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ОБУЧЕНИЕ ИНОСТРАННОМУ ЯЗЫКУ С ПОМОЩЬЮ МОБИЛЬНЫХ УСТРОЙСТВ: ВСЕ В НАШИХ РУКАХ

Обучение посредством мобильных технологий расширяет возможности преподавания и обучения иностранным языкам. Прикладные технологии, различные программы, Интернет позволяют многим студентам открыть доступ к квалифицированному обучению. Происходит сдвиг в парадигме образовательного процесса, когда мобильные технологии приходят на замену традиционным способам и формам обучения. Автор исследует теоретические основы мобильного обучения и делает попытку предсказать будущее мобильных технологий и их влияние на работодателей, учителей и обучающихся.

Ключевые слова: обучение иностранным языкам посредством компьютера, мобильное обучение.

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MOBILE LANGUAGE LEARNING: THE WORLD IN OUR HANDS

Mobile learning has extended opportunities for making teaching and learning available beyond the traditional classroom. Associated technologies, software programs, and Internet access have enfranchised many students who previously had little access to quality teaching. However, a paradigm shift has occurred in *which learners are turning to new mobile learning opportunities to supplant traditional teaching as virtual extensions of earlier self-help books, phrase books, and audio-based language learning programs. Audio translation apps, augmented reality, and just-in-time learning approaches are providing alternatives to those with neither access nor time to learn a language. This paper examines the theoretical underpinnings of a range of technologies and applications, contrasting them with the traditional classroom and imagining the future of mobile language teaching and learning and the impact it will have on policymakers, teachers, employers, and learners.*

Key words: computer-assisted language learning, mobile

Focus of this Paper

In more than one hundred countries around the world, the number of cell phones exceeds the countries' populations. Russia, for example, has 1.8 times more active cell phone accounts than people [52]. These cell phones, as well as other mobile devices, such as laptops, tablet computers, and game players, offer unprecedented language-learning opportunities.

Many teachers and administrators cling to the assumption that mobile learning is a supplement to classroom learning and, quite naturally, try to integrate mobile learning, social media, and new learning platforms into the classroom experience rather than recognizing these technologies, in some cases, as viable alternatives.

In a paradigm shift, mobile learning has become – and will continue to become – a process unrelated to classroom learning. This paradigm shift is in part because of new attitudes among language learners, particularly digital natives – those who have grown up with mobile learning technologies and interact with them almost instinctually [53].

Such digital natives favor the use of just-in-time language tools such as software-based augmented-reality applications that spontaneously translate signs into other languages (see http://questvisual.com/us/). Learners' reliance on traditional language instruction and methods is changing and the issue has become whether mobile technology will progress to the point where learners question the actual need to learn a language.

This paper reviews current mobile language learning and language support programs, and it positions their ideas in terms of their associated methodologies. The paper also speculates on future directions in mobile language learning using nascent wearable interface technologies.

Brief Literature Review

Research on mobile learning is extensive, although examples from more than a few years ago quickly become dated because of the ever-increasing affordances of mobile technology. An affordance is what a thing can be used for beyond its intended use. For example, a chair is intended for sitting, but can be used to stand on when changing a light bulb.

Mobile phone affordances that can be used to enhance language learning typically include video and still cameras, sound recording technology, global positioning system (GPS), and Internet access. Teachers and materials designers, as well as learners, have become adept at discovering language teaching and learning uses for mobile hardware and software technologies.

Cho and Reinders (2010) explain that interest in mobile learning among teachers and material designers is based,

> … partly in response to learner expectations: already in 2003 a study (Thornton & Houser, 2003) found that young Japanese learners preferred to use their cellphone for almost everything, from emailing to reading books and this trend has continued, also outside Japan. A recent study in Taiwan showed that language learners enjoyed learning with their mobile phones, largely because they could learn when and where they wanted but also, interestingly, because they felt that the 'bite-sized chunks'

> of learning content (due to limitations such as screen size) were actually helpful to them in managing their learning (Chen, Hsieh, & Kinshuk, 2008) (n.p.).

Although there have been countless attempts to integrate mobile technologies into the classroom context, the *mobile* aspect of *mobile learning* suggests the need to explore opportunities for learning that might take place outside of the classroom. Cho and Reinders (2010) go on to explain that mobile phones provide opportunities for situated learning and facilitate communication and collaboration.

The theory of situated learning [42] suggests that learning which takes place in a particular language context is more effective than studying similar content in the classroom. The ability of a mobile device to store or wirelessly access a variety of media (e.g., text, images, sound, and video) makes it both a resource and a pedagogical tool outside of the classroom for situated learning. For example, language learners standing on a city street hoping to locate a good restaurant could download a map and engage in scaffolded language learning as they negotiate directions with a native speaker of the target language. Alternatively, the learners could download a short lesson on asking for directions as well as restaurant-related vocabulary.

In reviewing the literature of mobile learning, a typology emerges of common studies in the area in which the prevalence of certain types of studies wane over time. For example, early studies tended to ask the question of whether mobile technologies might be appropriate for language learning. Despite the fact that mobile learning seems entrenched in pedagogical practice, these kinds of speculative articles persist [7]. Perhaps this speculation continues because the researchers are themselves new to the field or are addressing an audience for whom mobile learning is still both a novelty and a mystery.

Other introductory articles to mobile learning provide a broad overview of what is being done [27; 29; 30; 31; 39; 40]. These kinds of articles try to define the geography of mobile learning across a variety of technologies and approaches. Sometimes they offer original research but, more often, they summarize examples of existing applications of mobile technology use in traditional learning contexts and describe opportunities to use mobile technology in new contexts.

Related to these broad types of articles are those that go further to explore paradigm shifts, examining what mobile technologies are doing to fundamentally change the ways in which teaching and learning take place. For example, Bo-Kristensen, Ankerstjerne, Neutzsky-Wulff, and Schelde (2009) discuss a project called *Mobile City* and introduce the idea of,

> … geotagging, wherein one puts tags in *Google Earth* or *Google Maps*. With geotagging, one can mark or put visual representation on areas and landmarks in a given geographic area. These are the areas of the informal learning environment with which language learning would like to connect. Tags can contain everything from text over photos and film, to tasks. Language students can make their own tags and routes, or they can retrieve information, knowledge and tasks through the tags that the teacher or others have made." (p. 86)

This type of project builds on ideas of situated learning by engaging learners as materials developers. And, while the focus is on content development, it is easy to see how a teacher or materials designer could follow up by adding a pedagogical layer of activities. For example, a teacher might create a unit on directions and types of businesses based on students' geotagging of the names of places in the community. Such a unit could contain activities that run through Bloom's revised taxonomy: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating [5]. Or students might create tasks, as defined by Ellis (2003). Such tasks have the following four features: they focus on pragmatic meaning; they offer a learning gap between what a learner knows and needs/wants to know; they give the opportunity for the learner to choose the necessary linguistic resources necessary to complete the task; and they provide the opportunity to obtain a clearly defined outcome.

Other areas of research tend to focus on specific issues within mobile learning. These frequently include a focus on specific languages and skills, particularly the needs of groups of learners, initiatives at institutions, and country/region concerns. Examples are outlined below.

Investigations of mobile learning have been undertaken worldwide, assessing its potential in teaching a range of languages, such as Chinese [1; 22], English as a foreign language [37], French [21], and Korean [16]. Some of these studies tend to foreground mobile technology's ability to easily portray non-English writing systems and connect vocabulary to text, images, and video. For studies on the teaching of vocabulary [43; 46; 56; 57.

Many studies offer a specific region or country focus. Chun and Tsui (2010) are perhaps too ambitious in considering mobile learning across Asia as a whole, but other studies focus on individual countries such as Bangladesh [55] and Qatar [63]. In looking at mobile phones as an example of a tool with the potential of being a mobile learning technology, in Qatar, there are 1,393 phones per 1,000 people (i.e., more mobile phones than people) compared to 228 mobile phones per 1,000 people in Bangladesh.

The disparity in distribution is as obvious as the disparity in wealth, but the significance of the availability of mobile phones and other mobile technologies is important in even the poorest of countries. The United Nations Development Project reports that in Bangladesh, in 2012, the average number of years of education for adults was 4.8. In a country such as Bangladesh, where the educational infrastructure is in need of development, the fact that one in four people has access to mobile learning technologies has the potential to grant broad access to educational opportunities, albeit limited ones.

Besides granting access to those on the less advantaged side of the digital divide, research on mobile learning technologies has looked for opportunities for instruction among all levels of learners, from higher education [3], to fifth graders [54] and younger [49]. Research into the use of mobile technologies by young students is sometimes focused on mobile learning tools that address unusual problems. Cuthbert (2013) outlines the use of Wi-Fi networks that allow internet access on rural school buses in Alberta, Canada, on which students must travel for up to three hours a day going to and from school. The Wi-Fi allows students to use their time to communicate with teachers and complete homework. The disabling of social media websites such as *Facebook* removes some distractions. An unexpected outcome of the program has been a decrease in behavioral problems.

Other groups of students, such as mature learners [38], migrant learners [58], and low-literacy adults [47] all benefit from being able to use mobile learning technologies. With handheld devices the can to fit their studies around their work schedules, avoid the time and expense of a commute to a physical school, and lower the sense of public embarrassment sometimes felt by adults catching up on their learning. Some researchers have similarly looked at addressing the needs of individuals who feel lost in large classes [36; 62].

In researching mobile learning technology, researchers sometimes create applications and, less often, technology, to address learner needs. A popular genre of these helpful applications is language games [4; 26; 32; 61]. Games are an attractive medium for language learning that suits the affordances offered by mobile phones and other mobile devices. It is also the case that existing templates for games are easily modified to accommodate language-learning objectives and content; blasting aliens can be adapted to blasting grammar errors.

Some research focuses on mobile learning technology hardware, such as tablet computers [6] or combinations of different media devices, such as mobile phones and interactive television [25]. But, as mobile technology stabilizes and begins to feature similar affordances across a series of platforms (e.g., an Apple iPad has many of the same affordances of a mobile phone), research has increasingly turned to the use of various applications such as blogging (sharing information and opinions in text and pictures) and podcasting (sharing audio or video information and opinions) [23; 34].

Among the more popular sharing applications on mobile phones is Short Message Service (SMS), more commonly known as texting [13; 19; 35; 45]. Commercial applications such as the blogging service Facebook or the 140-character version of SMS, Twitter, are popular tools for engaging students in language learning.

The receptive skills of listening and reading are a more natural fit to the small screens and headphones of many mobile learning devices, particularly mobile phones, but there are also opportunities for students to practice their speaking and writing. Barton and Lee (2012) discuss commentary in *Flickr* (a photo-sharing website) and note that many reading and writing practices are being transformed by people's participation in online activities that, in turn, impact the dynamics of their everyday lives.

Key Issues

There are many issues in the area of mobile language learning technology, several of which overlap the concerns of learners, teachers, policymakers, and employers.

Key issues for learners

Imagine this situation: a teacher laboriously writes a detailed homework assignment on the board, she asks her students to copy it down. The students sit there idly until she is finished then, one by one, as they leave the class, they take out their mobile phones and snap a photo of the text on the board.

Should the teacher be angry or shrug in resignation? It is a difficult question to answer. If the purpose is to get students to practice their copying and writing skills, then taking the photos is a subversion of the objective. But if the purpose is simply for the teacher to share information, then the students have found an economical solution.

Learners tend to see technology as an enabling force in the classroom, allowing them to gather information, study, work, and communicate with both their teachers and their peers effectively. Learners embrace what Peters (2007) suggests about mobile learning: a step toward making the educational process "just in time, just enough and just for me" [50, p. 80].

