Ndonde. It is extremely important to fix the uniqueness of its lexical and semantic structure and thereby contribute to the preservation of its general linguistic significance. The description of the grammatical semantics of the nominal classes in Ndonde was carried out from the point of view of contrasting each of them to other classes only on a numerical basis. Such aspects of grammatical semantics as personality, animality, augmentativity, diminutivity, laudativity, pejorativity, etc. are to be studied with further research of the Ndonde language.

Obtained the Ndonde language data can be used to refine the classification of the Bantu languages and writing comparative work on Bantu languages and the preparation of practical grammar of the Bantu languages, thus contributing to African and general linguistics.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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МЕТОДОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПРОЦЕССА ПОДГОТОВКИ ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЕЙ НЕЯЗЫКОВОГО ВУЗА К ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ УЧЕБНОГО ПРОЦЕССА НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

В настоящей статье рассмотрены методы обучения преподавателей вуза иностранному языку с целью их подготовки к организации полноценного обучения студентов на иностранном языке неязыковым дисциплинам их специализации. Приведены психологические и педагогические ресурсы, применение которых позволило успешно провести подготовку целого ряда учебных кафедр университета к переходу на обучение иностранных студентов на английском языке по всем учебным дисциплинам, включенных в состав образовательной программы вуза.

Описанные в статье методологические подходы являются универсальными, вследствие чего применимы для обучения преподавателей любых неязыковых специальностей с целью их подготовки к организации учебного процесса на любом иностранном языке.

В статье приведены результаты сравнения методики обучения и учебно-методических материалов, используемых на Западе с таковыми, которые применялись и применяются в странах ближнего зарубежья. Рассматриваются в статье также другие психолого-педагогические подходы и методические приемы, опробованные автором и рекомендуемые при организации учебного процесса на иностранном языке. К таковым относятся перевод на английский язык материалов учебно-методического комплекса, а также дополнительные материалы, способствующие освоению международных норм и стандартов, относящихся в организации учебного процесса на английском языке.

Ключевые слова: английский, методика**,** обучение, овладение, подход, прием.

LEARNING-CENTERED METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES, METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING ENGLISH TO NON-NATIVE UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

Research article

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Abstract

This paper discusses methods that can be used to turn non-native university teachers into skillful foreign language users thereby enabling them to conduct classes on their particular subjects to students in a foreign language.

Also discussed are some resources that had been used to successfully prepare university professors from a few dozen faculty departments to start offering a full scale higher education programme in English.

The English language teaching approaches described in this paper are applicable for other foreign languages or with professionals of any specialization area. The West-developed and former USSR invented methodologies and teaching materials are compared.

This paper also touches upon other services rendered as applicable to delivering classes in a foreign language, The services are mostly related to the translation of academic forms to English and including international norms and standards in the academic courses of studies delivered.

Keywords: approach, English, learning, method, teaching, technique.

Introduction and Case History

In 2002, the ARPI ELT and Translation Agency (hereinafter referred to as ARPI), managed by the author, entered into a 12-year agreement with the Donetsk National Medical University of Maxim Gorky. The main aim of the agreement was to train staff of the university to give lessons and render other medicine-centered education services in the English medium.

Choosing the Teaching / Learning Experience To Follow

While making a decision on a methodological approach which would fit the objective of the project to the greatest extent possible, we had to consider it by its national, or geographical, origin first. That meant making a choice between two potential options, the one used in the West against that used by former U.S.S.R. countries. To minimize a risk of failure, the decision was made by comparative assessment of the average teaching approach effectiveness reached to date in each of the two geographical and educational areas.

ESL History Background

A reason for focusing first on the teaching experience gained by the West rather than that possessed by *non-native* educators was understanding that results reached by the Western educators have proved to be much more sound than those of their *non-native* colleagues historically reached to date, as the learning outcome.

While making the choice, we took into account the fact that ESL education had first been launched by the British Empire in the 15th century. It was aimed at establishing communication in English with their *non-English speaking* colonies for functional purposes by making the English language a common tool for their communication [3]. Being no evidence of anybody's good will, but initiated by British government for exceptionally functional purposes, ESL education could in no way fail in getting the government-set goal reached.

Since that time, English has been spreading worldwide used as a second language. As a follow-up to the above language development, a new generation of ESL learners was formed by the mid-19th century as more and more Europeans were leaving for the Unites States. Flocking to the U.S.A. in millions, immigrants sought a working knowledge of the English language to survive. At that time, bilingual and *non-native* instruction of English popped up in schools across the United States.

As compared to the above, for nearly a century following the October Revolution in Russia that gave birth to the U.S.S.R., another methodology of foreign language teaching had been built and used throughout the nation. The foreign language teaching methods and methodologies, which had been developed and were still in use in former-U.S.S.R. (NIS) countries, were created in isolation from those where each particular foreign language taught in school was the mother tongue. This is probably one of the few reasons why no proper learning outcome has been achieved, on the average, in any of the NIS nations in question.

Choosing a Methodological Approach

The first step to get prepared for teaching the Medical University's teachers (*hereinafter referred to as* the learners) was choosing a methodological approach.

As stated by B. Kumaravadivelu, "knowing an L2 may be considered as having linguistic knowledge/ability and pragmatic knowledge/ability required to use the language with grammatical accuracy and communicative appropriacy", the main goal to be reached by teaching the learner English shall be looked at in terms of what (knowledge and/or skills) he/she has acquired rather than what and how well the teacher has been teaching him/her the language [4, p. 25].

In other words, the learner outcome/output is to be a main concern of those who provide the teaching, with the final result measured not only by quality and amount of knowledge of the language theory. It should also be measured by prior development of the learner's ability to communicate by understanding someone else's speech and by being understood when heard or listened to by someone else [4]. Another main concern is of psychological origin which is hard to be understood and therefore focused upon by native speakers. By that, the learner's ability to preserve and maintain the skills acquired in a *non-English* setting of his/her everyday life and living was meant. *Native-speaking* teachers of English as well as those of any other language they teach as foreign or second are very likely to pay no special attention to that problem due to their permanent stay within *English-speaking* environment. But *non-native* learners do not.

On the basis of the above, a choice was supposed to be made among the three methodological approaches to teaching English known by British and some other *native* educators rather than those developed and currently used by their *non-native* counterparts. The three approaches included: *language-centered methods*, *learner-centered methods*, and *learning-centered methods*.

Since the *language-centered methods* are those mainly concerned with linguistic forms they are looking on the language development to be provided more on an intentional than incidental basis, with learners concentrated mainly on linguistic features. As for the *learner-centered methods*, they "are those that are principally concerned with learner needs, wants, and situations" [4, p. 91]. Thus, these methods were found to be designed mostly to enable the learner to practice communicative notions/functions by participating in meaning-focused classroom activities. By this, the learners were allowed to make use of both their formal knowledge and functional skills to fill their communicative wants occurring in a non-classroom setting.

Lastly, the *learning-centered methods* of teaching/learning English were recognized to be aimed at creating opportunities for "open-ended meaningful interactions" between the learners "through problem-solving tasks in class" [4, p. 92]. These methods assume that "a preoccupation with meaning-making will ultimately lead to target language mastery" [4, p. 92]. Unlike the other two types of methods, the *learning-centered methods* are more incidental than intentional. Therefore, the latter was decided to be the approach of our choice.

Deciding on the Language of Instruction

While making a decision on whether or not the L2 learner mother tongue (hereinafter referred to as L1) should be partially used during the L2 instruction, we had to remember that there were two reasons why L2 shouldn't be used. Firstly, because this approach had historically proved its effectiveness for each of the former British colonies which were initially *non-English* speaking countries but were turned into fluent and competent L2 users. Among them, were India, Nigeria, Ghana and a number of other countries, each belonging to different mother tongues [6]. Another reason for not using L1 during L2 teaching was widespread, solid evidence of children's ability to acquire their L1, whatever the language is or whatever nation a child belongs to, without any other language used to assist their mother tongue development.

Since the role of L1 in L2 teaching/learning was still under discussion, another proof against L1 use referred to internal psychological mechanism and external emotional conditions of the leaner's communication skills development. By that, creation and further maintenance of a monolingual setting in the classroom and beyond it was meant, with comfortable learner environment maintained to facilitate his/her gradual adaptation to the target language-based atmosphere. This was to be

exercised by removing psychological barriers to learning and developing ability of indirectly understanding the meaning of new phrases via teacher's and other learners' activities that accompany those phrases.

Anyway, it should be mentioned regarding L1 that this language was planned to be used as a means to provide the teacher and other educators involved, with feedback from the learners received immediately before the class and between the classroom hours, but in no way used during the classes. This was expected to be done by interview, teacher-to-learner and reverse view exchange discussions as well as by other activities where the learner's L1 was not yet strong enough to be of help, with more discussion on the issue given below.

Deciding on the Method and Methodology of Teaching

With the decision on the methodological approach we arrived at in the *Choosing a Methodological Approach* **s**ection, our next step was to choose between both teaching methods and methodologies.

Since, as discussed earlier, that no L1 should be used during the entire process, an L2-based method had to be used. Therefore, the *Direct Method* (also called the *Natural Method*) was supposed to be applied, primarily because of its following features: (a) only target language is used; (b) meanings are communicated directly by associating speech forms with actions, objects, mime, gestures, and situations; (c) reading and writing are taught only after listening and speaking; (d) grammar is only taught inductively, i.e. without the learners being exposed to grammar rules as such. Thus, the *Direct Method* refrains from the way the learner's mother tongue was used.

Anyway, there was one thing to be taken into account regarding the language of instruction to be chosen, which means that since receiving a feedback from the learner during the whole process is crucial, it should be made in L1 before each particular class session has begun. The procedure was supposed to be limited by a brief discussion based on exchanging views with the learner(s), aiming at understanding his/her current mood and status, and answering yes/no questions at once, with "longer" problems he/she raised to be helped the learner with later. After a few minutes of such a discussion, the teacher has to get the class started by to switching to the target (L2) language.