Beyond taking photos of text on a board, students increasingly use mobile technologies to make audio or video recordings of lectures without necessarily considering the teachers' permission to do so. Students are also increasingly likely to ask that teachers share their PowerPoint presentations and offer virtual office hours; times when they can videoconference through tools such as Skype. Students may check out their teachers' Facebook pages, follow them on Twitter, and see how their teachers are rated on an anonymous service (see www.ratemyteachers.com).

Learners also face a range of academic issues, such as plagiarism, but can turn to online plagiarism checkers (see www.grammarly.com) to ensure that their papers are not in violation. In fact, many institutions (e.g., Higher Colleges of Technology in the United Arab Emirates) have shifted responsibility to students to do so before submitting work.

Key issues for teachers

Teachers need mobile learning technologies and applications as tools for teaching language effectively and efficiently. Their concerns begin with such tools' abilities to help teach the structural aspects of language: phonology (the sound system of the language); semantics (the meaning of words and sentences);

grammar (the rules connecting words and phrases); and pragmatics (the patterns and choices in social language use).

Teachers are also concerned about the methodologies inherent in mobile language learning technologies. The currently popular approach to L2 learning is the Communicative Approach [48], which emphasizes interaction as a way to learn a target language as well as the ultimate goal. The Communicative Approach encourages learners to interact with others to communicate and negotiate language tasks. Thornbury (2010) suggests the Communicative Approach requires purposefulness, reciprocity, negotiation, synchronicity, unpredictability, and heterogeneity.

In terms of purposefulness, in which speakers are motivated by a communicative goal, mobile language learning applications can facilitate real-world tasks as well as reciprocity or interaction, that requires both parties to listen and speak. In the course of speaking, negotiation (in which speakers check and repair their utterances to ensure comprehension) is natural. Synchronicity is simply the requirement that interactions happen in real time. Many mobile applications, however, are asynchronous, such as blogs, podcasts, and texting tools, and many standalone programs are not time-sensitive; learners are not prompted to answer within a certain time, so the urgency of traditional classroom and real-world interactions is not a motivation.

Less common in mobile learning applications is unpredictability - the process, outcome, and language are all unpredictable. Similarly, computer-based technologies have difficulty in providing opportunities for heterogeneity, giving the participants the freedom to use any language or language-learning strategy they wish.

However, although mobile language-learning applications could be created to make use of the Communicative Approach, most are more likely to use older (and sometimes discredited) methodologies such as the Grammar Translation method and the Audio-lingual method. Many applications are focused on mastery-learning approaches, wherein students complete one question successfully before being promoted to the next level. Students often enjoy the immediate feedback of these approaches and behaviorist rewards in the form of points, but whether they are effective in helping learners systematically acquire language is questionable.

An alternative is for teachers to create credible theory-based mobile language-learning programs. But, as Ala-Mutka (2010) points out, doing so can be an unreasonable demand on teacher time and abilities:

> Teachers are key players in making change happen in the classroom, as innovators and developers of new teaching practices. They can also enable learners to develop their key competences. At the same time, they are in a difficult position, as they should now create new teaching practices with new tools that are different from those they are used to in their work and knew in their own studies (p. 50).

Key issues for policymakers

Policymakers are concerned with three key issues. Do new mobile technologies and their associated software programs achieve educational goals and objectives? Do they do so in an efficient and effective manner? Are they affordable? It is beyond the scope of this paper to fully address this important issue. Instead, the following will simply share some concerns in hopes of promoting further discussion.

Whether or not mobile technologies and their associated software programs achieve educational goals and objectives can be difficult to measure. Traditionally, resources such as teacher expertise and textbooks have been heavily vetted by professional boards and policymakers, but in computer-assisted language learning in general [9] and many mobile learning applications in particular, there is little oversight as decisions on what to use are often made at the teacher level.

In considering whether new mobile learning technologies are efficient and effective, Gagnon (2010) is dismissive: "It might be safe to say that each time a new medium appears, no matter how different it is from the last, the normal reaction of first adopters is to use it as a new package for existing content" (n.p.). He gives the example of lectures appearing in different formats without useful enhancements. However, enhancements are both possible and desirable, for example, creating an audio lecture in MP4 format in which a transcript is synced with the speaker's voice so students can read scrolling text as they listen. What Gagnon may be ignoring, though, is accessibility; a face-to-face lecture may not be enhanced in a YouTube video, but it is accessible to students who may have missed a class, as well as to those who did attend but wish to review it.

The question of whether mobile technologies are affordable is complex. Alexander (2004) reflects,

> The physical vs. the digital, the sedentary vs. the nomadic—the wireless, mobile, student-owned learning impulse cuts across our institutional sectors, silos, and expertise-propagation structures. How do we respond to such across-the-grain learning? Is this a budding venue for curricular transformation, wedding student interest to institutional practice? (n.p.)

In other words, mobile devices are becoming increasingly common as they are already available to students, institutions, and businesses so the opportunities to learn with them are currently in place.

Students increasingly come to class with their own mobile devices, including laptops, tablets, and mobile phones. But expecting students to own the tools of learning can lead to inequality in the form of a digital divide between those who can afford the best hardware and applications and those who cannot. Moreover, learners' choice of hardware can affect their access to platform-dependent software. For example, different applications are continually being developed for Android, Windows and Apple operating systems and parallel versions may not be available across the various operating systems.

Ala-Mutka (2010) addresses several policy questions with the suggestion to foreground learner-centeredness and lifelong learning. She states that, “there should be a shift from certifying education to validating learning outcomes, which would help to identify, pursue and demonstrate competences and skills for different purposes” (n.p.). This view is a shift in thinking from a policymaker saying “You must be able to do this!” and instead asking, “What can you do?”

Key issues for employers

The language needs of employers are as diverse as employers themselves. Generally, employers with strong language requirements hire employees who already meet those requirements. However, employers often must consider the need to maintain or upgrade employee skills. Mobile language learning technologies may fill this need.

It is unlikely any employer would undertake the training of employees from a complete beginner level and expect them to master a language to the level that they would be expected to conduct high-stakes negotiations with a second party. But employers may use mobile language learning technologies to update employees’ abilities when, for example, new language demands arise. For example, a company besieged with complaints about a new product might want to give rapid language lessons to front-line employees to better allow them to deal with such complaints.

Pedagogical implementation

In terms of pedagogical implementation of mobile learning technology, Chandler (1984) offers a typology for software, most of which is applicable to mobile learning today. Even though Chandler’s typology has been in existence for almost three decades, it is not well known among applied linguists and language teachers. In the typology, software is modeled on hospitals, funfairs, drama, laboratories, resource centers and workshops. The order of the models is significant; it represents a locus of control from the program (or teacher) to the student working independently.

- The hospital model sees the user as a patient. Typical of these sorts of programs are self-selected or prescribed grammar drills and other tutorials meant to address language shortcomings.
- The funfair model sees the user as an emulator, playing games in which the objective may not always be apparent to the user, particularly younger learners. Typical of these sorts of programs are timed matching games, choosing letters to complete words or identifying words that go with particular images (see www.kidsacademy.mobi/playground/123tracing/).
- The drama model sees the user as a role-player, often exploring a landscape in which the target language is encountered in signs and conversations. Drama model software often takes the form of a quest, during which points are accumulated for successful interactions. Second Life and other programs allow you to create an avatar who resembles you (or who or what you would like to look like) (see www.secondlife.com/whatis/avatar/)
- A laboratory model sees the user as a tester, experimenting with variables to see their outcomes. Such a program might ask the language learner to select different adjectives, such as colors (in the target language) that change the appearance of something on screen. A more sophisticated program would show the consequences of wrong language choices. For example, Bunton (2010) wrote a book of common language errors in which the wrong word or phrase is illustrated with humorous pictures: a woman who should be riding in a car is alarmed to find herself riding on top of it.

Penguin publishing has developed a story-based application in which one creates a story by filling in blanks tied to parts of speech (see www.madlibs.com)

- The resource center model in which the user is a researcher, did not account for the advent of the Internet, but it is an obvious resource center.
- The workshop model sees the user as an inventor. Although Chandler associated this model with programming languages, a closer match for mobile technology would be texting, blogging, and podcasting.

How a teacher should implement the above options in a classroom is a large question. But teachers who feel they do not have the time or expertise to make the best use of the available mobile learning resources can instead step back and perform the role of facilitator, allowing students to introduce new technologies and applications.

Teacher Development

Teacher reluctance to embrace new technologies is understandable, particularly as Alexander (2004) says, “Instructors increasingly feel that they are competing with the computer-mediated world” (n.p.). The Internet’s multimedia format (e.g., text, commentary, audio, video, animations), multiple resources (i.e., countless answers for any question), and interactivity (e.g., through social media) can make a lecture seem as flat as a page in a book.

Such teachers, who put themselves on what has been called the ‘bleeding edge’ of adopting new technologies, frequently do so at their own expense. They then tend to evangelize new technologies applications and approaches among their peers but are not necessarily compensated for the value they add to a school or an organization. In time, they can become disillusioned as investing time in learning new hardware and software is a path of diminishing returns, as each technology iteration is quickly supplanted by something faster and more powerful, or simply something more powerful.

Given the growing interest in mobile technology, language teacher education programs should consider adding familiarization with such tools to their curricula for teacher trainees. Instead of expecting teachers to master new technologies, schools and organizations should aim to raise awareness of their potential. Students of almost every age, particularly digital natives, are likely to be more knowledgeable about the identification and operation of useful mobile learning technologies and applications. In a student-empowered approach, teachers identify the broad goals, narrower objectives and assessment needs of a language-learning situation but then invite students to consider ways in which they can use the mobile learning technology of their choice to contribute to the class and demonstrate their learning.

Issues of Concern

Many would agree with Park (2011), who says, "The most serious issue faced by mobile learning is the lack of a solid theoretical framework which can guide effective instructional design and evaluate the quality of programs that rely significantly on mobile technologies" (p. 83). Without a theoretical framework, measures of effectiveness are often left to vague anecdotal studies where validity and reliability are scarce and learning outcomes are ambiguous and not clearly assessed.

In terms of a definitive study that would assert the utility of mobile language learning, one would expect to see a learner either go from no knowledge of a language to a low beginner level or from any other level to a higher level, using only mobile language learning, with language input tightly-controlled. But this is perhaps the wrong research question, framing learning in traditional terms. Considering mobile language learning, Ala-Mutka (2010) acknowledges,

> …(the) scope of learning through these means may be limited. Although examples show that many types of

> learning result from informal activities in social environments, not necessarily all-important skills and competences can be covered through them. (p. 40)

What Ala-Mutka (2010) and others feel, is that mobile language learning should support and supplement traditional classroom instruction rather than seek to replace it.

Another general concern is the folly of trying to focus on aspects of mobile language learning that are constantly changing. With the pace of change in both hardware and software, studies are inevitably dated and it is never certain whether conclusions of one study apply to the next iteration of a particular piece of hardware or software or a new teaching or learning methodology.

In Khan Academy's flipped classroom approach, students are expected to do their principal learning not in the classroom, but as homework. They then get additional individualized explanations in the classroom. Many school districts have begun to adopt the program in lieu of traditional textbooks (see www.khanacademy.org/coach-res/case-studies). Although this may work well with some subjects, learning a language in this way may be less effective. Even in terms of mathematics, Talbert (2012) says, that Khan Academy "… is not a coherent curriculum of study that engages students at all the cognitive levels at which they need to be engaged" (n.p.).

There is also the issue of a fluid curriculum that might not systematically cover what students need or, conversely, cater to individual student needs. Merchant (2012), speaking of the Khan Academy, tells the story of two algebra teachers criticizing one of the Academy's training videos, which was quickly replaced. Criticism is welcomed in an adaptive platform as improvements can usually be quickly and inexpensively enacted. Although this flexibility is in stark contrast to the year or more it takes for a traditional publisher to issue a revised version, an ever-changing resource undermines the traditional vetting of textbooks undertaken by school officials. This is compounded by the tendency to what Horn (2013) explains is crowdsourcing by Khan Academy and other online educational providers, inviting individuals–both teachers and learners–to supplement the online lessons with additional lessons and video explanations. The fact that these can be included with no regard to the authors' agenda or pedagogical or content expertise, leaves open the possibility that materials may be inappropriate and of poor quality.

Future Directions

Interactive mobile technology is widely predicted to become ubiquitous, particularly in what is being called *the Internet of things*. Chui, Löffler, and Roberts (2010) explain the Internet of things as follows:

> …sensors and actuators embedded in physical objects—from roadways to pacemakers—are linked through wired and wireless networks, often using the same Internet Protocol (IP) that connects the internet. These networks churn out huge volumes of data that flow to computers for analysis. When objects can both sense the environment and communicate, they become tools for understanding complexity and responding to it swiftly (n.p.).

In terms of language learning, the Internet of things presents opportunities to embed language learning into frequently visited places and everyday objects. In many cases, instead of providing language-learning training, mobile technology may simply provide language solutions. For example, Brady (2012) writes about how the Internet of things could be used in a specific language-learning context,

> What if a student wanted to learn a foreign language through touching the physical objects that are in their vocabulary list? RFID tags can be created and attached by the instructor for each of the physical items in the vocab list. When the student places this object on the RFID reader, it will say the word for the item in their native

language and in the foreign language. Touching the item will give the student another sense to be engaged and may help (depending on their learning style) them learn the content faster.

In a more general sense, the internet of things is likely to eventually be present not as a language-learning opportunities, but through the provision of translation services, such as in the following scenario: You are visiting a city where you do not speak the language. You go to the train station to purchase a ticket. Your mobile phone proactively uses GPS to identify your position and anticipate your needs (buying a ticket). It then asks you where you want to go (perhaps showing the active rail routes) and provides information on the next trains and prices. Once you make a choice, you might be able to book your ticket on your mobile phone and obtain a map of directions to the platform. If not, your mobile phone might either provide you with the target language necessary to buy the ticket in person or you could turn your mobile phone over to the ticket clerk who can listen to your request and provide your tickets. Additional clarifications can be handled through the mobile phone. If the ticket clerk asks whether you want a first class seat or an economy seat, the mobile phone would again use GPS data to define the location and, along with a translation of what the clerk said, provide you with photos of the two seating options. The net effect of the Internet of things may be to reduce the necessity of learning a second language.

Mobile technology itself is likely to follow current trends and become smaller and more powerful. Among the most interesting recent innovation is Google Glass, a wearable technology that interacts with voice commands, takes pictures and videos, and provides a discreet micro screen in front of one eye displaying information from the internet including explanations and translations (see www.google.com/glass/start/what-it-does/).

The Internet of things, combined with access tools like Google

Glass, are rapidly changing ideas of mobile technology learning. Policymakers, teachers, and employers who hope to provide language learners with the best tools and resources for language learning will not only need to keep abreast of such developments, but also to ensure that their use meets larger goals and objectives.

Charlemagne (742–814) famously said, “To have another language is to possess a second soul,” and anyone who is fluent in two or more languages will agree that it stretches one’s mind and allows one to better understand another culture. But, from a purely communicative perspective, it is likely that the day will come when sophisticated tools and resources, coupled with voice recognition and near-perfect translation and interpretation programs, will negate the need to learn a second language at all.

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СУЩЕСТВУЕТ ЛИ МОДЕЛЬ НОСИТЕЛЯ ЯЗЫКА?

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IS THE NATIVE SPEAKER MODEL DEAD?

The slightly dramatic title of this paper highlights a discussion held in the pages of the World Today, a journal of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, Chatham House, London, earlier in 2015, which posed the question, 'Who owns English?' Subtitled 'the Perilous Lot of the Monoglot', it mourned the diminishing role of the native speaker' stuck in his/her monolingual comfort zone and exhorted all native speakers of English to learn foreign languages in order to compete in an increasing polyglottal world.

The article also referred to the multiple varieties of English around the world and seemed to suggest that they or a standard international variety of English might replace the native speaker model as an arbiter of the ability to speak and work in English, much to the discomfiture of traditional 'little Englanders'.

This discussion is not new but the debate seems to be gaining pace and it is therefore perhaps relevant and useful to address the role of the native speaker model of English as an arbiter of English language excellence in global communication today and to explore what its future might be.

To discuss this we need to understand the concept of native speaker English as a model and its limitations, how globalization and the spread of English has spawned a huge variety of accents and ways of using the language, how the English language has moved away from its native speaker shores to become a global vehicle of communication and a 'lifestyle' subject in general education, how the majority of English users in the world have been for decades non-native speakers of English and what the implications of this are for world communication in business and diplomacy.

The native speaker model and its spread

According to the writer and expert on the English Language, Professor David Crystal an estimated 1.5 billion people on the planet use English (Crystal, 1997). Professor Edgar Schneider puts the figure even higher at 2 billion (Schneider E., 2010). In spite of this, the number of speakers in countries where English is the official medium of communication has remained relatively stable at about 3-400 million. In other words, there are more than three times as many non-native speakers as native speakers.

And yet native speaker English has remained a world standard for international comprehension and communication. What English do they learn?

If learners are studying standard British English they study a variety known formally as Modified Received Pronunciation or sometimes informally as 'The Queen's English' or 'BBC English'. Modified Received pronunciation, or modified RP, as it is known, are defined as the accent of English used by educated speakers of the language in education, in broadcasting and in business. In fact, Her Majesty's variety of English is not what the majority of the world studies – that is known as 'received pronunciation' – and 'BBC English' is now used by announcers using a variety of accents.

Furthermore, as we know, native speaker English is not confined to Britain. In The USA and Canada, traditionally, the other major centres of what is known as American English, standard American English is taught. Standard British English and standard American English are distinguished by fairly minor differences in grammar but quite significant differences in vocabulary and pronunciation.

The very term ‘modified RP’ tells us that familiarity with accent is the key to understanding different Englishes, as David Crystal describes them. Not only do we have standard British English and standard American English used internationally, we also have Australian, New Zealand, South African and other English used, as well as in countries in Africa and Asia where English is taught as the national language.

Limitations of the native speaker standard

However, even within the ‘native speaker world’ we have different varieties of English, notably differences of accent. A Welsh, Scottish or Northern Irish accent, for example, can cause huge problems of comprehension for native speakers from other regions and non-native speakers alike, not to mention the accents of cities like Newcastle or Liverpool or from the southern states of the USA.

So even if native speakers claim to ‘own’ the English language, the language they own is spoken probably by a minority of speakers.

Native speakers and non-native speakers

Native speakers working with non-native speakers tend to do themselves no favours. Non-native speakers constantly complain that even as fluent speakers of English they barely understand 75% of what they hear. This is because native speakers tend to speak at speed and are unaware of or intolerant of the issues this can cause non-native speakers. They use idioms and colloquialisms without explaining them. They use banter and jokes between themselves which excludes non-native participants in conversation. And they spray acronyms liberally without explanation. They need to learn to articulate, to pause, to avoid jokes that no-one understands, to explain idioms and acronyms and to keep their sentences shorter and simpler. Keeping your sentences to 25 words or less is a good aim.

Attempts by language training organisations to introduce 'offshore English' training to help organizations to adapt to a global audience have been partially successful at best. Secure in their dominance of the language, 'hardwired into their brains' there has been little sensitivity to the needs of non-native partners in spite of evidence that their failure to learn other languages has cost money – a lot of it.

Surveys carried out by James Foreman-Peck and Yi Wang of Cardiff University in Wales estimated that 3.5% of national income was lost because trade was slower with Britain's key export partners in the EU as well as China and Brazil than it might have been with greater language proficiency (Foreman-Peck J and Wang Yi, 2013). The CBI (Confederation of British Industry) conducted a survey in 2006 and discovered that 94% of the companies did not require 'a high level of language fluency as an essential core competence of their operations.' (Who Owns English?')

There is considerable anecdotal evidence to suggest that European firms often prefer to trade with each other as they find each other easier to understand in English than they do native speakers.

Mono-glottalism

A further problem arises with the limited language learning facilities provide in the UK. Since 1997 when language learning in schools was made optional after the age of 13, the learning of languages at school level has plummeted. This has led to university language departments closing their doors, faced with falling numbers of students and rising costs of running courses.

Britain and to a considerable degree the United States and Canada have become increasingly mono-glottal nations, secure in a world that speaks English and will come to them. That may be less and less the case. The life of the monoglot may be a perilous one.

The world role of English

There is no doubt of the importance of English on the global stage. Apart from being the official language of the world's second largest economy by GDP, the USA, it is the common language of a great many international organisations. It is one of the six official languages of the United Nations and one of its three working languages (alongside French and Spanish). It is the official language of international air traffic control and of the International Maritime Organisation and of many international transport management organisations. Significant numbers of multinational corporations now use English as their language of internal communication as well as external communication with clients and partners.

Standardisation of English assessment levels

Moreover, in order to ensure that a common standard of English is adhered to by students and workers seeking to operate professionally in English speaking countries, America, Australia the UK and the Council of Europe have all developed language assessment strategies designed to ensure objective assessments of levels of English.

The first, from the Educational Testing service, based in New Jersey near Princeton University, offers a world recognized indicator of English language proficiency in American English, called TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) originally introduced in 1964 and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) in 1979.

The second, from the UK University of Cambridge is the Cambridge English as a Foreign Language suite of exams, including the Cambridge First Certificate and the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English is still an important qualification, especially for teachers of English as a foreign language.'

The third is IELTS (International English Language Testing Service) developed by the Australian International Development

Program of Australian Universities and Colleges, Now IDP Education Australia, (IDP) in collaboration with the British Council and UCLES (the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate) now Cambridge English, launched in 1989. IELTS has now become the de facto English language proficiency recognition scheme for universities and many companies using modified RP British English as their working language.

The fourth, and potentially most important instrument is the Council of Europe Framework of Reference (CEFR), a language specification. Created for all the European Union languages and compiled over an eight year period from 1989-1996, it established a six level specification of proficiency (A1/2, B1/2 C1/2) corresponding to elementary intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency. CEFR incorporated previous specifications generated by the Council of Europe, notably Threshold level, now B1, and Waystage (now A2).

Although intended as a reference framework, not a recommended syllabus the CEFR has become a de facto specification of what users of English need to know, not just in Europe but internationally and is one of the most influential instruments for language course design and assessment in use.

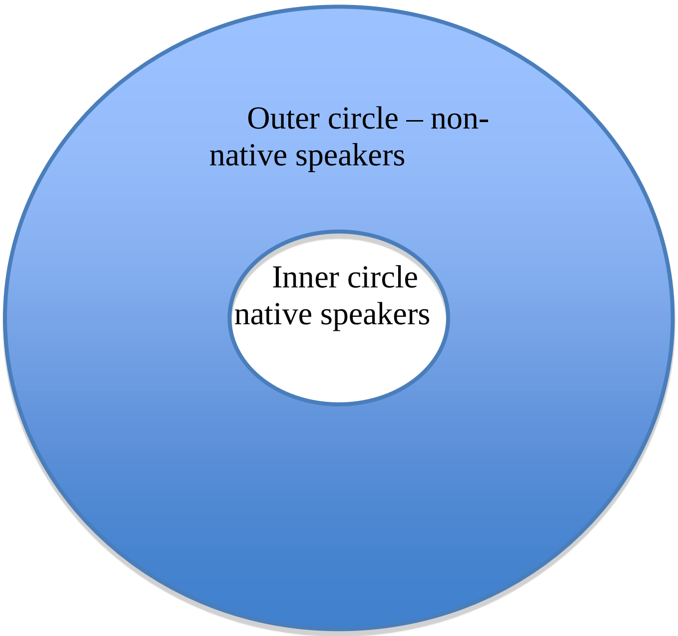
The reason that these instruments are important is that they present for English a clear and unambiguous criterion for English proficiency at different levels and include indications on vocabulary, grammar and even pronunciation, based on standard modified RP and standard American English.