When chosen, the *Direct Method* was to be implemented in both classroom and outside-classroom areas by using appropriate techniques and procedures. A core classroom technique had to deal with pattern practice which also includes imitation activities. Another area to be covered by the Method, which usually appear to be missed by the Western educators, should fall within intervals between the classroom hours and, or days where the target language was supposed to be used for relaxation purposes, after the home assignment had been done. The reason why this *self-learning-for-pleasure* component of L2 learning process was usually missed or at least not considered to be of importance by *native* teachers turned out to be their being unable to put themselves into the *non-native* learners' shoes. Feeling no real need to artificially maintain their language knowledge and skills outside the classes due to their permanent stay in the *native* setting, the *native* educators happen not to be consciously aware that their learners had to build and continuously maintain the target language immediate environment on their own. This is a psychological part of the process which had to be treated as a native teachers' negative side.

Filling Gaps between What Textbooks Content and Methodology

There is always discrepancy between *method* as a construct and *methodology* as a conduct, caused by *method*'s being an expert's notion derived from an understanding of the following theories: a theory of target language, as well as ones of its learning, and of its teaching. Being reflected in syllabus design and textbook production, *method* also contained recommended classroom procedures, and very rarely – *self-learning* approach giving birth to appropriate textbook-contained guidelines. As mentioned before, not those *outside-the-classroom* activities were meant by the latter, which were supposed to be limited to the textbook-based homework assignment. By the latter, an everyday self–learning activity-based programme was meant, intended for pleasure-based bringing the learner and the target language together. With this aim in mind, the language would be used in the learner's everyday life as the gateway to a cultural context within his/her area of a personal, sometimes even passionate, interest [3], [5].

A reason for getting the target language spread beyond the classroom physically and outside the teaching/learning process psychologically is to make English-language based learning a leisure part of the learner's everyday life. The activities may include reading *fiction books*, watching *videos*, listening to the *broadcast* and *TV programmes*, Internet *chatting*, and the like, held in a relaxed setting. Following this psychology-based methodological approach was thought to be nearly the only way for the learner to keep his/her English alive between the classroom hours and in the post-training future.

Exercising Progress and Efficiency Control over the Teaching/Learning Process

To find effective ways to have the learner's outcome expectancies met we first had to consider the target language as a communication tool rather than just an academic discipline, with the latter approach being typical for the USSR's (formerly) and for the NIS's (currently) systems of education. In the meantime, to achieve the goal intended by our language-training project we had to enable the learners to master first skills and just then – knowledge of a fluent and competent English-language user. To continuously be confident of that we keep going the right way, certain data of the teaching process shall be monitored on the basis of intermediate learning results, with alterations or modifications made to it in a proper time and manner. Building a closed control system would suit the idea, with its operation being monitored and automatically corrected on a three-loop negative/positive stimulus-activated feedback basis.

The feedback loops were intended to present *psychological*, *pedagogic*, and *linguistic* component parts of the teaching/learning process, with the data coming via each particular loop to be obtained from different sources. Among them were teacher-to-student pre-class discussions, the data withdrawn from appropriate questionnaire forms filled by students at least on a quarterly basis, various test work assessment, some indirect data obtained via casual and/or intended observations, and the like. The results collected had to be processed and analysed in order to be further turned into a following impulse of methodological correction applied to the system input. All the above required a team-based regularity, with not only the teacher and learners but also teacher trainer and analysts involved.

The team approach in doing the above procedures seems to be unusual for *English-speaking* educators who typically consider the teacher as both the only decision maker and teaching resource. Following that *one-man-show* way might have put us at risk of losing control over the process due to be too much dependent upon the teacher's individual features, views and

qualities, unaware of the work progress, thus being unable to make necessary altering interventions in the process. As a result, failure to arrive at a proper leaner's output might be very likely to occur.

Use of the closed control system allowed us to monitor, maintain and improve quality of the teaching process, with the feedback helping to make required adjustments to the teacher's activities, exercised on the basis of the learning outcome analysis.

Dividing Labour and Splitting Responsibilities between Non-Native and Native Teachers

Discussing and determining roles of the teacher and learner in the language teaching/learning process, we also had to define features and qualities to be possessed by the language teacher as the leading party of the process. To be more specific, pluses and minuses of both *native* and *non-native* teachers had to be identified, with further developing and offering a suggestion concerning their roles in the whole teaching/learning process. On the basis of the above, we had to guess what features and qualities we found to be most important and crucial for successfully bringing the learners to the expected output, and which of them are likely to be possessed by an average *native* and *non-native* teacher. Further on, we had to decide on who our teaching team should consist of.

Focusing on that issue, most important components of the learner's outcome shall be felt, identified and formulated.

According to B. Kumaravadivelu, there is "the carefully cultivated belief that, when it comes to teaching English as a second/foreign language, somehow, *native* speakers are far superior to *non-native* speakers, in spite of the latter's *expertise* and *experience* in learning and teaching the English language" [4]. As a follow-up to the above, he states that it was common knowledge that most candidate learners "even prefer to hire semi-qualified *native speakers* over fully qualified *non-native speakers*" [4]. Since either of the two teacher categories have both strong and weak sides we were facing a problem of choosing between the two options and to reason the one to be chosen. While giving our comments upon the above-mentioned, we had to note that those whom B. Kumaravadivelu referred to as "the fully qualified *non-native speakers*" usually turned out to be not qualified enough to be able to teach the language they are thought to be qualified in. A reason for our being doubtful about its being true is based on the rule that anybody who decided to be a language teacher shall first become the language user, but actually it does not necessarily or always happens that an average language user can be a good teacher of the language. With the above in mind, we as those who live in a non-English speaking area also had to recognize that those whom the Western educators call as fully qualified *non-native* teachers do not actually possess all the language teaching qualities to an extent expected by the *native* speakers.

On the basis of the above we could argue that those considered as "fully qualified *non-native* teachers" were not actually qualified to the full, or at least, necessary extent because of two causes. Firstly, because the textbooks *non-native* teachers studied their English with as students were written by *non-native* writers and therefore contained serious linguistic mistakes, unidiomatic word combinations and some other imperfections. Secondly, because of the *non-native* teachers' too small vocabularies due to containing only words and phrases used in the textbooks the teachers were taught as university students and are teaching with as language teachers. For the above reason, we in *ARPI* developed practice to employ and use as teachers the university immediate graduates to help them growing professionally as teachers under strict supervision and with guidance of *ARPI*'s qualified teacher trainers, gradually turning them into English-language users.

To have done the teaching in a proper manner to us should mean, as already mentioned above, the learner's absolute autonomy, in the end, from any necessity of seeking his/her teacher's and/or anybody else's assistance while working on any English-language spoken or written information. This was the ultimate goal we had to reach in order to prove that our teaching venture had been performed successfully and in both a fair and honest manner towards the learner. Having the learner's autonomy reached would not only refer to the degree of language skills and knowledge possession, but also to emotional part of the learning outcome, with the latter to be formed via pleasure-based absorbing of new information, done on a regular basis and within area of the learner's personal interest which has nothing to do with his/her professional activity.

Thus, making habitual to get relaxed by using English as gateway to new pleasure-generating and relaxation-intended information will allow the former learner to keep the language alive that, in turn, will keep him able to use his language skills and knowledge for professional purposes, when and where required. By this, special importance of the psychological, or emotional, part of the matter should be clearly felt, understood and shown.

To conclude, we had to remember that the most important things related to the learner's getting a fluent command of a foreign language being acquired are those of psychological and emotional origin, with anything else being of much lower priority, even if it goes about the language knowledge and/or skill gained. Another core outcome-relevant thing to be psychology-based is to avoid losing the skills and knowledge acquired, during the class-free time intervals, by filling part of them with the language used for pleasure and relaxation purposes.

Getting back to the issue of learner's autonomy we had to recognize that in order to enable the learner to reach that condition, combined efforts of *native* and *non-native* teachers would be used. With their fluent speech and based-on-it *native* speakers' ability to build and maintain a comfortable L2-based atmosphere, *native* speakers were decided to be perfectly suitable for the second ("round-table" group discussions) and third (speaking club pair and group discussions) stages of the learner's communication skills development. The above two stages had been designed to follow, on one-at-a-time basis, each of 4-to-5 class series of the first-stage pattern-practice classes conducted by *non-natives* in the task-based instruction manner. It was realized, that the pattern practice classes were intended for developing learner's *receptive* capacities for understanding speech meanings on the basis of the speech-accompanying actions, with development of the learner's productive (i.e. speaking) skills to follow.

Those activities were governed by *non-native* teachers whose classroom input was mainly based on the materials which were contained by the core textbooks included in each particular course of studies. With Stage 2 being a set of the "round table" discussion sessions to be led by a *native* teacher, stage 3 referred to sessions of the group- and pair-based communication development, each based on dialogues and/or interviews held with *native* teachers *as well as* with other *native* and/or *non-native* speakers used as interlocutors.

In other words, the role of the *native* speakers, not necessarily as teachers, was to be engaged in revising and further improvement of the learners' understanding and speaking skills, aiming at getting lowered and finally broken the language barriers suffered by the learner.

Our general approach to understanding and describing reasonable role of *native* and *non-native* teachers was based upon common knowledge that the *native* teachers have to continuously use their language, taught to ESL learners as foreign, because of its being their only means of communication. *Non-native* language teachers' area of the L2 language application is to a great extent limited to their use of the language for their classroom activities, with no ways of possible widening area of the language use beyond the classroom having anything to do with any natural need or life demand of theirs. Therefore, naturally, the average *non-native* language teacher is not likely to be as strong language user as his/her *native* counterpart is.

While having a much better command of the English language than that of an average *non-native* teacher, the *native* speakers nevertheless would not be involved in textbook-based activities and teaching grammar, each preferred to be responsibilities of the *non-native* teachers whose knowledge of the language grammar proves sufficient for that purpose. Still other area which falls within the *non-native* teacher's responsibility is the emotional part of the language learning, which would not be directly based on the teaching process and classroom material input. That area refers to filling time gaps between any neighbouring classroom classes by getting the learner encouraged to learn through the English language whatever information he/she likes or wishes to, in a relaxed setting.

Since that type of activity has nothing to do with any mandatory elements of the teaching-based learning process, such as the classroom activities and doing relevant home assignments, a special emotional mood should be developed with the learner to make him/her encouraged to willingly stay with English by using it as a means of access to the information of personal interest rather than being treated as a subject to study. Being both a very important and sensitive part of the whole learning process, this component is believed to be within a better reach for a *non-native* teacher who previously practiced learning things of his interest through English as a second language.

To be successful in his endeavour to develop with a new role of English in the learner's everyday life, the *non-native* teacher can ultimately manage to succeed in persuading him/her to start doing it on a regular, everyday basis, by using additional means of explanation, including the mother tongue. It would allow the teacher to persuasively share with the learner cases of his own excitement, with the learner's target language being too weak to help him fully understand the teacher's feelings and pleasure.

While considering teaching roles of *native* and *non-native* speakers we had to keep in mind that an average *native* speaker/teacher used to use the English language as the only means of oral and written communication in his/her everyday life, including their teaching practice.

In the meantime, the language teachers to whom English is a second language always have to *purposely,* or *intentionally,* create the English-language based setting around oneself or *intentionally* enter any English-based information area which exists outside his/her everyday life and living. For that reason, it was highly likely that the *non-native* teachers were mainly weaker foreign-language users than those to whom the language is the mother tongue. Therefore, the above had been taken into account while distributing pedagogic responsibilities between the two teaching parties: *natives* and *non-natives*. Since, in our case, the learner outcome mainly consists of *unconscious* acquisition and *conscious* learning of the English language, we arrived at the following scheme of the teaching labour division.

For unconscious language acquisition:

Stage 1

Teacher(s): non-native

Activities: pattern practice, with culture elements incorporated;

Stage 2

Teacher(s): native

Activities: round-table discussions and more-culture based communication-club discussions.

For conscious language learning:

Teacher(s): non-native

Activities: studying grammar structures already well-felt and understood via using patterns during the role play in Stage 1.

Summary

On the basis on the above and mentioned earlier, the following findings were arrived at about most effective division of labour between *native* and *non-native* teachers and reasonable combination of their responsibilities. Special importance of culture in the teaching/learning process was proved true.

Conclusions:

1. No single language teacher shall be a decision maker in teaching and kept responsible for the learning output. It is supposed to be exercised on a team basis, with each single teacher being a tool of putting into action of the methodic approach, method and methodological techniques to be designed monitored on a tem-basis.

2. During the teaching process, its quality shall be monitored, modified, if necessary, and maintained on a feedback-based control system.

3. The core principle of language learning is one of psychological nature and focuses on the learner's acquiring full autonomy in the target language use for professional purposes through making habitual its regular use for pleasure.

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СОВРЕМЕННЫЙ ИСПАНОЯЗЫЧНЫЙ СОЦИУМ: ПОИСК ЕДИНОГО ЯЗЫКОВОГО СТАНДАРТА
Научная статья

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Аннотация

В статье проанализировано современное состояние проблемы единого языкового стандарта на материале испанского языка, называемого «el español estándar», а также показана многоаспектность ее осмысления в парадигме актуального научного знания. В статье представлено рассмотрение языковой нормы как жизненно важной проблемы для испаноязычного ареала, претендующего сохранить свою языковую и культурную идентичность в современном глобализированном мире. Включение исторической перспективы в традиционный фокус исследования позволяет проследить становление представления о едином языковом стандарте в широком профессиональном контексте.

В статье показана специфика интерпретации в академических трудах полицентричной языковой нормы, базирующейся на едином основании – литературном языке, который конфигурирует так называемый паниспанский стандарт. Испанская языковая норма анализируется не только на материале традиционного прескриптивного академического рассмотрения, но и в рамках нового паниспанского измерения.

Ключевые слова: единый языковой стандарт, паниспанская языковая политика, полицентричная языковая норма, паниспанская лингвистическая идеология, международная разновидность испанского языка.

SPANISH-SPEAKING COMMUNITY: SEARCHING FOR STANDARD SPANISH
Research article

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Abstract

The article deals with the current issue of standard language, looking into the situation in the Spanish-speaking community where the language they share is to ensure comfortable interaction in everyday communication. A common language norm has been seen as vital for the Spanish language area if it is to preserve its linguistic and cultural identity in the globalized world. The study analyzes the history of emerging Standard Spanish concept and its recognition by the linguistic community.

The author addresses the interpretations of the Spanish pluricentric norm based on the standardized literary language that, in its turn, shapes the so-called Pan-Hispanic language norm. The Spanish language norms are explored not only from the traditional academic prescriptive point of view, but in the current Pan-Hispanic context as well.

Keywords: standard language, Pan-Hispanic Language Policy, pluricentric language norm, Pan-Hispanic language ideology, global Spanish.

Introduction

Nowadays, the growing influence of the media in the political, social and economic spheres and the emergence of the global information space give rise to language standardization tendencies in global language communities, including Spanish. The ultimate goal is to create the language continuum to ensure comfortable communication in everyday situations, to promote mutual understanding and respect, thus improving the general well-being of the language community in question.

Method

The article uses diachronic and contextual analysis and the descriptive method, which allowed the author to compile the data on the emergence of the Standard Spanish concept and the Standard Spanish interrelationship with the pluricentric language norms. In agreement with the widely accepted views, the language standard is defined as *an eclectic form of language which serves certain communicative goals, with its users feeling comfortable and unconstrained.*

Discussion

The topical issue of Standard Spanish is, first of all, reflected in terminology one can find in the scholarly publications on the subject. The synonymous terms as *«el español internacional», «el español panhispánico», «el español global», «el español neutro», «el español estándar», «el español total»* used by Spanish-speaking scholars (Clyne, 1992; Perissinotto, 2005; Moreno Fernández, 2007; Bravo García, 2008; Andión Herrero, 2008; Fajardo Aguirre, 2011; Marimón Llorca, 2015, Paffey, 2008, 2012; Narvaja de Arnoux, 2010, 2015; Zimmermann, 2014; del Valle, 2015; Rizzo, 2016, 2017) manifest their attempts to reflect on the unification of the Spanish language norms across the whole Spanish-speaking area. This will presuppose the universal use, in the media especially, of the Pan-Hispanic Language Standard [2]. Nevertheless, it is a widely recognized fact that Standard Spanish is a commercial project supported by transnational IT and media corporations. Some linguists warn that the resulting form of Spanish can not be a natural language in the proper sense of the word, the only purpose it could serve is information exchange within the international Spanish-speaking community [7]. The international form of Spanish may be for the Spanish-speaking peoples to maintain their identity, but these very peoples run the risk of isolation [7].

Results

Language standardization is a vital problem for the Spanish-speaking area, with its 20 countries where Spanish has the status of official language. The first steps to this goal were taken 20 years ago, at the First International Congress of the

Spanish Language (CILE) in 1997, where the language of the media was discussed. The Congress has become a forum to debate on language policies of Spanish-speaking countries and the role of Spanish in the world; at the same time the Congress is an authority to determine the current language policy.

The Congress convenes once in three years and it has become a global event. The Congress conventions are to enhance the role of Spanish in the world and in the Spanish-speaking community. Since 1997, the following topical issues have been discussed: "Spanish and the media", "Spanish in information society", "Language identity and globalization", "Present and future of Spanish", "Unity in variety", "America in Spanish language", "Spanish in books: from Atlantic to Pacific", "Spanish and creativity" (Zacatecas, 1997: "La lengua y los medios de comunicación"; Valladolid, 2001: "El idioma español en la sociedad de la información"; Rosario, 2004: "Identidad lingüística y globalización"; Cartagena De Indias, 2007: "Presente y futuro de la lengua española: unidad en la diversidad"; Valparaíso, 2010: "América en lengua española"; Panamá, 2013: "El español en el libro: del Atlántico al Mar del Sur"; Puerto Rico, 2016: "Lengua española y creatividad").

The leading role in implementing the Congress resolutions belongs to the Spanish and Latin American media, whose discourse potential is essential for spreading knowledge and popularizing views and ideology.

The first two conventions of the Congress (1997, Zacatecas, and 2001, Valladolid) focused on the norms of Spanish, standardization of spelling, grammar and lexis, in the media, first of all, due to their wide influence in the vast Spanish-speaking area.

Actually, it is the media that proclaimed the standardization of the Spanish language of the press, the radio and television the issue of the day, they were the first to raise the question of global Spanish (*español global/español internacional*). In 2004 they initiated the Pan-Hispanic Language Ideology and Identity project, which united two major institutions – academia, the prescriptive authority, on the one hand, and the Spanish and American media groups and news agencies, using the language as a vehicle, on the other.

The main issue in the linguistic circles debating on the norms and standardization was the definition of the norm itself; after years of debates they came to an agreement on the subject. The norm is understood as a set of language preferences in a particular language community that is accepted as standard usage. Geographically, Spanish is one of the most widely spread languages, thus it is pluricentric in the sense that it has regional norms which are all based on the literary language (*la expresión culta formal*), the standard form (*el español estándar*), used in formal situations and in education institutions. This standard form of Spanish influences the Pan-Hispanic Language Standard which contributes to mutual understanding and unity within the global Spanish-speaking community (Andión Herrero, 2008, Clyne, 1992, Perissinotto, 2005, Moreno Fernández, 2007, Fajardo Aguirre, 2011).