Varieties of English

In 1982, Professor Braj Kachru of the University of Urbana in Illinois identified the key differences between native and non-native speakers of English – there are more non-native speakers than native speakers (Kachru Braj 1992)

Non-native speakers have different accents, have differences in pronunciation, differences in grammar and vocabulary.

Hitherto regarded as dialects of English, Kachru established the principle of varieties of English. Varieties of English or ‘Englishes’ were separate to a degree but equal. He established the differences through a simple but classic diagramme of inner and outer circles in which the inner circle of native speakers remained constant but the outer circle of non-native users of English, including speakers of English as a second language, grows ever larger.



This profoundly influential concept put all varieties of English on a level plain and did away with the snobbery and particularism that had attached itself to certain dialects.

The concept of varieties of English was partly a response to the rising importance of Indian English worldwide and the fact that English in India itself was subject to immense variety itself, partly due to the influence of different English mother tongues, principally Hindi. Some years later an Indian linguist Balhinder Singh published a small but entertaining work called ‘The Queen’s Hinglish’, in which she identified the number of Hindi origin words in common use in English both in India and increasingly internationally.

Through his research, Kachru firmly established two principles. First, the new ‘owners’ of English by majority were its non-native speakers and second that any superiority in one standard of English over another could be overcome by the substitution of the word ‘variety for the word ‘dialect’.

The model of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

The argument was taken further by linguists such as Jennifer Jenkins at the University of Southampton (Jenkins J. 2000), Professor Henry Widdowson and Dr Barbara Seidlhofer at the University of Vienna in Austria put forward the hypothesis that no variety of English is inherently superior to any other and that all are equally acceptable. This means that the concept of ‘interference’ between one language and another causing misinterpretation is no longer valid and that all such differences must be negotiated between interlocutors.

All varieties of English from Chinglish (Chinese English) to Spanglish (Hispanic varieties of English) must be considered equal and treated as acceptable international linguistic currency.

How training in English has moved away from ‘ideal’ models

David Graddol is an applied linguist and researcher who has researched the regional use of English in a number of influential pamphlets entitled, The Future of English (1997) (Graddol D) and English Next (2006) (Graddol D) and English Next India (2010) (Graddol D) for the British Council and most recently, Profiling English in China, The Pearl River Delta 2013 (for Cambridge English) (Graddol D).

In these pamphlets he demonstrates how training in English is gradually moving away from the UK and the US and localizing in non-native speaker centres ranging from Germany to China.

In particular he identifies the trend to offer university courses in a range of subjects but taught in the medium of the English language by proficient non-native speakers of English. This means that fewer students may come to the UK or the US or Australia to study because they can do so at home. China for example is training over 450,000 students a year to graduate in English. There may be more English speakers in China than there are native speakers in the rest of the world.

Graddol goes further. He estimates that the reach of English will peak in 1919, in under five years' time and thereafter slowly begin to diminish as other languages are more widely used on the global stage.

This in turn could mean that over the next hundred years the current dominance of English as the world's language franca could be replaced by a number of languages forming a core of general international linguistic competence.

If so the pressure on the UK and the US to boost the level and opportunities for training in Mandarin, Hindi and Arabic as well as Spanish, Russian and Portuguese might well grow exponentially.

Alternatively, English might cede its current primacy as a means of spoken communication but remain the leading international language of cybercommunication.

We should not forget that the most used language in the world on the Internet is Mandarin Chinese but the most used language in international Internet traffic is English. This is unlikely to change in the short to medium term.

The opportunities and threats provided by global varieties of English in world communication

The Lord Quirk, formerly Randolph Quirk, Quain Professor of English at University College London, Vice Chancellor of London University and Chairman of the British Academy once warned against the danger of international misunderstanding caused by the lack of a single recognized standard. There is a danger that this could be the case, especially since more and more international communication is undertaken not face to face but over the Internet and by teleconference and video conference between members of virtually distributed teams. One of the key issues of project management is how to successfully manage different expectations, communication styles and management styles in teams spread over many different countries. The results of failure are misunderstandings leading to delays, failure to meet product specification, penalties for late delivery and in the worst cases cancellation of contract.

The importance of cultural awareness

In global business and in global communication an awareness of the other person's way of doing things is crucial. This is partly because a positive attitude to other cultures promotes harmony and is an enriching experience in itself between, on a narrow business front, embracing uncertainty and on a personal and business front, building good relations. Your tolerance and willingness to embrace ambiguity and flexibility when things are not going obviously to plan is a business critical asset.

Experts recognize that the incorporation of cultural training into language courses and the training in cultural awareness as part of relocation planning or dealing with overseas JV partners, branches and clients is important. They also see the process of cultural due diligence (studying the business and national/regional culture) of your partner is as important as financial and organizational due diligence (studying the finances and organizational differences). Using cultural, financial and organization due diligence to harmonise potential operational differences that can waste time and money in new projects is increasingly, although still insufficiently, recognized part of any cross-border JV (Joint venture) or M&A (merger and acquisition) agreement.

It seems that one of the necessary conditions of successful management of pluralistic avenues of communication using varieties of English is an enhanced cultural awareness. This involves understanding the key drivers of international communication, how they apply to ourselves and to the communities we deal with and how to adapt our communication strategies to harmonise with theirs.

It also involves understanding their expectations of the business relationship and the way they go about their work, particularly in terms of keeping to specification, keeping within budget and observing timely delivery.

Above all it means cultivating the qualities of good international management, identified by research done by Michael Byram at the University of Durham in the UK in the 90's and entitled the INCA project. The qualities of good international management (Byram M 2004) include, being curious about and interested in learning about other cultures, reserving judgement, being prepared to embrace ambiguity and wait when necessary, being flexible about possible solutions, and being interested in and prepared to try out foreign languages.

Embracing principles of cultural awareness could be the way that the native speaker lives to fight another day.

The future of English as an international language

But what of the language itself? In 'Empires of the Word', the researcher and writer Nicholas Ostler identifies three possible futures for English as an international language (Ostler Nicholas 2005)

1 First, it retreats and becomes a national or regional language as many lingua francas have done before it, although it is unlikely to become extinct.

2 Secondly, it retains pre-eminence as a cyberlanguage of international communication via the Internet.

3 Thirdly, it retreats to become one of a group of leading working languages together with Mandarin, Hindi and Spanish to name three alternatives. There may well be more.

Conclusion

One thing is highly probable. The ‘native speaker model’ is under threat and is gradually on the way out. Native speakers will have to adapt by learning to use ‘offshore English’ in international dealings with non-native speakers where appropriate and, most importantly, by changing from being a largely monoglottal to a polyglottal business community.

Users of English worldwide will have to get used to listening to and working with different varieties of English. This may lead to miscommunication and eventually the replacement of one or two internationally recognized standards by a large variety, likely to lead to economic and quite possibly political difficulties as international communication may become prone to increasing misunderstanding.

The development of cultural awareness of tolerance and appreciation of others’ cultures will help native speakers and world users of English to adapt more successfully to the world of different varieties of English they may find themselves faced with on an increasing basis.

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АНГЛИЦИЗМЫ В ИСПАНСКОМ ДЕЛОВОМ ДИСКУРСЕ

В статье обсуждается вопрос влияния английского языка на испанский язык, а именно механизмы проникновения англицизмов в испанский деловой дискурс. Также определяется само понятие англицизма в испанском языке. Приводятся примеры разных видов англицизмов в испанском в зависимости от степени их закрепления в языке.
Ключевые слова: лингвистическое заимствование, испанский деловой дискурс, англицизмы.

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ANGLICISMS IN THE SPANISH BUSINESS DISCOURSE

The article tells about the influence of English language on the Spanish language. Also, it deals with mechanisms of incorporation of Anglicisms in the Spanish Business language and defines the meaning of the phenomenon Anglicism in Spanish language. The author gives examples of the Anglicisms depending on their degree of incorporation into Spanish language.

Key words: linguistic borrowing, Spanish business language, Anglicisms.

Introduction

Nowadays we can note that the Anglicisms are present in the modern Business Spanish. We observe the massive apprearence of the economic terms loaned from English at the end of XX and the beginning of the XXI c. There are a series of sociocultural factors which defined this phenomenon.

In the 1970s (late epoque of Franquismo) Spain starts to collaborate with the USA. New processes of industrialization imported from the USA start, the new medium class appears. Speaking about terrain of Education, we can state the appreance of ESP (English for Special Purposes) [1]. In the 1980s Spain joins international organisations such as CEE, NATO what makes the country more influenced by external cultures and economic policies. And, finally, 1990s show us the democratical freedom and process of globalization reigned by the market economy.

All these facts have been reflected in the Spanish language. In the 1980s – beginning of the consumerism – the following anglicisms became popular: *supermarket, second hand, self-service*. Such events as Olimpic Games at Barcelona and International Exposition at Sevilla in 1992 gave Spain prestigious international dimension and recognition. At the same time, technological revolution represented by Internet definitely transformed English into real Esperanto, and it started to "invade Spain"[9].

Due to the birth of a new Spanish generation in the area of business and banking, Spain had managed to achieve in a relatively short time one of the most rapid increases in wealth in the euro zone. The existence of a new generation who speaks fluent English and has accomplished great technological and financial leaps in the past two decades while aiming at expansion to the global markets, has given rise to a linguistic phenomenon analysis in the present article.

Theoretical background

There are many definitions of the term "Anglicism" in various literature sources depending on bibliographical sources and on the particular approach that the authors adopted. We can find general definition like that of Maria Moliner [7] (the most famous Spanish librarian and lexicographer, best known for her Diccionario de uso del español, first published in 1966–1967): "Anglicism is an English word or expression used in another language", and a bit more specific as those offered by the DRAE (Diccionary of Royal Academy of Spanish Language) meanings: "1. manner of speaking in english. 2 own language. m. Word or turn of the language used in other language. 3. m. Using English words or expressions in different languages".

In Spain, towards the end of the XX, several linguists studied the phenomenon of Anglicisms in peninsular Spanish. The pioneer in this field was Lorenzo Criado who published several pieces of research on the topic in the 1950s and continued doing so until the end of the 20th century (1996, 1999). Another significant figure is Chris Pratt who took the decesive step towards the modern concept of Anglicisms when he published his innovative and work in 1980s, he shared many of Lorenzo's views and, like him, concentrated mainly on lexical Anglicisms establishing a solid categorisation of English borrowings. The definition of Chris Pratt [8] is "an anglicism is a linguistic element or group thereof which is used in the peninsular Castilian contemporary and whose etymon has an English model".

Classification of anglicisms

Famous Spanish linguist Emilio Lorenzo [4] in his book: «Anglicismos en la prensa" ("Anglicisms in mass media") follows the linguistic criteria in order to make the classification, and he judges anglicisms by their degree of integration into Spanish:

1 – *anglicismos crudos* (crudes anglicisms, non-adapted) – the borrowing of English words which keep their original orthography and pronunciation, e.x. baby –sitter, sandwich, club, shorts

2 – *anglicismos en periodo aclimatacion* (adjusted, adapted anglicisms) – the borrowing of English words which have been adapted to the Spanish language either in their orthography, or in their pronunciation. E.x. boxer, futbol, filme, folclore

3 – *anglicismos totalmente asimilados* (fully integrated anglicisms) - borrowing of English words which have been fully integrated into the Spanish language, e.x. turista, rosbif, sueter

4 – *calcos* (calques) – literal translations from English of concepts unknown to the Spanish speaker, e.x. relaciones publicas, rascacielos (skyscraper), perrito caliente (hot dog)

5 – *semantic calques* – Spanish words that, due to their close similarity with a corresponding English word receive a semantic meaning that they didn't have before. E.x. romance (amorios) - from 'romance', habilidad (competencia) -from "ability", heroe (protagonista) from "hero".