In 1999 a new version of Spanish language orthography, *Ortografía de la lengua Española*, received the approval form the Spanish language Academies of all the Spanish-speaking countries, after they had studied the book in detail and presented their reviews. Thus, the book became the first pan-Hispanic work. It contains the unified spelling rules, gives recommendations as to the spelling of geographical names and loanwords, some cases of word stress were also disambiguated.

The latest 2010 edition of *Ortografía de la lengua Española* became an updated and more comprehensive version of the previous work, with the principles more substantiated than in the 1999 edition. As pan-Hispanic in its underlying philosophy as the previous work, the 2010 Orthography differs from it in its prescriptive tendency, giving more rigid rules for the cases where some variation was allowed before. The main differences of the 2010 work from the 1999 edition: firstly, it gives a comprehensive view of Spanish language orthography, not only its controversial aspects; secondly, the spelling rules are substantiated, not merely prescribed; thirdly, the history of Spanish orthography in the book explains the distinctive features of the spelling system and their evolution; fourthly, some new information has been added on the words written separately or joined together and the spelling of loanwords and foreign proper names.

It is remarkable that 1999 saw the publication of another scholarly work, the Descriptive Grammar of the Spanish Language (*Gramática descriptiva de la lengua española*) that became the most detailed treatise on the syntax and morphology of Spanish, with all the regional and dialect variations included. The work contains a comprehensive list of references on all subjects considered. The book is a collective work of 73 authors from Spain and Latin America, with V. Demonte and I. Bosque, from the Royal Spanish Academy, editing it. They were inspired by the scholarly works on Italian, English and Dutch grammar, thus addressing the lack of a similar comprehensive description of the Spanish language.

The goal of the authors of the 1999 Descriptive Grammar was to give answers to questions about particular language phenomena, such as why certain types of verbs take certain complements or why the meaning of an adjective depends on its position in a sentence. Thus, the 1999 Descriptive Grammar was the first to demonstrate the true-to-life usage of Spanish and its elements and structural models functioning in various communication situations.

The 2004 Congress in Rosario adopted a document on a new pan-Hispanic language policy ("*La Nueva política lingüística panhispánica*"). The document proclaimed the main goal to be not opposition to the dominating English language, but searching for unity within the Spanish-speaking community, taking into account its diversity and the lack of guiding principles for norm selection in the media.

The convention in Rosario initiated the process of building pan-Hispanic linguistic identity when, in an attempt to overcome the language variants regional linking, they proposed the idea of a form of Spanish free from its cultural and national constraints. Alberto Gómez Font, Style Editor at the Agencia EFE (Madrid), coauthor and editor of the *style guide* of The National Association of Hispanic Journalists, a professor of language and a renowned linguist, made a proposal for unification of the language norms taking into account the diversity of non-standard usage. The idea took off, and another pan-Hispanic-oriented work, the Pan-Hispanic Dictionary of Doubts (*Diccionario panhispánico de dudas*), was published in 2005. The dictionary was to be the basis for a unified Spanish language style guide (*Libro del estilo*). Not only the academia and the media welcomed the dictionary, it had been long awaited by educators, business people and government officials as well.

Diccionario panhispánico de dudas (DPD) includes over 7000 entries, giving clear answers to the most controversial questions about the Spanish usage, such as phonetics and orthography (pronunciation, stress, punctuation and spelling), morphology (the gender and number problems, conjugation forms, etc.), syntax (government and agreement problems, etc.) and semantics (lexical meaning, loanwords and loan translations, neologisms, spelling of proper names).

The dictionary promotes the idea of the leading role of native speakers of Spanish in determining the criteria for the correct usage of the language; thus, the language norm is the result of consensus (RAE и ASALE 2005: XI).

The DPD was followed by a number of pan-Hispanic works (*obras panhispánicas*) published by the Royal Spanish Academy (*Real Academia Española*, RAE) and the Association of Spanish Language Academies (*Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española,* ASALE): the Dictionary of Americanisms (*Diccionario de americanismos*, 2010), the New Grammar of the Spanish Language (*Nueva gramática de la lengua española*, 2009-2011), the new version of the previously published Orthography (*Ortografía del español actual, 2010*) and the 23d edition of the Dictionary of the Royal Spanish Academy (DRAE, 2014). Nevertheless, in spite of the widely accepted idea of standardization and unification underlying these works, the proclaimed pan-Hispanic philosophy does not seem uniformly reflected in all of them.

The New Grammar of the Spanish Language is based on a more lenient understanding of the language norm than it used to be in the earlier works. The academic authors of the New Grammar recognized the difficulty of fine-balancing the descriptive and prescriptive approaches and full-heartedly preferred the former. Thus the aim was *a description* of grammatical models shared by all the Spanish language variants (*el español general*), as well as an *exhaustive recording* of the phonetic/phonological, morphological and syntactic variants within the regional language norms, even if they deviated from the variants largely preferred by the other regional Spanish-speaking communities. In the course of the work the diatopic and diastratic aspects, as well as the usage correlation with various communicative situations were taken into account.

Another goal of the authors of the New Grammar was *recording the colloquial variants* beyond the regional language norms within the Spanish-speaking area, if such colloquialisms were used in writing and were valuable as features of language structure. This approach is to allow any language user to answer the question of what usage is within the norm and what is not. The concept of the language norm as such is not totally rejected, but the system of the Spanish language is presented as a set of different norms where the actual usage correlates with the geographical area and a particular communicative situation.

It would be difficult if not absolutely impossible to find a more detailed vision of language norm. The New Grammar description of language phenomena is based on a detailed taxonomy of both criteria and language variants, taking into account dialect usage, the levels of the language hierarchy, the register, a communicative situation, the general language, and written and spoken language differences, thus documenting the current Spanish usage as a whole. The telling name given to the New Grammar in the media is the *total Spanish Grammar* (la gramática *del español total*).

The preface to the New Grammar proclaims adapting the academic work to the understanding of the general public to be the best way to make the book popular (RAE и ASALE 2010a: XLVI). The 2013 version of the New Grammar, Good Use of the Spanish Language (*El buen uso del español*), is adapted to be used by non-linguists, giving clear answers in short and simple form, with numerous examples. In an article informing of the publication (*La Real Academia se echa a la calle*), the Spanish paper «El País» highlighted the democratic tendency of the current language standardization approach.

All the above-mentioned sources of linguistic data are available online and free. The two decades since the 1997 Congress have also seen numerous other works on Spanish language, such as 10 language corpora and 8 regional Spanish dictionaries.

Conclusion

The current situation in the global Spanish-speaking community, where Spanish mentality area does not align with the country borders, has the political, geographical and cognitive aspects that have emerged historically and, thus, are the objective reality. All the local Spanish-speaking communities realize there are two opposite tendencies – on the one hand, there is opposition to levelling out language differences, on the other, there is movement to join the efforts to preserve the unity within the domain of the Spanish language and culture. The latter corresponds to the economic and geopolitical interests of the states that fully realize that language influence is the matter of prestige and economic benefits. In the sphere of education Spanish is popular as a foreign language; academically, Spanish, with its vast resources, has a great potential as vehicle of communication in the sphere of scientific and scholarly research. Being socially prestigious, Spanish is extending its reach into cultural domains of other languages.

At the moment the idea of Standard Spanish, with its linguistic, social and political aspects, is being discussed in various academic circles, such as *Congreso Internacional de la Lengua Española (CILE)* and *Coloquio Internacional* (*Ideologías Lingüísticas en la prensa escrita*), as well as in scholarly publications exploring current problems of the Spanish-speaking area, such as pan-Hispanic language policy (*la política lingüística panhispánica*), pan-Hispanic language ideology (*la ideología lingüística panhispánica*), glottopolitics (*la glotopolítica*) and linguistic identity (*las identidades lingüísticas*).

<table>
<tr><td>**Конфликт интересов**</td><td>**Conflict of Interest**</td></tr>
<tr><td>Не указан.</td><td>None declared.</td></tr>
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APPLIED LINGUISTICS (UDC 81`33)

СТРАТЕГИЯ ЭМОЦИОНАЛИЗАЦИИ КАК СРЕДСТВО МАНИПУЛЯТИВНОГО ВОЗДЕЙСТВИЯ В ДИСКУРСЕ БРИТАНСКИХ СМИ
Научная статья

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Аннотация

Статья посвящена вопросам эмоционально-оценочного воздействия, при этом особое внимание уделяется исследованию стратегии эмоционализации, используемой журналистами для освещения событий в дискурсе СМИ, а также изучению ее риторического потенциала. Автор статьи рассматривает стратегию эмоционализации как намеренное использование эмоционально-оценочных средств и риторических приемов с целью манипуляции мнением аудитории, а также приводит конкретные случаи и способы ее реализации в дискурсе британских "качественных" СМИ. Исходя из предлагаемого анализа языковых данных, было доказано, что стратегия эмоционализации является одним их наиболее распространенных способов манипулятивного воздействия автора дискурса СМИ на адресата. Статья способствует пониманию дискурсивных механизмов современных СМИ, воздействующих на восприятие обществом освещаемых событий.

Ключевые слова и фразы: дискурс СМИ, риторика, манипуляция, стратегия, эмоции.

EMOTIONALISATION STRATEGY AS A MEANS OF MANIPULATION IN THE BRITISH MASS MEDIA DISCOURSE
Research article

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the issues of emotional and attitudinal impact. Particular attention has been paid to the study of the emotionalization strategy used by journalists to cover events in mass media discourse and to the study of its rhetorical potential. The author of the article identifies the strategy of emotionalization as the intentional use of emotional and attitudinal means and rhetorical devices with the aim of manipulating the audience's opinion. The particular cases and ways of its implementation in the British "quality press" discourse are presented. As evidenced by the suggested analysis of linguistic data, it is proved that the strategy of emotionalization is one of the most common ways of exerting manipulation by the author of media discourse on the addressee. The article promotes deeper understanding of modern mass media discursive mechanisms that shape and impact public opinion about the covered events.