6 – false anglicisms: do not exist as such in the English language. There is an alteration from the original English form.

Thus, nouns like *parking* are used in Spanish for *parking lot* or the mingling of a Spanish etymon with an English suffix, as can be seen in *puenting*, from puente ‘bridge’ plus the -ing suffix, to designate the activity of jumping from a bridge as in bungee jumping.

7 - acronyms and abbreviations.

Examples:

B2B – Business to Business

CFO- Chief Financial Officer

CMO- Chief Marketing Officer

GAAP- Generally Accepted Accounting Principles

LLC – Limited Liability Company

SOHO – Small Office / Home Office

Chris Pratt in his book “El anglicismo en el espanol peninsular” (1980) – one of the most important works referring to the anglicisms – distinguishes between “the last etym” and “the immediate etym”. He explains that the last etym is the one that originally supplies a language; for example, in the case of the Spanish language, the Anglicisms have been adopted from the English language, but at the same time English has taken voices from other languages. Instead, the immediate etym refers to the language that supplies the borrowing directly to the other language. Chris Pratt writes that sometimes the linguistic facts are not enough to determine an etym, so the external explanation is the answer to the source of borrowings. According to him, “lexical anglicisms are subdivided in univerbal lexical anglicisms, and at the same time these anglicisms are subdivided into patent anglicisms which are those that are formed by just one word and the patent can be distinguished; and into non-patent anglicisms which are divided in two groups”. These are:

Traditional voices or semantic calques which consider the anglicism as a translation of the English term without any etymological relationship between the English voice and its Spanish translation; for example, channel. Then, the author cites neological voices or absolute neologisms that are compound structures which have suffered a minimum orthographic adaptation according to the Spanish language.

Finally, lexical Anglicisms are subdivided into: multiverbal lexical anglicisms, which could be: bi-substantive compound Anglicisms; and univerbal bi-substantive anglicisms.

1) Multiverbal: anglicisms formed by more than one word.

They can be divided into

a) complex bi-noun : razcacielos (skyscraper), momento clave (key moment), coche bomba (car bomb), hora punta (rash hour); fecha limite (limit date), etc

b) composed by colocations : Verb + noun (lanzacohetes), noun + adjective (aire aconditionado), adjective + noun (proximo oriente – Middle East), constructions with prepositions “de”, “en” (campo de concentacion – concentration camp).

2) Univerbal: a) evident anlisisms: loan word without any change (ranking, Hippy, sidecar) or adapted to Spanish (boicot, boxear, travelin); b) non-evident: (agenda, agresivo instead of “activo”, dramatico instead of “sensacional”).

Conclusions

Language borrowings are evidence of the fact that languages are dynamic and change in a constant way. It’s known that change is one of the most important manifestations of the vitality of a language, as it proves its evolution and peculiarities, and, most importantly, the state of its technical, cultural and even emotional development [2; 3]. Nowadays, the English language is the main linguistic donor worldwide, and Spanish is the recipient of its generosity.

The influence of English in Spanish is profound, because English is a global language today: it governs the lexicon of international business and economics, scientific and technical discourse and dominates communication in the current world [6]. There is an increasing number of Spanish speakers who have studied at the English-speaking universities or worked in the

USA or the UK. So, it can be said that these people have developed their professional, specialised activity in international business and economic organisms in the English-speaking environment. They make an excessive use of English loanword in their everyday and working lives. In such a way they participate into spread of Anglicisms over the Spanish-speaking countries.

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ГЕНДЕРНОЕ НЕРАВЕНСТВО В АМЕРИКАНСКОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЕ СЕРЕДИНЫ 20 ВЕКА

В статье рассматриваются качественные и количественные характеристики женских и мужских персонажей в художественном дискурсе Нила Кэссиди и Джека Керуака – двух главных писателей поколения «битников».

Ключевые слова: художественный дискурс, гендер, языковая личность, бит-поколение.

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GENDER INEQUALITY IN AMERICAN LITERATURE OF THE MID 20TH CENTURY

Abstact: The paper studies the difference between the quality and the quantity of speech characteristics of male and female

characters in fictional discourse of Neal Cassady and Jack Kerouac - two key-writers of Beat generation.
Key words: fictional discourse, gender, language personality, beat-generation.

Introduction

Though the 19th amendment to Constitution, giving American women the right to vote, opening new horizons and expanding the boundaries, passed in 1920 it was not until the late 60s when the status of women really changed in the society, women's rights started to have a real impact on American life and to be taken seriously. During the 1950s the majority of women stayed at home taking care of their husbands, children and houses but in the beginning of 1970s this cult of home-fire stopped dominating and more and more women managed to combine different jobs and the household [1, 326-333].

Definitely this change was connected with many other processes in the society and the altering world of the middle of the 20th century was reflected in fictional discourse of the writers who were the witnesses and active participants of the new coming era.

The most influential group of authors during the post World War II period in US was the Beat Generation whose appearance on literary stage coincided with the «birth of new America and new American consciousness» [2, 13]. Writers of Beat Generation proclaimed rejection of traditional and material values, spiritual and sexual freedom and their writing style was characterized by tendency to epatage, sincerity and frankness. Many of their books are semi-autobiographical, thus by analyzing the characters and their speech in their novels we can draw conclusions on the role of women in the life of «Beat» authors and in the society in general.

Empiric material

Our study is based on the only book by Neal Cassady [3], one of the major figures of the Beat Generation, protagonist and inspiration for many characters in fiction of other «Beat» writers and on 4 books by Jack Kerouac [4; 5; 6; 7], the leader of the literature and social movement of the «Beats» who like Elvis Presley and James Dean became an image icon for his contemporaries [8, 68].

Results and discusion

Firstly, let us consider the most vivid expression on the obvious discrimination of women in the fictional discourse mentioned above, i.e. the quantity factor. In Neal Casady's novel «The First Third» only 19 % of speech characteristics belong to women characters. In Jack Kerouac's fiction that number accounts to 15,6 %. The number of personal pronouns and possessive pronouns and adjectives in characters' speech can also be illustrative. In the studied speech characteristics of both male and female characters created by Neal Cassady such personal pronouns and possessive pronouns and adjectives as «she» and «her» are not detected at all. In the analyzed novels by Jack Kerouac lexical units «he», «his», «him» can be found in 14 % of male characters' speech characteristics but the percentage of such lexical units as «she» and «her» is much lower - only 3,9 %. Female characters also tend to speak about the men's world, the numbers are 19 % and 5,1 % respectively.

One more factor which is closely connected with the usage of pronouns and adjectives is the number of proper nouns in the characters' speech characteristics. Both in Cassady's and Kerouac's prose women almost never address each other by names. Only 18 cases of the use of proper female names by women characters were detected and 17 of them were found in the first novel by Jack Kerouac «The Town and the City», Neal Cassady's prose has none. In Kerouac's fictional discourse male characters more often use female names not to address female characters but to discuss them among themselves:

«…In that time Dean is balling Marylou at the hotel and gives me time to change and dress. At one sharp he rushes from Marylou to Camille - of course neither one of them knows what's going on - and bangs her once, giving me time to arrive at one thirty. Then he comes out with me - first he has to beg with Camille, who's already started hating me - and we come here to talk till six in the morning. …Then at six he goes back to Marylou - and he's going to spend all day tomorrow running around to get the necessary papers for their divorce. Marylou's all for it, but she insists on banging in the interim. She says she loves him. - so does Camille» [5, 43].

Women characters do not make any decisions even in such areas as sexual relations:

«Hey Ross you take Mardou home tonight I wanta make it with Rita for a change» [6, 23].

Secondly, the cognitive aspect of male and female characters' speech characteristics i.e. the quality factor must be considered. As women characters speak less in the authors' fictional discourse the reader can figure out that there are less concepts in their world view. Both authors describe men's feelings, thoughts and intensions in details, female characters, however, remain the objects of sexual pleasure with neither a full description of their appearance nor an interesting personality. Very few of them correspond to the stereotype of a good wife or a girlfriend and most of them seem to be dissatisfied with men around scolding them:

«That Gables, the darned old rascal, he'll be the death of me... kept me awake all last night with his creaking and moaning. I swear, some night the roof will fall right in bed on» [3, 8];

«When Tom's money runs out Ed'll be back. Damn fool - he doesn't know anything and never did» [5, 181];

«It's him or me goddamit» [6, 56].

Thus the number of concepts that are reflected in the speech of male and female characters is different. Having analyzed the speech acts of the characters of the books by both authors we can make a conclusion that such concepts as «family», «home», «disease» dominate in their fiction revealing the discrepancy of the Beat culture. On the one hand concepts «family» and «home» represent those values and features of the traditional society that the members of the movement want to escape from but stereotypes and ideas of a happy family life still keep prevailing even among the leaders of the movement. On the other hand the concepts of «disease» and «madness» were typical of the Beat culture because madness was understood by the Beat generation as freedom of an individual from the rules of the society. The expression of these concepts can be found in the speech of both male and female characters:

«Since, as our sad hearts know so well, dear son, there can be no home for you here beside your mother» [3, 30];

«Well, I hope - I sure wish I could - well, yes, if anything like that comes up I'll certainly come home - It will be the sensible thing to do - » [4, 245];

«Tomorrow. I hear music right now. Chords, melodies, chords— if I could hit the chords I hear, I'd be so great. Mad chords full of new sounds and all kinds of ... colors almost . . . » [5, 224].

Apart from these the concepts of men are quite diverse and include «food», «drinks», «literature», «drugs», «money», «work», «road», «music», «law». Women characters in the books by both authors are represented as less intelligent and their interests are less varied. The dominating concepts are «food» and «gender» thus showing the reader that the main thoughts of women should be cooking and building up the relationship with men. Syntactic and stylistic structure of the speech acts of the characters also depend on their gender. Women characters' phrases are usually short and simple whereas men characters tend to use long complex sentences:

«Mankind will someday realize that we are actually in contact with the dead and with the other word, whatever it is; right now we could predict, if we only exerted enough mental will, what is going to happen within the next hundred years and be able to take steps to avoid all kinds of catastrophes. When a man dies he undergoes a mutation in his brain that we know nothing about now but which will be clear someday if scientists het on the ball. The bastards right now are only interested in seeing if they can blow up the world» [5, 146];

«It sounds silly to me» [5, 146].

Conclusions

Comparing the quantity and the quality of male and female speech characteristics the results showing gender inequality in the novels of the mid 20th century becomes obvious. Drawing a conclusion it can be mentioned that the most famous authors of the Beat generation grew up in a highly segregated society and apparently some conventions and stereotypes of woman's role in life of a man remained the same as it had been in their childhood. Though some changes in the traditional women's behaviour are reflected in their novels (women swear, use blatant and harsh words, travel along with the men having no definite purposes) women still stay unequal to men and are regarded as beautiful addition to the surroundings with plenty of restrictions imposed. The male characters easily find and leave girlfriends and never care about their feelings afterwards. Actually, the message encoded in fiction discourse of the writers of Beat generation contradicts the main ideas of the movement: removing taboos and liberating both sexes.

It has been proved by the researches that Western culture is man-centered [9, 124] and USA is characterized by a peculiar masculine culture [10, 29] and the validation of these conclusions can definitely be seen in the books by American authors of the mid 20th century.