Keywords: mass media discourse, rhetoric, manipulation, strategy, emotions.

Introduction

Emotions have always been part of public discourse, being one of the main factors in regulating social behavior and polarizing social groups as well as shaping decision-making. On the one hand, emotions separate the social and political sphere from personal relationships and distance reason-based theories from personal opinions, whereas, on the other hand, they make our communication more lively and appealing to the audience.

Recently, due to the development of information technologies and Internet communication, the means of emotional expressiveness have become a focus of interest of many scientists. Thus, the study of their rhetorical potential in the modern mass media discourse is especially interesting since mass media play a crucial role in shaping the audience's perception of social, political and cultural events and problems.

Considering emotions from a rhetorical point of view, it is essential to turn to the views of Aristotle, who argued that "orators try to alter the people's thoughts and beliefs in such a way that they will be prone to a particular kind of emotion" [1, P. 43]. According to his theory, "the persuasion of a public audience does not only depend on arguments, but also on the emotional state the audience happens to be in" [1, P. 47]. In other words, by imposing certain emotions on the audience, the author influences the latter and makes it take the point of view that is advantageous for him.

As the famous French psychologist and sociologist, G. Lebon, claims, "crowds cannot be guided through rules <...>, but it is necessary to look for something that can impress them <...> " [2, P. 5]. Another prominent scientist, T.A. van Dijk, argues that "facts are better described and remembered if they contain strong emotions" [3, P. 5]. N.S. Dankova points out that "the media product is currently becoming not only the subject of factual and formal information, but also the subject of the information experienced by the recipients emotionally and causing a sense of involvement"[4]. It is obvious that emotionally marked language can have a strong impact on the recipient. Therefore, emotional argumentation plays a key role in the process of modern communication and, especially, in terms of mass communication.

One of the important features of modern mass media is a variety of ways and means of influencing the addressee, which can be carried out in several ways: . influencing through the information itself, argumentation and the use of emotional tools [5, P. 126]. In general, the impact in modern media is carried out both with the use of traditional (logical and emotional) and modern (information) methods of influence. Recently, studies have shown that a more reliable and quick method of changing the public opinion is to change the emotional meaning and attitude to a particular problem. A logical way of influencing either does not always work or works not for everyone, since a person tends to avoid the information that can prove to him that his behavior is erroneous [6]. As a result, a tendency to use the strategy of emotionalization, by which we mean **the intentional use of emotional and attitudinal means and rhetorical devices with the aim of manipulating the audience's opinion**, is increasingly noticeable in the modern mass media. Thus, the study has posed the following research question: how does the strategy of emotionalization function and is linguistically marked and identified in the modern mass media discourse?

Method

The methodology of this study is based on a discourse analysis of the text. This methodological approach is, from our point of view, the key to understanding the social processes associated with mass perception of social problems covered in the media. The reliability of the scientific results is supported by the convincing analysis of the collected linguistic material taken from the recent British "quality" newspapers dated 2016-2018. The method of continuous sampling was used to collect the material.

Discussion

Some cases of using the strategy of emotionalization in which the author influences the audience through the ***emotionally marked vocabulary*** should be considered:

(1) *The thing which Putin and the cronies around him fear as much as legal sanctions is the glare of a public spotlight exposing what they're really up to. <...> We already do it for suspected terrorists who are subject to financial sanctions, and for banned terrorist organisations too, so why should some of the nastiest human-rights-abusing criminals on the planet be any different?* [7].

(2) *The task will be a supremely challenging one, for Trump is as bullishly self-confident as he is ignorant. He will not be easily deflected or denied. And the crass, know-nothing nationalism that lay at the heart of Friday's speech is a powerful force. Like America's new leader, it appeals to the darker side of human nature, bolstering the insidious claims of jealousy, envy, greed and hubris. It thrives on fear, chauvinism, discrimination and not always subliminal notions of ethnic, racial and moral superiority. It is a product of our times* [8].

In the example № 1 the author emotionally manipulates the public opinion through the use of expressive vocabulary in order to show his negative attitude towards the Russian oligarchs whom he disrespectfully calls the "friends" of the Russian President, V.V. Putin. Avoiding the direct expression of the author's views suggests the inclusive use of the pronoun "we": the author hides his own opinion under the collective pronoun "we", thus identifying himself with his readers. In the example № 2, the author's attitude to the American President, D. Trump, his speeches and politics is also transmitted indirectly through the emotionally marked vocabulary with negative meaning. In both cases, it is the emotional argumentation that is the main instrument of manipulative influence on the audience.

The use of testimonials (references to the credible opinion leaders: either of well-known personalities or professionals in a certain field) is also one of the most common methods of emotional influence in the British mass media discourse, with the main emphasis being put on assessing the fact and degree of its emotional influence on the audience. It is necessary to note that testimonials can be used for the purpose of creating both a positive and negative image or opinion:

(3) *ROMAN Abramovich became one of Russia's richest men with the help of Vladimir Putin who he gifted a £25m yacht while being described as the leader's "favourite son". <...>* [9].

(4) *The MI5 chief will accuse the Kremlin of "flagrant breaches of international rules" and warn that Mr Putin is pursuing an agenda through "aggressive and pernicious actions by its military and intelligence services"* [10].

In the example № 3 the author gives his opinion about the oligarch R. Abramovich, ironically calling him the "favourite son" of the Russian president. When mentioning the names of reputable people, especially the world-famous celebrities, together with other personalities, there is the so-called "halo effect", which is that the authority of a person and the attitude towards him or her are automatically projected onto all the people around him [11, P. 124]. In this case, the attitude towards the businessman R. Abramovich is given exclusively through the prism of his relationship with V.V. Putin and the reader has to accept the author's opinion about this person. In the example № 4, the opinion of the director of the British special service MI5, Andrew Parker, on the actions of the Russian military structures and special services is quoted. It is a kind of emotional manipulation when the author actually presents the opinion of another person, hiding his opinion under the reference to the credible person.

Another way to strengthen the emotional argument in the British mass media discourse is the use of statistics. The use of large numbers in the articles on politics is presented not as factual information, but as a hidden estimate:

(5) *On the plus side, 62 per cent consider Trump a 'strong person' and 58 per cent call him 'intelligent.'* [12]

(6) *In an extraordinary turnaround, May's rating is now at -20% (with 31% approving her leadership and 51% disapproving)* [13].

Under the statistical data, the author veils his true aim - influence on the addressee. In the examples № 5 and 6, very detailed statistical data are given to enhance the emotional effect of the information presented, its clarity and reliability, and also to show his point of view - support (№ 5) or disapproval (№ 6) of a particular politician.

To enhance the emotionality of the arguments presented, the authors tend to use the rhetorical device of self-presentation [11, P. 138]:

(7) *I doubt that Donald Trump cares one oddly quiffed iota for the opinions of the British travel industry* [14].

(8) *...personally, I think he [Donald Trump] is a rank opportunist whose rhetoric is at best tub-thumping hot air, at worst, dangerous and inflammatory guff....* [Ibid].

Such self-presentation markers as the personal pronoun "I" together with the verbs, denoting propositional attitude and opinion ("think", "doubt"), and the viewpoint adverb "personally" are used in the examples № 7 and 8 for the direct expression of

the authors' opinions, references to their experience, reputation or professionalism and for the enhancement of their image in the eyes of the readers. In these cases, the authors do not act as journalists who transmit information in the media, but as individuals having their own viewpoint on the covered issues, which undoubtedly increases the emotionality of the authors' arguments as well as the degree of their influence on the reader. In this regard, it is submitted that the higher the emotionality of the provided arguments is, the higher the authors' credibility is and, consequently, the more effective the communication is [15, P. 155].

Results

As suggested from the analyzed material, it can be inferred that the strategy of emotionalization is used in the British mass media discourse to create both a positive and negative image (either opinion or attitude) of some person (or event) in order to manipulate the readers' thinking and opinion. The spectrum of linguistic means of presenting this strategy is quite wide. Emotions can be represented in various ways: from quotations and references to the authoritative opinion, statistical data, direct expression of the author's personal opinion to emotionally marked words including common nouns, personal pronouns, viewpoint adverbs, propositional predicates, adjectives with emotive meaning and numerals. It is also important to emphasize that in order to manipulate the reader, the author not only does seek the identification with the readers' opinion, but also tends to improve his own reputation by creating an image of an emotional person who expresses his feelings openly, which, in turn, undoubtedly inspires confidence in the audience and raises the authority of both the author himself and the information he provides.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is necessary to mark that the strategy of emotionalization is one of the most common and important tools of the author's manipulative influence on the reader in the British mass media discourse.

The study of the strategy of emotionalization is of interest not only for the scientists in the field of linguistics and rhetoric, but also for those who are interested in the issues of psychology, sociology and other fields of humanitarian knowledge. This research contribute to understanding of the mechanisms and tools of manipulative influence, namely, the nature of the communicative relationship between the author and the addressee, especially in such cases when the author manipulates the reader's feelings, arouses and imposes a certain emotional state on the readers. Thus, he directs the process of communication in the direction which is advantageous for him and forces the reader to play the passive role of the "victim of manipulation": to accept the author's position and agree with him. If we have the awareness of emotional manipulation, it is possible to detect the explicit and implicit ways of manipulating our thoughts and feelings as well as to understand the ways of influencing the psychology and behavior of the mass addressee and national consciousness as a whole.

<table>
<tr><td>**Конфликт интересов**</td><td>**Conflict of Interest**</td></tr>
<tr><td>Не указан.</td><td>None declared.</td></tr>
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СОВРЕМЕННЫЕ ПОДХОДЫ К ОБУЧЕНИЮ АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ ВЗРОСЛЫХ
Научная статья

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Военная академия войсковой противовоздушной обороны Вооружённых Сил Российской Федерации имени маршала Советского Союза А.М. Василевского, Смоленск, Россия

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Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются основные подходы к обучению иностранным языкам взрослой категории обучающихся. Даётся характеристика каждого подхода, определяются его достоинства и недостатки. Особое внимание уделяется обучению иностранному языку в неязыковых высших учебных заведениях. Автор приходит к выводу, что только путём применения комбинации различных подходов и сочетания разнообразных методов, возможно развить у обучающихся необходимые языковые компетенции.

Ключевые слова: иностранный язык, подходы к обучению языкам, обучение взрослых.

MORDEN APPROACHES TO TEACHING ADULTS THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
Research article

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Abstract

The article deals with the main modern approaches to teaching adults foreign languages. Each approach is characterized, its advantages and disadvantages are stated. Special attention is paid to teaching foreign languages at non-linguistic high schools. The author comes to the conclusion that only combining various approaches and using different methods of teaching it is possible to develop students' linguistic competence and their communicative abilities.

Keywords: foreign language, approaches to teaching languages, teaching of adults.

Introduction

In modern society, the role of language education is constantly growing. A foreign language is considered as an instrument that allows a person not only to familiarize easily in the modern world but also to fulfill his professional duties better. Besides, it gives him an opportunity to enlarge his professional and cultural outlook while studying various sources of information. Knowledge of one or more foreign languages has become a topical problem for many people. And under such conditions the search for effective methods of teaching foreign languages to adults who are aimed at solving concrete professional tasks has become really vital.

Method

Methodology of researching different approaches and techniques of teaching English is based on theoretical analyses of scientific literature, generalization of data, pedagogical observation and practical foreign language teaching.

Discussion

Foreign language as a school subject holds one of the leading positions within school education. The number of class hours intended for studying languages grows steadily. School teachers offer their students to attend additional lessons where they teach them to communicate in different foreign languages.

However, in the frames of high school learning there is another system of teaching foreign languages as a subject and as a profession. This article deals with teaching adults who has already had some educational and job-oriented experience. Despite all existing ways of getting a language education the question of organization of teaching adults still stays problematic as it has not been developed sufficiently.

First of all, much attention must be paid to the aiming of students in learning a foreign language before planning lessons. The objectives may vary greatly, everything from working and studying abroad or taking parts in international conferences to business correspondence and tourism. To make learning of foreign languages by adults more interesting and successful it is rather useful to divide them into two groups: those who learn languages in order to read and write in them and those whose aim is to communicate a foreign language fluently. The main missions of the first group will be to extract information from the text and to represent the information in a written form according to specified parameters. As for the second group of learners, their main missions will be to understand the speech and to develop communication.

The leading speech activities of the first group will be reading and writing and the second group will deal mainly with listening and speaking. But it doesn't mean that those who study in the first group will not be taught how to speak a foreign language and the students of the second group will not be taught how to write in a foreign language correctly. Such approach allows choosing such methods of working with each group which will help to reach the ultimate goal successfully and in a very short period of time.

It should be noticed that the process of teaching a foreign language must be organized on the basis of the main pedagogical principles taking into account the psychological peculiarities of adult learners. Under psychological peculiarities, the following features are meant:

- different fears (e.g. *"I am not good at languages", "I won't be a success in learning English", "I am afraid to be the worst in the group", "My memory is poor and I will never memorize much information"*, etc.);
- overestimated self-rating (e.g. *"I'm the superstar", "I am the best in my group", "My knowledge of English is perfect"*, etc.);
- inclinations to self-administration;
- very high rate of independence in actions and taking decisions;
- purposeful behavior;
- the ability to work in group.

Therefore, the teaching of adults must be based on such pedagogical principles as personalization, teamwork, the priority of self-education, practical orientation of classes, and the use of the previous experience. One of the most important aspects in teaching adults is the position of a teacher who must be not only a consultant but also a partner, an assistant.

As usual at the very first lesson the teacher tells the students about the system of teaching and training at the lessons and also about the technology of independent work at home. There are a lot of adults who are sure that it is possible to learn a foreign language only attending lessons. They are certainly mistaken. And the mission of a teacher is to reveal the importance of independent work. He or she must persuade such students in the necessity of independent work if they want to reach their objectives.

Many adults have been out of learning practice for a long time as they have grown up. So they have to recollect and learn again all the educational techniques. In the classroom it is the teacher who organizes and directs the process of learning, but at home students will have to plan and realize their own actions themselves in order to do the tasks correctly.

You should also pay attention to such contradiction as the existence of external motivation for studying foreign languages determined by professional requirements and very often low level of internal motivation connected with negative experience of school education and the absence of real wish to study. Besides, when grown-ups become aware of the fact that the process of studying foreign languages require much time, patience and efforts, they begin thinking that they will never be able to cope with this task. And the mission of a teacher is to make them understand the importance of small steps towards the success in learning, to create the so-called motivation of "small success" on the way to great goals.

Nowadays there exist several approaches in teaching foreign languages the main of which are the following ones:
1) linguistic and country study;
2) linguistic and cultural;
3) ethnographic;
4) social and cultural;
5) intercultural.

The approach based on linguistic and country study was the first attempt of the integrated learning of foreign languages in Russian school of teaching technique. The founders of this approach, E. Vereshchagin and V. Kostomarov, developed and proved the necessity of simultaneous studying of national culture of the people and their language.

The study of a language with the aim of finding out its national and cultural peculiarities has become the subject of this approach. In the context of this approach the main source of information is the lexical structure of a word. Therefore, the main attention is paid to the study of the equivalent lexical notions, basic vocabulary, terminology and phraseological units.

The detailed analysis of the possibility of using such approach at high schools where foreign languages are not considered as a future specialty proves that there are no research works devoted to the use of this approach in the process of teaching students at non-linguistic educational institutions. It is mainly connected with the fact that the course of studying foreign languages at such high schools is professionally determined and it is impossible to use a lot of material of linguistics and country study at the lessons. Besides, there are few lessons of foreign languages at these high schools and it will not allow solving those tasks even if they are set up. This makes it possible to admit that the described approach is most often used for teaching future linguists and language teachers.

Another approach, linguistic and cultural, appeared with the development of such a science as lingo-culturology. The supporters of it are V. Vorobyov, V. Krasnykh, V. Maslova, Yu. Stepanov, V. Teliya, etc. According to V. Maslova [4], the subject of lingo-culturology is the language units which acquire symbolic, figurative meaning in culture, i.e. non-equivalent vocabulary, phraseological units, symbols, speech patterns, language behavior, etc.

It should be noticed that in the theory and practice of language teaching there are research works of young researchers where the main attention is paid to linguistic and cultural approach in the process of teaching foreign languages both at secondary schools (N. Mishatina) and at linguistic high schools (M. Suvorova, T. Pavlishak). As for non-linguistic high schools, there are practically no works describing the use of such approach in the process of language teaching there. It is considered rather problematic and difficult as it requires deep knowledge of a foreign language for making research of the national culture. It is not considered the end in itself while learning languages at non-linguistic high schools.

The founders of ethnographic approach (M. Byram, V. Esarte-Sames, Ch. Kramsh, G. Zarate) expressed the idea that language and cultural teaching must not only lead to the acquisition of some background knowledge but also develop students' ability to adjust to new speech situations. According to M. Byram, in the process of teaching a foreign language special attention must be paid to "the preparing students for something unexpected instead of training them in that material which is quite predictable" [11, P. 8].

Within this approach, the main point is the ability to understand behavior of other people and to cooperate with representatives of other cultures who possess a different set of values. Independent research (together with a teacher, perhaps) and the interpretation of a "strange" culture allow students to analyze their own culture, evaluate it, and understand it from the point of view of a casual observer.

Speaking about social and cultural approach to teaching languages developed in Russia in the early 1990ies by Professor V. Safonova, it should be pointed out that the priority is given to "teaching in the context of cultural dialogue" [7]. It means that the process of teaching implies the creation of such conditions of studying native and foreign cultures simultaneously which provides for development of communicative skills. According to V. Safonova, "the teaching technique must focus on training students as the participants of a cultural dialogue" [7, P. 166].

The basis of the intercultural approach is the idea of the necessity to prepare those who study foreign languages for an effective conduct of intercultural communication. There are a lot of research works of Russian and foreign scientists which describe the ideas of intercultural teaching at secondary and high schools both linguistic and non-linguistic (M. Evdokimova, G. Maslikova, I. Pluzhnik, N. Solovyova, O. Syromyasov, I. Tretyakova, V. Furmanova, I. Khaleyeva; G. Heinrici, J. House, H.J. Krumm, E. Kwakernaak, E. Oksaar, D. Roesler, F. Schmoee, etc.).

Results

The analysis of scientific literature has proved that it is the intercultural approach that suits the language teaching at non-linguistic high schools most of all. It is determined by the fact that the course of studies at high schools is professionally oriented. Therefore, as I. Pluzhnik stated in her research work, "the missions of the language teaching must be mainly determined by the intercultural competence of students during their professional training in the situations of intercultural business cooperation. Speaking about business culture it is necessary to take into account intercultural differences, common characteristics of various cultures to choose the style, strategies and tactics of communication in cross-cultural business situations" [5] and to prepare future professionals for it.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it must be mentioned that in practice it is necessary to combine various approaches and to use those methods of teaching which are the most effective in a particular situation. Besides, teachers who work with adults, should take into consideration that the effectiveness of this or that technique within a certain approach of teaching depends on its conformity with a stated problem, teachers' skills to regulate time for the use of this approach and the quality of organization of the preliminary training which demands careful study of questions for discussion, development of students' skills and their communicative abilities.