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СТРАТЕГИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ ДИАЛОГИЧЕСКОГО ОБЩЕНИЯ ПРИ ОБУЧЕНИИ ИНОСТРАННОМУ ЯЗЫКУ НА НАЧАЛЬНОМ ЭТАПЕ

Стратегические аспекты диалогической коммуникации тесно связаны с психологическими факторами человеческого общения, которые определяют структуру диалога: личности партнеров по общению, их интересы, взгляды, желания, мнения, коммуникативные проблемы и выбор решений для достижения коммуникативной цели. Дискурсные стратегии различных подгрупп, которые являются непрямыми способами достижения коммуникативной цели, позволяют избежать негативных психологических последствий из-за нежелательных реакций коммуникативных партнеров. Данное исследование фокусируется на стратегических средствах воздействия на собеседника в ходе диалогического общения на родном и иностранном языках. В статье рассматриваются стратегические компоненты полного диалогического цикла: предцентр, предответ и постцентр, – а также такие вспомогательные стратегические шаги, как обоснователи, расширители и дизармеры. Эти стратегии могут быть использованы при создании стратегических упражнений для обучения диалогическому общению на иностранном языке на начальном этапе. Опытное обучение показало, что использование стратегических элементов в коммуникативных упражнениях не только способствует *лучшему усвоению диалогических структур, но и совершенствует навыки делового общения студентов.*

Ключевые слова: диалогическое общение, диалогический цикл, дискурсные стратегии, стратегические шаги.

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STRATEGIC ASPECTS OF DIALOGIC COMMUNICATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING AT INITIAL STAGE

Strategic aspects of dialogic communication are closely related to the psychological factors that determine the structure of the dialogue: personalities of partners, their interests, assessments, desires, opinions, communication problems and solutions to achieve communicative goals. Discursive strategies which are indirect ways to achieve communicative goal allow us to avoid negative psychological effects due to unwanted reactions of communication partners. This research focuses on strategic assets designed to influence the interlocutor during the dialogic communication in the native and foreign language. The article deals with the strategic components of the complete dialogic cycle: before-center, before-answer and after-center and such subsidiary strategic steps as explainers, expanders and disarmers. These strategies can be used in teaching dialogical communication in a foreign language at elementary stage. Pilot training has shown that the use of strategic elements in communicative exercises not only promotes better assimilation of dialogical structures, but also improves business communication skills of students.

Key words: dialogic communication, cycles of dialogical speech, discursive strategies, strategic steps.

In dialogical speech we can observe not only the use of compensation strategies to fill the deficiency of linguistic resources, but also the manipulation of intentional structures of dialogue to achieve communicative goals. Those manipulations defined as discursive strategies are used to know the true intentions of the interlocutor, to determine the preliminary possibilities of achieving communicative goals, to pause to prepare the answer, to ask again to clarify the idea of a partner etc. So discursive strategies can be defined as special programs of verbal activity developed by the subject to avoid communication problems or overcome them if they have already appeared [1].

Usually communicative task requires a cycle of communication with strategic re-planning in accordance with the assessment of the communicative situation. Thus, some communicative goal (for example, to get the right information) requires the use of a strategy to change psychological parameters of the interlocutor so that he gave this information.

The choice of a strategy is determined by a number of factors. First of all, it is the communicative purpose of the leader of communication, then the nature of the problem to be solved, and the strategic competence of the subjects of the speech, which determines their set of communication strategies. For natural communication it is usual to solve problems by indirect ways to achieve communicative goals more easily.

It should be noted that the difference between strategies used in dialogic speech in the native and foreign languages is much less than the strategic difference between the different types of speech activities in the same language reading or listening in their native language.

Modal dialogical installation (of cooperation or conflict), is determined by the communicative role of each of the interlocutors. This installation dictates the use of the macro-strategies of achieving or rejection of communication goal (to avoid communication failures). Then, discursive strategies are deployed according to the selected macro-strategy.

In dialogical speech one of the communicants takes the role of a communicative leader, the second is the reagent. This reagent also realizes its goals and strategies, however, being reactive, they are largely determined by the behavior of the speech addressee leader. The separation of these two roles in the natural communication is to some extent arbitrary, but they are highly characteristic of the classroom communication at the initial stage. The role structure of the dialogue is directly linked with the problem of selection of training types of dialogue, the most consistent with the objectives of the initial stage, with different positions proposed by researchers. This question is related to the problem of the use of role-based communication strategies. Education dialogical communication at an early stage is impossible without mastering the basic features of partner's communicative roles.

Discursive strategies include also alternative programs related to the actional component of communicative goal: initiation and completion of communication, seizure and interception of communicative leadership, filling pause of hesitation to overcome the so-called "dialogic aberrations" [6]. This variety of strategies being sufficiently developed, however, is more difficult to use for language teaching/learning, because it requires a detailed analysis of complex interactional structures of dialogic communication [2, 5].

Communication strategies of initial and final phases of dialogical exchange can be reduced to the use of necessary etiquette formulas and communication patterns that should be selected and systematically used in training, in accordance with the context and situation. That is, this discharge may be taken into account in training dialogical speech by learning and practice the use of appropriate expressions and patterns, so-called communication routines to initiate dialogue as a finished product, which eliminates the need for training grammatical forms and discursive structures of these phases of dialogical speech [5]. Strategies at this stage appear only in case of violation of the rules of use of communication patterns.

The situation is similar with the discursive strategies of support to communication, for example, such finishing moves (gambits) as tactical adders - "In general, I would say ...", "Let's leave this topic ..." and extractors, "Well, let it be so!", "Sorry, I really need to go ..." and others. It is also desirable to acquire ready-made formulas of stereotypes in educational micro dialogues-samples, because they are an essential component of learning dialogical speech as a whole [3].

Gambits occupy a special place among the discursive strategies and they are considered by W. Edmondson as strategic components used by interlocutors to optimize flowing discourse in various ways (for example, to gain time when speaking to reflect over their replicas) [6]. They appear in case of the so-called aberrations, which inevitably arise in the course of natural unprepared communication. Such elements are easily assimilated through an active foreign language communication in a foreign language environment, but they are very rarely used in formal learning dialogue.

Actually gambits include explainers, expanders, disarmers, amplifiers, repetitions, tactical bridgeheads, qualifiers and supports - all the cues and techniques that are used to maintain proper dialogue with an important partner: to emphasize some of the facts brought to the attention of the interlocutor, to affect directly the perception of the partner. "Really?" "Of course", "I mean", "The fact is that," "You, of course, you know what I mean", “Is that so?” etc.

All of these strategic means allow to buy time to ponder the answer in the case of communicative difficulties in the course of the dialogue, and therefore are regarded as tactical bridgeheads. This discharge is actively developed in the analysis of dialogical speech [2, 5] and to organize learning exercises for learning the relevant dialogical stereotypes and grammatical forms [3].

The main feature of educational strategic impact on the interlocutor (processing strategies partner - so they are designated in computational linguistics where scientists develop models of artificial intelligence) [4], is that they are extremely typical for structures of natural dialogic communication. Because of this consideration they are related to the analysis of direct and indirect speech acts – communication steps that aim to achieve a local target.

The sequence of local communicative steps generates interactional cycle's structure aimed to achieve the global goal. If a part of the communicative exchange (the entire program to achieve the target) is achieved only by direct means of communication, it is a non-strategic. This is the most typical for educational dialogues for students of the initial stage. Such dialogue may consist of only one communicative step of each partner, with a direct request which will be immediately accepted. But for a natural dialogic communication, especially business communication, strategic exchanges are more typical. If in the course of conversation there is at least one indirect (strategic) communicative step, such a move is considered as strategic dialogical communication. For example:

Dialogue 1

A. Good morning, Ann. How are you?

B. Good morning, Jack. I'm very well, thank you. And how are you?

A. I am not feeling very well at the moment. <u>I think I must have caught a cold</u>.

B. I am sorry to hear that. I hope you'll soon get over it.

Dialogue 2

A. Good morning.
B. Good morning. How are you today?
A. Just fine, thanks. How are you?
B. Wonderful. Things couldn't be better.
A. Do you know Jane Smith?
B. Well, of course. What do you have in mind?
A. Let's go to her party tomorrow evening.
b. OK.

In the first example there is only one strategic step, that is an expander which specifies the requested information (I think I must have caught a cold). In the second dialogue the central exchange is initiated by the strategic step of the leader to know the preconditions to achieve communication goal that is to invite the partner to the party (Do you know Jane Smith?). Then the partner uses a strategic step to clarify the true intentions of the leader (What do you have in mind?).

Domination type of dialogue is the most characteristic for foreign language communication in pairs of teacher-student or native speaker - foreigner, as it determines the stability of unequal communicative roles of the interlocutors. The teacher (native speaker) has always the fixed role of communicative leader not only because of the language perfection, but also for the reasons of social status. That's why dominant type of dialogue is typically used in training courses at elementary stage.

In the analysis of the communicative structure of dialogic speech there are several levels and several units, each of which may have a strategic burden. The cycle can be elementary, complicated, complex and complete. Elementary cycles are usually non-strategic, since every use of a strategy causes complication of the dialogical cycle. However, there are elementary cycles, with a single use of a discursive strategy (Dialogue 1).

A complete cycle of the dialogue, which is always strategic, includes the following elements:

1. Phases 2. Exchanges 3. Communication moves 4. Communicative steps [6].

That is a hierarchical structure. In the structure of the dialogue cycle there are:

Phases: Initial (Greetings), Communicative center, Final (Farewell) ;

Exchanges (in the phase of communication's center): a) Center, b)strategic step before the center – (first strategy used in Dialogue 2), c)strategic step before the answer (second strategy used in Dialogue 2), d)post-center ;

Moves: Proposal satisfaction, Contradiction, Juxtaposition, Promotion, Reoffering etc.

Steps: initiative, reactive, auxiliaries.

Exchanges included in the phase of greeting and farewell are mainly etiquette ones so considering the nature and the structure of complete strategic dialogue they will not be analyzed in detail. Communication phase may include all types of exchanges and all types of strategies, including gambits, and their deployment depends on the strategic planning of the interlocutors. In each cycle, there is one main part - center (central exchange). For example, the elementary cycle consists only of the center (Let's go to the movies! - With pleasure!). It is implemented by the dominant interlocutor's moves aimed at achieving the main goal of communication without any problem.

The remaining exchanges are designed to achieve local objectives, as they are the result of strategic planning of one of the interlocutors, or of both of them.

Strategies implemented through communicative moves are: 1. before-center, 2. before-answer, and 3. after-answer.

1. Strategies of before-center clarify the preconditions to achieve communicative goal. They are characteristic for the leader of communication and are implemented by means of general, special and alternative questions.

2. Strategies of before-answer clarify the true goals and intentions of the interlocutor. They are characteristic for the reagent and are realized in the form of counter-responses and indirect reactions.

3. Strategies of after-answer serve to finding additional conditions to achieve the goal of communication. In the case of the reagent they can be viewed as another actional discursive strategy to take the lead and to initiate a new cycle of the dialogue. These strategies request additional information and are implemented by using special questions.

The role of strategic component can be performed by auxiliary strategic steps such as gambits that implement a number of supporting strategies. The most important for the elementary stage are 1. explainers 2. expanders and 3. disarmers.

A) explainers anticipate before center exchange: “Before you ask why ... I want to say that ...” For example: Let's go to the movies. The weather is good.

B) expanders - a move that can not only anticipate before-answer offer, but also contradict an anticipated objection: “Before you ask what to do, I will tell you how you can ...” For example: I do not know. We'll see.

B) disarmers – a step expressing an apology to anticipated failure, negative reactions: - “Before you protest, I apologize in advance for the fact that I refuse.” For example: - Yes, I understand your problem, but I do not have money.

This strategy can be used in real dialogue as an indirect refusal.

So without being a factor that directly determines the choice of dialogic structure, communication strategies, however, have a significant influence on its choice. Thus, they can be used to create new systems of training and communicative exercises of strategic training of the structures of dialogue. It is also a means of the organization of academic work that will speed up the process of not only the formation of the communicative competence in general and of flexible and grammatical of skills of dialogic speech by improving the efficiency of exercises, but also of strategic planning of business communication.