Конфликт интересов	**Conflict of Interest**
Не указан.	None declared.

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PSYCHOLINGUISTICS. PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE (UDC 81`23)

ПСИХОЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЙ АНАЛИЗ СОДЕРЖАНИЯ ЦЕННОСТЕЙ В ЯЗЫКОВОМ СОЗНАНИИ
Научная статья

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Аннотация
Изучение и анализ содержания ценностей в языковом сознании при помощи лингвистических и психолингвистических методов интересны с точки зрения применения для исследовательских процедур приемов и методов, заимствованных из философии и социологии. Речь идет о триангуляционном подходе, или интегративной эклектике, дающей возможность многомерного и многоаспектного анализа явления, особенно так называемых динамических систем. Речевая активность индивида безусловно носит динамический характер, поэтому при анализе речевых объективаций при помощи означенного метода гарантирована возможность объективного исследования феноменов. Такой подход позволяет преодолеть определенную предвзятость и право утверждать как истину только собственные предпочтения. В настоящей статье анализируется взаимосвязь языка и сознания, но делается акцент на том, что сознание есть инструмент не только отражения бытия и способ регулирования человеческих действий и отношений, но также и механизм оценивания предметов и явлений действительности. Языковое сознание, таким образом, является сознанием ценностно-ориентированным. Многообразие и многоаспектность содержания образов ценностей раскрываются при помощи ряда взаимодополняющих экспериментальных психолингвистических методов. Представления о ценностях описываются и сопоставляются на официальном общественном, промежуточном и обыденном общественном уровнях языкового сознания.

Ключевые слова: ценность, языковое сознание, триангуляционный подход, уровни общественного сознания.

THE PSYCHOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENT OF VALUES IN LINGUISTIC CONSCIOUSNESS
Research article

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Abstract
Studying and analyzing the content of values in linguistic consciousness with the help of linguistic and psycholinguistic methods are interesting in terms of applying investigation techniques borrowed from Philosophy and Sociology. That is about the so-called triangulation approach or integrative eclecticism that gives an opportunity to analyze the phenomenon from different angles with a special concern about dynamic systems. The speech activity of a person is dynamic that is why while analyzing speech objectivations by means of the method mentioned above a researcher is guaranteed an opportunity to explore a phenomenon with an unbiased eye. This approach allows to overcome a certain prejudice and the right to claim only the researcher's points of view and preferences to be true. In the article the interconnection between language and consciousness is analyzed but the accent is made on the fact that consciousness is an instrument to not only reflect reality and regulate human actions and relationships, but that is also a tool to evaluate and judge real objects and phenomena. Linguistic consciousness is a value-oriented consciousness. The variability of the content of the images of values is revealed by means of complementary psycholinguistc methods. The conceptions about values are described and compared at official public, intermediate and ordinary levels of linguistic consciousness.

Keywords: value, linguistic consciousness, triangulation method, levels of public consciousness.

Introduction

The present research article aims at revealing the content of human values through the insight into the images, character and the reflection of values existing in linguistic consciousness. The so-called multi-faceted or eclectic technology of describing values was applied in the course of the research. The content of the value reflection is seen as all kind of knowledge associated with a thing or phenomenon that a person gets in the process of perceiving things and phenomena, the knowledge itself is kept in human consciousness.

Revealing and analyzing the content of the image and reflection of values in consciousness are usually done at 3 levels of linguistic consciousness: official, intermediate and ordinary. The data received is treated and handled according to age and gender groups of the respondents. To complete this very multi-faceted research a range of experiments are carried out (a checked association experiment; a component analysis; a non-checked association experiment; a psychosemantic experiment; a pictographic experiment).

Pic. 1 – Pictogram

Method

As it was mentioned at the beginning of the article values existing in human consciousness are examined and studied by means of different experiments. So the so-called triangulation method (well-known in Philosophy and Sociology) serves as a methodological framework for this kind of research, sometimes it may also be called an eclectic approach to analyzing phenomena. The essence of the method is to study and examine this of that phenomenon bearing in mind various aspects of its existence.

In this case it is vital to take into account that any kind of phenomenon can take different forms. Studying all these forms of existence contributes to the objectivity and credibility of the research. The process of forming word images in consciousness is dynamic. Such processes are vital to describe by means of different research methods applying various types of data. All kinds of data are supposed to be accurate and add to understanding phenomena entirely.
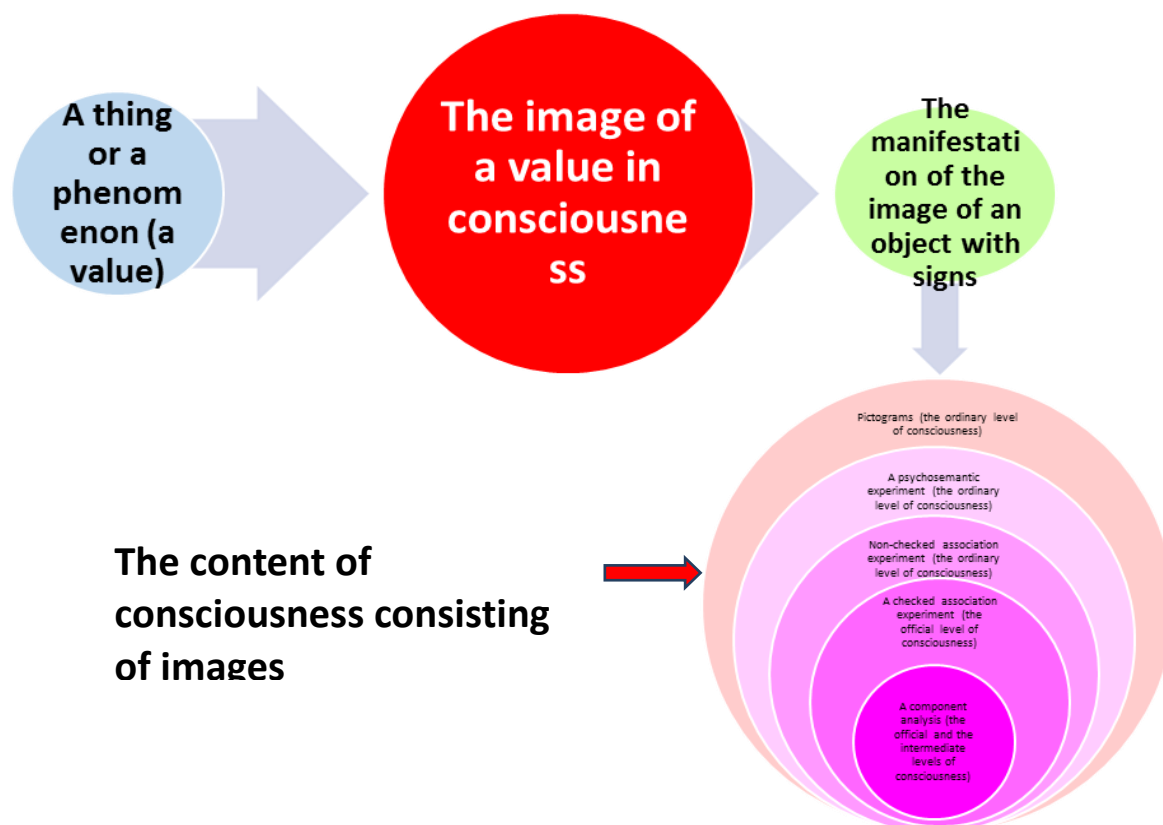
The task of the research like this is to construct the sense of a word by means of several sign objectivations, as this very triangulation method provides a researcher with an opportunity to examine values with the help of different sign objectivations (dictionary definitions, associations, semantic field, symbolic pictures, tree diagram).

Discussion

The theoretical ground of the present research work is a theory where human consciousness is regarded as the world reflection. Human consciousness or in other words the world reflection is linked to the category of linguistic consciousness. The world reflection fixed in human consciousness is considered as a projection of the objective world where the images and characters of the real world are, established and consolidated in a form of something material as well as linguistic. So, any language functions as a form of objectivation of human consciousness. The world reflection in its turn can be shown as a system of meanings. The system of meanings is seen by a person as a system of landmarks in life when a person cognizes the world. While acting in the world a person perceives some knowledge that is converted into personal experience and expertise of a person, the latter exist in human consciousness.

Thus, linguistic consciousness is in charge of not only forming, keeping and processing word meanings, but it also determines a person's attitude to life. Linguistic consciousness guides and directs a person's activity, specifies and shapes a person's attitude to life. Judging from the above-mentioned it is concluded that human consciousness evaluates life and different objects and that is why linguistic consciousness is full of the value component.

Theoretically the present research finds its ground in the works on psychology (The Theory of Activity) by A.N. Leontiev; in the idea of the components of consciousness images by V.P. Zinchenko who wrote about the fact that linguistic consciousness is the world reflection itself; psycholinguistic theory of the word as a means of having access to a person's information basis (A.A. Zalevskaya). Moreover, the concept of the structure of consciousness images or reflection (F.E. Vasyljuk) and the conception of linguistic consciousness as the world reflection carried out through language (E.F. Tarasov).

Pic. 2 – The structure and the content of the image of consciousness

Results

The present research seems to be quite acute as the very issue of values is of paramount importance nowadays.

In the focus of the present research there is linguistic consciousness, the access to which becomes possible via applying a range of experiments to reveal the content of the reflection and images of linguistic consciousness. Linguistic consciousness is understood as an intermediate world reflection, in other words, the real world is mirrored in a person's consciousness and that is manifested in the world with the help of both lexical and other types of indications (or signs), e.g. pictographics (pictures).

All in all, linguistic consciousness is analyzed in the research together with all the forms and types that represent the value under consideration in linguistic consciousness.