The problem of creating strategic exercises for teaching foreign dialogical communication can be solved by taking into account the impact of discursive strategies that are realized in the elementary cycle of strategic dialogue, containing some strategic moves. Communicative strategic move of elementary cycle is a minimal unit of dialogic communicative strategy that is applicable to learning objectives at the initial stage. The use of elementary cycles containing minimal strategic moves, allows to develop a system of strategic exercises in grammar learning dialogue, including new types of assignments.

In training exercises in the course of solving the communication problem \ overcome anticipated communication problem one of the interlocutors, which enjoys a given strategy provokes another student’s repetition of studied grammatical structures with the goal to obtain the required information (achieve communicative goals). Some exercises can be created on the same principle such as "guessing" with the use of strategy of alternative questions, for example, when working with the training of case forms (in Russian as a foreign language) or the verbs of motion, when students try to guess the selected group of the leader of the type "capricious partner": Do you want to go to a museum? - No, I do not want, No not in a museum etc., when grammatical forms are practiced in the speech of communicative leader, or both partners, or all the group. Game modalities allow to fix both the grammatical structure and ways of solving of the same type of communication problems, similar to those used in the exercises. Thus students will learn a grammatical structure and its function, and communication strategy.

When training at an early stage for the creation of exercises with a strategic component we can use not a complete program to achieve communicative goals, but its elements, minimal structural units of its implementation.

So through the use of strategic moves we develop new types of communicative exercises:

a) training exercise with the strategic component,

b) exercises, which we define as the pseudo-strategic communication exercises and

c) exercises with a strategic scheme, defined as strategic assignments.

They are used in a system of exercises, built in accordance with the stages of formation and realization of discursive strategies to achieve communicative goal. In the proposed communicative situation at two highest levels students will use a strategic component of their own for optimizing the process of assimilation of dialogue structures of communicative strategies according to the proposed scheme.

To make an original dialogue of a strategic nature we can use the following tasks:

1. To the basic dialogic cycle proposed by the teacher, you must add one expander (communicant A) and one explainer (communicants B).
2. To each step of dialogue add strategic component:

A. Before-center - to offer the option to request additional information necessary to know the possibility to invite the partner (to the theater, stadium, party). For example:

Are you busy today? Do you love the theater? Let's go somewhere? What are you doing next Friday? (Options are suggested, but they are not given in advance - they should be given by the students). The proposed options can be written on the board.

B. Before-answer - offer the answers that do not contain explicit consent or refusal (What? Why? I do not know. What do you say? Ask me something easier.).

3. From the elementary cycle, create a more complex one, using explainers and expanders to each direct communicative step. Don’t repeat expanders which have already been used by other students.

For example:

- Let's go to the movies. (The weather is good).

-I can not. (I'm busy).

4. Change the initial dialogue using explainers while initiating dialogic conflict with the intention of doubt or support, on a given topic request, as long as possible while avoiding outright refusal or acceptance.

5. A. - Convince a friend to accept your offer or your request, using all possible strategic moves of the leader. – B. -Refuse to accept the offer of your friend, using all known strategic moves of the reagent.

6. Game - the longest dialogue. - Maximize the dialogue, given by the teacher using all possible strategic moves for maintain communication with another student as long as possible. Reference can be given to the time - a dialogue should last at least 5 minutes. Winner is the couple, who spoke the longest [3, pp.105-124].

To formulate the tasks in a non-philological University there is no need to explain to students the strategic theory. Tasks can be formulated in a less complicated way. For example: “Find all possible questions to clarify the preconditions to achieve the communicative goal in the dialogue with the business partner to whom you want to offer a contract”.

Our pilot training has shown that the inclusion of communication discursive strategies in the texts and exercises for teaching structures of dialogic speech at initial stage not only promotes better assimilation of dialogical structures, but also improves business communication skills of students [3, pp.125-142]. Optimization of assimilation was achieved primarily through the use of the exercises with strategic component.

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РОЛЬ КОНЦЕПТУАЛЬНОЙ МЕТАФОРЫ В СОЗДАНИИ ОБРАЗА ПРЕЗИДЕНТА УКРАИНЫ В СОВРЕМЕННОМ АНГЛОЯЗЫЧНОМ МЕДИАДИСКУРСЕ

Статья посвящена исследованию роли концептуальной метафоры в создании образа президента Украины Петра Порошенко в современном английском медиадискурсе. Автор описывает роль средств массовой информации в современном мире, функцию метафоры в публицистике в общем и в конструировании образа президента в частности. На примерах из британских и американских периодических изданий выделяются основные метафорические модели («президент – правитель», «президент – капитан корабля», «президент – посредник») и раскрывается процесс их реализации. В работе также проводится анализ роли метафоры в создании оценочности путем выделения аксиологического аспекта каждого образа, созданного определенной метафорической моделью. На основании этого воссоздается общий образ президента Украины Петра Порошенко в англоязычной прессе. Проведенное исследование позволяет сделать вывод, что метафора продуктивно применяется в медиадискурсе как средство речевой выразительности для увеличения образности и информативности сообщения.

Ключевые слова: СМИ, медиадискурс, Украина, образ, президент, Порошенко, концептуальная метафора, метафорическая модель, оценочность

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THE ROLE OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR IN CREATING THE IMAGE OF THE UKRAINIAN PRESIDENT IN MODERN ENGLISH MEDIA DISCOURSE

The article deals with the role of conceptual metaphor in creating the image of the President of Ukraine Petro Poroshenko in the modern English media discourse. The author describes the role of mass media in the modern world, the function of metaphor in publicistics in general and in building the image of the president in particular. Examples were singled out from the British and American periodicals and on their basis the main metaphoric models were identified («president – ruler», «president – captain of the ship», «president – intermediary») and the process of their realization was described. In this work there is also an analysis of the role of metaphor in creating the evaluativity by deducing the axiological aspect of each image built by certain metaphoric model. Taking into account all that, the collective image of the president of Ukraine Petro Poroshenko in the English press has been reconstructed. The conducted analysis allows one to come to the conclusion that metaphor is actively used in media discourse as the expressive means to make the message brighter and more informative.
Key words: mass media, media discourse, Ukraine, image, president, Poroshenko, conceptual metaphor, metaphoric model, evaluation

In the modern world the relationships between countries often depend on the personal characteristics of their leaders. This became especially evident among the political events last year when the topic of Ukraine dominated all mainstream media. Due to the protests in Kiev which led to the change of government mass media have focused their attention on the Ukrainian politicians in general and the new President of Ukraine Petro Poroshenko in particular. The English press has published a lot of material dedicated to the new Ukrainian leader, that's why it can be considered relevant to study the means of creating an image of the president on the articles about the Ukrainian leader.

Nowadays, particularly mass media plays the key role in building the image of a country or a leader. Back in 1990s the growing influence of mass media on the processes taking place in society and on political life was noted and described by the renowned sociologist P. Bourdieu. He proposed the idea that mass media manipulates the information by emphasizing some facts and events (broadcasting them on TV, writing about them in newspapers etc.) while ignoring the others just because they cannot attract as much audience. Thus, mass media basically do not reflect the reality but construct it creating a particular world view and mobilizing social groups in support of certain people, events or ideas [1, p. 32].

Professor M.N. Volodina analyzing the works of the German sociologist N. Luhmann about the reality built by mass media comes to the conclusion that in the modern world media have become the intermediaries in forming the attitude of people to the real events. Particularly mass media, in her opinion, choose the objects worth attention and assign a certain informative value to some categories. Being a special instrument of interpreting the reality, mass media create their own mythological world aimed at structuring the world view [6, p. 43].

T.G. Dobrosklonskaya in her treatise "Questions in studying media texts" brings an interesting comparison pointing at the parallels between the way mass media reflects the reality and an artist paints a picture. As an artist's style of painting by and large depends on his world view and dominating art tendency, in the same way mass media interpret the events in the light of a particular ideology presenting the events to the audience through the system of some cultural values and political guidelines. Interpretation, according to the linguist, presupposes evaluation which may be expressed by different means: from fact selection to using various linguostylistic devices. All this is of great importance from the point of view of implementing an ideological function [2, pp. 17-18].

Conceptual metaphor, being one of these linguostylistic devices, which is used to create an image of the president, is a subject of this study.

The material for analysis was taken from the official websites of the leading British and American newspapers. News and analytical articles were selected the topic of which was Petro Poroshenko dating from February to September 2014.

The study of this practical material has revealed that numerous linguostylistic devices are used to create the image of the Ukrainian President Petro Poroshenko: metaphors, periphrases, precedent text, antitheses, epithets, irony and euphemisms. However in this article these are metaphors that will be analyzed in more detail as they have been found one of the most widespread and vivid stylistic devices.

In this work metaphor is to be considered from the point of view of cognitive linguistics as a tool for studying the surrounding world, as a way to make the knowledge about the world objective, which is based on one's ability to develop new knowledge on the basis of transference of existing knowledge from one conceptual sphere into another [4, p. 52]. The work which triggered the study of metaphor was the book of the American linguists and philosophers G. Lakoff and M. Johnson "Metaphors We Live By" where the authors showed that metaphor being one of the substantial elements of our conceptual system is one of the most important tools of world's categorization, structuring perception and sensation [3, pp. 97-

108]. These scientists also raised the point about the correspondence between metaphors and national cultural values and came to the conclusion that “the values which really exist and have been rooted in culture are in accord with the metaphorical system” [5, p. 405]. Thus, analyzing conceptual metaphors one should bear in mind the influence of cultural perception and values of a particular linguoculture as a representative of the British or American culture, for example, is able to create and decode conceptual metaphors only if they are based on their own linguoculture.

One of the most widespread metaphoric models that can be found in the descriptions of the Ukrainian president is the model ‘president – ruler’.

All the newspapers first of all associate P. Poroshenko with his business connected with sweets and chocolate:

Chocolate king (The Wall Street Journal 23.05.2014), (The Guardian 25.05.2014), (The Times 18.05.2014), (The Week 07.06.2014), (The New York Times 25.05.2014)

Chocolate tycoon (The Washington Post 25.05. 2014), (The Guardian 23.05.2015)

a chocolate magnate (The Washington Post 26.05. 2014)

candy tycoon (The Washington Post 23.05. 2014)

confectionary tycoon (The Week 07.06.2014)

former chocolate magnate (The Daily Telegraph 24.12.2014)

a confections tycoon (The New York Times 25.05.2014)

famed chocolate oligarch (The Daily Telegraph 25.02.2014)

‘Chocolate king’ is the most popular nomination of P. Poroshenko which came into use long before his presidency. As one can see, it turned out to be popular in the foreign press. The metaphor ‘president – ruler’ is realized on the basis of the nouns *‘king’, ‘tycoon’, ‘magnate’, ‘oligarch’* united by the general meaning of wealth, success and power:

King – the male ruler of an independent state that has a royal family; a person, an animal or a thing that is thought to be the best or most important of a particular type;

Tycoon – a person who is successful in business or industry and has become rich and powerful;

Magnate – a person who is rich, powerful and successful, especially in business;

Oligarch – an extremely rich and powerful person, especially in Russia who became rich in business after the end of the former Soviet Union; a member of an oligarchy [7]

Among those mentioned the word *'king'* has definitely positive connotation as it renders the superlative degree of the positive quality *'the best', 'the most important'*. The words *'magnate'* and *'tycoon'* have similar definitions pointing solely at the business sphere while *'oligarch'* implies enrichment indirectly connected with politics, especially in the former USSR. Besides, an oligarch evokes associations with the system of oligarchy which Ukraine has been trying so much to get rid off. Consequently phrases with the nouns '*tycoon', 'king', 'magnate'* might be referred to the positive axiological units whereas *'oligarch'* to the negative ones.

Realization of the image of '*Chocolate king'* in the newspapers is accompanied with the description of the business of P. Poroshenko as an empire:

Poroshenko took over state confectionary plants and transformed them into a lucrative empire. (Guardian 25.05.2014)

According to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary the word *«empire»* possesses two meanings:

1) a group of countries or states that are controlled by one ruler or government;
2) a group of commercial organizations controlled by one person or company [7]

So, the metaphorical meaning of the word '*empire'* as a big well-developed private business under control of one person is fixed in the dictionary and may be referred to as a trite metaphor.