In the course of the research the following types of scientific material are examined: definitions and dictionary articles from general scientific and lexicographic sources, from fiction and publicistic works; from the materials contained in the National Body of Russian language together with the materials gained in experiments. The whole volume of the scientific material is seen as a certain database.

In psychological terms human consciousness is a kind of generalized reflection of the whole world around people, consciousness in this case is viewed as a multi-level system based on the activity of a person involved in building up the world images reflected by consciousness.
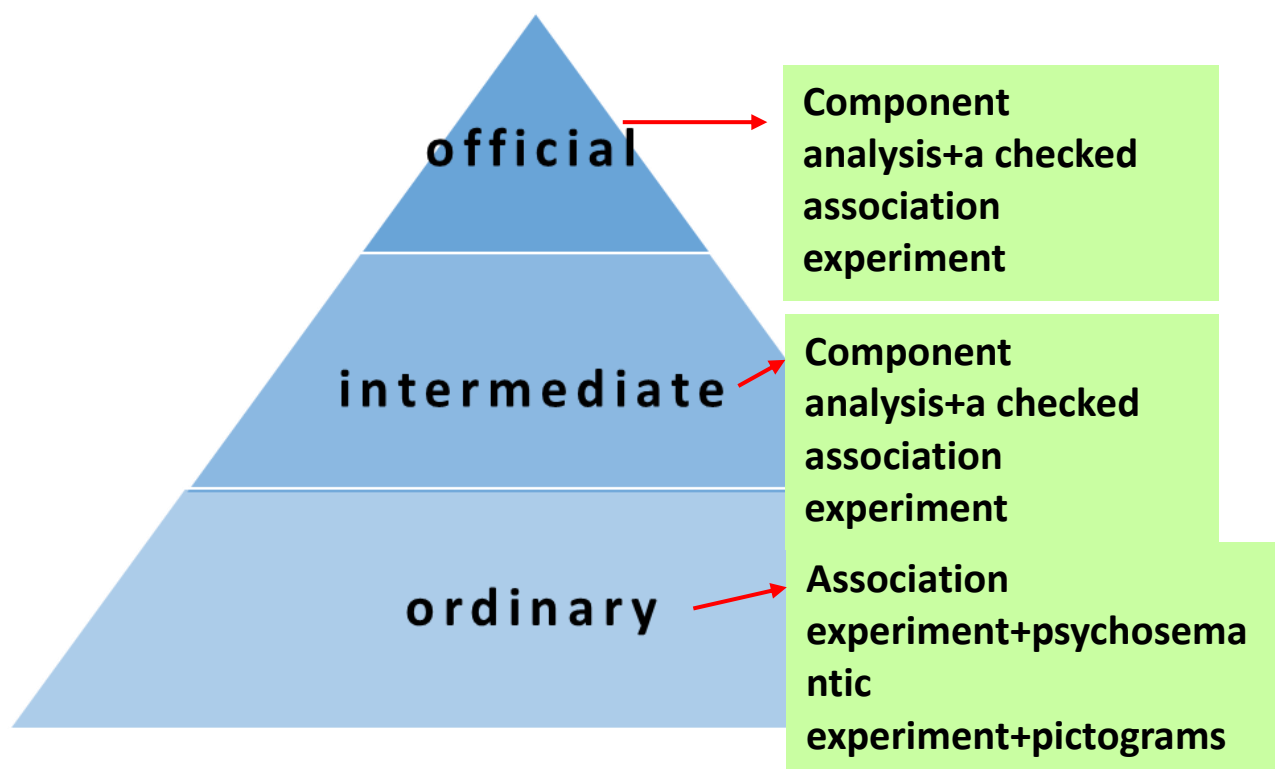
While describing the word meaning it is implied that psycholinguistics defines the meaning as a process (or a range of various processes). When these processes are combined we can assume that a certain correspondence does exist among the verbal form, the general socially accepted meaning of the word and the emotional impression of the word that is always ranked as a value.

Psycholinguists are first of all interested in those forms of the word meanings that are stocked in a person's individual consciousness. In the consciousness the meanings are presented in a form of both correlation and opposition of words in the process of their usage and application in communication and activity. Various differential characteristics of the meaning correlate with different ways of cooperation between words in the process of speech activity. The semantic components of the word meaning are understood only in communication, where it is possible to reveal the whole variety of the word usage and application.

A.A. Leontiev described this very system as a system of associative connections of a word. The process of the sense forming in human consciousness is dynamic and is closely linked to the context usage. Thus, the meaning can be described as a construction including the lexical meaning, the meaning associated with this or that object or phenomenon and the context meaning that can be revealed only under certain conditions and in a certain situation.

One of the main tasks of psycholinguistics is to find the depth of the correlation between mental structures and the motives of speech activity through verbal and non-verbal associations, emotional manifestation. In this case it is vital to underline that different sign objectivations of images and characters are the basic units for analyzing the content of linguistic consciousness images. The sign objectivations can take a form of lexical and other signs, e.g. pictograms (pictures). A value that is expressed with a word has its place in a person's consciousness and takes a form of a word or any other sign (a pictogram).

In the end it is possible to reveal the content of the images of values in linguistic consciousness. As a result of the combination of the data gained both in linguistic and psycholinguistic analysis it is possible to discover and interpret similarities and differences in the content of this or that image (or reflection) at official, intermediate and ordinary levels of linguistic consciousness.
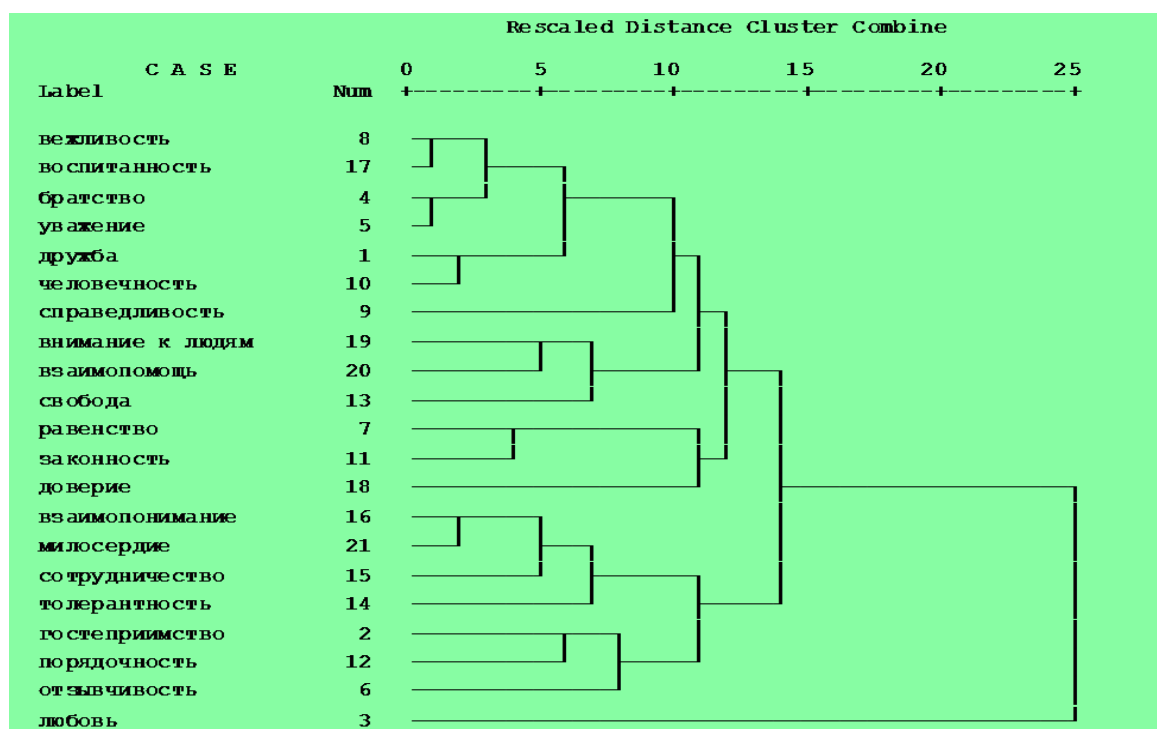
Pic. 3 – Levels of public consciousness

The official level of public consciousness manifests itself in encyclopedic texts. The intermediate level of public consciousness is represented with the examples from definition dictionaries as well as with the examples from the National Body of Russian language. The ordinary level of public consciousness is shown with the results of the association experiment, psychosemantic experiment and pictographic experiment.

Only in the process of speech production and perception it is possible to get access to the content of linguistic and non-linguistic consciousness at the level of the general (ordinary) public consciousness aiming at clearing up the ways of how ordinary speakers understand in speech such multi-faceted semantic structures as values.

While analyzing the results of the association experiment the data gained from the respondents of different age embodies the information on the dynamics of the age-related and gender-related development of consciousness images.

In the course of the psychosemantic experiment the main task is to build up the so-called semantic space (or a mental map) of a value. This mental map has a form of a tree diagram that is also age- and gender-related.

Pic. 4 – Tree diagram for a psychosemantic experiment

It should be mentioned once again that the content of consciousness images have their manifestation not only in word signs, but in pictograms as well. Picture signs (or pictograms) according to F.E. Vasiljuk theory provide the access to non-linguistic consciousness pointing at a close link between real objects and the images of them existing in consciousness.

Conclusion

In conclusion it is important to underline the unique character of this kind of research as a multi-faceted description of the content of the images of values via psycholinguistic and linguistic methods is not wide-spread. With the help of such a method the content of the images of values is revealed and represented at three levels of public consciousness – official; intermediate and ordinary. The results of this kind of research greatly contribute to the theory of forming the images of values and provide an opportunity to fully understand the structure and the content of the images of values in linguistic consciousness.

Конфликт интересов	**Conflict of Interest**
Не указан.	None declared.

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