One more frequently met metaphorical model is 'president – captain of the ship' which occurs in the descriptions of P. Poroshenko's participation in the protests on Maidan. In the article in The Washington post it is said how P. Poroshenko tried to stop armed clashes between the violent youth and the riot police:

joined the Maidan movement and helped steer it away from violence (The Washington Post 25.05.2014).

Here there is the verb *'steer'* which has several meanings in the dictionary among which one is transitive:

1)to control the direction in which a boat, car, etc. moves;

2)(of a boat, car, etc.) to move in a particular direction;

3)[transitive] to take control of a situation and influence the way in which it develops [7]

With the help of this verb the image of P. Poroshenko – captain is created who is at the steering wheel and takes the whole responsibility doing his best to avoid an accident.

The metaphor 'president – captain' is also realized in the sentences where it is said that being an avowed supporter of the European integration P. Poroshenko is nevertheless ready to negotiate with Russia:

promises to navigate between Russia and the West (The Washington Post 25.05. 2014)

is considered well-placed to navigate between the two camps (The Washington Post 26.05.2014)

By the lexeme '*navigate*' the author depicts the country as a ship and P. Poroshenko as the captain who can successfully pass between two obstacles. In the second example there is also a compound adjective *'well-placed' (being in a good position or have a good opportunity to do sth.[7])* positively assessing the role of P. Poroshenko in building the relationships with both Europe and Russia.

Is it possible to single out one more metaphorical model 'president – intermediary'. Several newspapers mention that P. Poroshenko will be able to unite the pro-Western and pro-Russian residents of Ukraine:

a pragmatist capable of bridging Ukraine's divide between supporters and foes of Moscow (The Daily Telegraph 25.05.2014)

tried to straddle the political divide between the Ukrainian-speaking west and Russian-speaking east (The New York Times 29.03.2014)

In the examples above one deals with the metaphorical use of the verbs '*bridge' (to from or built a bridge over something [7])* and *'straddle' (to cross, or exist on both sides of, a river, a road or an area of land [7]),* which imply that the new Ukrainian President will be able to construct some kind of political bridge uniting people with different views.

On the background of uniting people with different political interests the metaphor of game unfolds: *'was careful to play both sides' (The Guardian 23.05.2014)*, where the sides again represent the residents of Ukraine supporting opposing political parties.

As one can spot that the majority of the metaphors create positive image of the new political leader of Ukraine. However the newspaper The Week presents a very brief commentary that doesn't mention the new president directly but hints that P. Poroshenko is not the leader which Ukraine requires:

Ukraine still lacks the leader it really needs: a career politician without baggage. (The Week 27. 05. 2014)

In the phrase '*a career politician without baggage'* there is a realization of the second, transitive, meaning of the word *'baggage'*:

1) bags, cases, etc. that contain sb's clothes and things when they are travelling;
2) the beliefs and attitudes that sb has as a result of their past experiences [7]

In the given context the experience of P. Poroshenko in the previous Ukrainian governments is considered to be his baggage.

Summing up, with the help of conceptual metaphor the following image of the Ukrainian president is created: a successful businessman who after the collapse of Soviet Union became one of the richest people in Ukraine having developed a lucrative business products of which are very popular; P. Poroshenko is rather well-known as the representative of former Ukrainian governments who later joined the protests on Maidan; he is a pro-European leader who is ready to negotiate with both Russia and Europe and who can unite the whole Ukraine and has all chances to be successful in that.

Having analyzed all the examples it is possible to say that in the modern press metaphors are actively used as stylistic devices that increase the information value and expressiveness of the message by associations that they evoke with the transitive use of words. Metaphors in the texts very often interact with the evaluative vocabulary taking part in the realization of the most important functions of mass media – persuasion and emotional impact on the reader.

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ПРАГМАТИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ АНГЛОЯЗЫЧНОГО РЕКЛАМНОГО ДИСКУРСА В СЕТИ ИНТЕРНЕТ

Статья посвящена определению особенностей англоязычного рекламного дискурса баннерной рекламы в сети Интернет и концептуальных основ его построения, выявлению способов реализации прагматической установки данного дискурса и определению взаимосвязи этих аспектов.
Ключевые слова: рекламный дискурс, Интернет-реклама, концепт, когнитивно-дискурсивная парадигма.

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PRAGMATIC FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH-LANGUAGE ADVERTISING DISCOURSE ON THE INTERNET

The main aim of the given paper is to determine key features of the Internet banner advertising, to analyse conceptual foundations of the English-language advertising discourse on the Internet, to observe its overall pragmatic orientation and to explain interconnection between these aspects.

Keywords: advertising discourse, the Internet advertising, concept, discourse analysis

Introduction

The growing social and scholarly interest in advertising communication and the Internet discourse as well as in the issues related to the Internet advertising determines the topicality of the analysis of this discourse perception and its impact on target audience's minds, emotions and behaviour.

This article is aimed to analyse conceptual foundations of the English-language advertising discourse on the Internet, to observe its overall pragmatic orientation and to explain interconnection between these two aspects.

Theoretical background

At first, it should be emphasised that structural, typological, functional and pragmatic features of the Internet advertising discourse are determined, on the one hand, by the characteristics of the advertising discourse and, on the other hand, by the specific nature of information and communication processes on the Internet.

For example, the wide use of directives (speech acts, which according to John R. Searle, are focused on calling the addressee to action [5]) in the Internet advertising discourse is explained by the final objective of advertising in general – to inspire engagement and stimulate addressee's action. Even the well-known banner advertising phrase – "click for more" – is also a directive.

At the same time, the use of implicatures (the term "implicature" refers to what is meant by the utterance but not expressed directly or implied indirectly by the utterance [1]) in Web banners is motivated, in its turn, by the tendency to language means economy in the Internet discourse in general.

It should be also noticed that in the conceptual structure of the English-language advertising the basic concept is the artifact "product being advertised" represented by a set of conceptual metaphors. The choice of metaphorical model depends on the type of product.

Results and discussion

In practice, the Internet banner advertising is generally aimed not only at increasing sales but also at creating brand image. Features of mental image of the product constructed in recipient's mind directly depend on the type of goods, services or ideas advertised. Furthermore, the product and its image determine the choice of expressive stylistic devices and persuasive language techniques.

Two types of advertisements – car and cosmetics banners – have been analysed. The analysis has shown that in car banners metaphors are used basically for advertised artifact conceptualisation in order to create memorable image of a product and its basic features. The widely used metaphorical model in this case is the anthropomorphic metaphor, for example: *Sporty character, modern looks and good value (Mazda)* or *Setting new standards in luxury. Intelligent. Sophisticated. Visionary… (Lexus).*

In contrast with a car purchase, the choice of cosmetics attracts buyers' attention to the effect of the use of the product rather than to the product itself. The most productive metaphors in this case are military metaphors. The turn to the source-area 'war' helps to create recognisable images of the product as a weapon, the process of its use as a battle and the reasons for its use (wrinkles, dry hair, etc.) as an enemy. For example, *Be the first to experience cutting edge technology to combat the signs of accelerated aging, created by Dr. Nicholas Perricone* or *Powderflage set. Light-diffusing powder concealer for under eyes & face. For camouflaging dark circles & fine lines, powderflage is fast, light & breezy!*

In the latter example military metaphor is supported by non-verbal means. The background against which one can see the text is a picture similar to camouflage. Also one can see an image of army dog tag. The idea to make this banner in a form of semiotically heterogeneous polycode text helps to simplify its perception and to increase its persuasive effect.

As it has already been pointed out, the use of directives in banner advertising is motivated first and foremost by the main aim of advertising – to provoke action (generally action is intended to be a purchase but in case of banners we can come across another (more specific) action – to click the link).

The use of other types of speech acts is motivated by communication strategies which can be divided into optimising (which optimise the impact of the text) and positioning (which create the positive attitude to the product) [4].

The analysis has shown that nowadays the addresser is trying to diminish the direct impact which can be perceived aggressively by the addressee. In order to avoid unwanted associations and optimise the text impact, the seller uses other types of speech acts along with directives. Thus, optimising strategies can be realised with the help of representatives (technical characteristics of product) or comissives (explanation of addressee's benefits from the purchase).

Positioning strategies can be reflected in the use of expressives which create positive attitude to the product. Expressives reflect mood or attitude of the sender but usually these emotions are prescribed to the receiver as well. For example, the expressive "mom rocks" used in Jewelry Store "Zales" banner *Mom rocks. Mother's Day is May 10th. Now through May 3rd Save 10% Storewide. Diamond and Black Enamel in Sterling Silver Your Choice Now $ 134.99* is aimed at showing the sender's emotions which are shared by a wide range of recipients. The use of colloquial expression helps to create the close contact of two communicants which facilitates the advertisement perception.

The manipulatory potential of banner advertising can be increased by the use of implicatures. Implicatures help to achieve addresser's pragmatic aims such as, for example, to create the vivid mental image of the product.

The tendency to language economy is inherent for the Internet communication. In banner advertising we can come across 3 types of implicatures: conventional, theoretical and communicative [1; 6].

Conventional implicatures in the majority of cases are introduced by personal pronoun "you" and possessive pronoun "your" that help to create the effect that the product has been created namely for the addressee. For example, *Whether you're looking to look amazing or simply start living healthier, we have the right regime for you. Space. NK London. www.spacenk.com*. Sometimes conventional implicatures are created by the use of questions that attract recipient's attentions, i.e. realise the phatic function of language [3].

Theoretical implicatures are based on the main characteristics of the product or positive effect after its use and this information finally leads to the decision to buy it. Very often theoretical implicatures are created by the introduction of expert opinion. For example, *BRAUN Oral-B Toothbrush. Complete Mouth Care. The Brand More Dentists Use Themselves Worldwide.*

Communicative implicatures are created by reconsideration of basic communication principles, for example, the relevance principle, according to which two segments of information in one advertising text should necessarily be connected. In Nivea for Men banner *45% of guys claim that their appearance has helped fast truck their career* addressee connects the brand name and the statement that "45% of guys claim that their appearance has helped fast truck their career". With the help of the relevance principle he comes to the conclusion essential for the sender – Nivea for Men can help to improve the appearance and can guarantee promotion at work.

The perlocutionary effect of the Internet advertising discourse can be also achieved by the use of socioculturally marked units.

The most distinctive techniques are appeal to national and cultural concepts of the target audience and the use of precedented phenomena together with the reconsideration of addressee's cognitive stereotypes.

The appeal to recipient's language picture of the world and stereotypes helps advertiser to form in addressee's mind the vivid image of a product, created especially for him (or her).

Thus, in US banner advertising we often come across the appeal to concepts 'individualism' and 'independence' crucial for the American culture, as L. H. Kohls underlines in his article "The Values Americans Live By" [7]. For example, in Maybelline New York banner *Don't judge me. Don't hide me. Don't change me. FITME foundation. Flawless that lets the real you come through* the main aim of the addresser is to show the individuality of the addressee. We can pay attention to the opposition "don't judge me", "don't hide me", "don't change me" – "FITME" (which is the brand name of the advertised cosmetics line). As it has been pointed out, in cosmetics banners the main aim is to create the memorable image of the effect of the product ("that lets the real you come through").

The second technique is reconsideration of audience's main cognitive stereotypes. For example, in Ralph Lauren Golf banner *Tee off in style with a master of heritage sportswear* we can notice the new element introduced into the phrasal verb "tee off" which is normally used in the context of golf play and means "to drive the ball from a tee" [8]. With the help of the element "in style" the verb from the semantic field "golf play" receives new connotation (make the first stroke – make the first step to style with Ralph Lauren Golf).

Appeal to precedented phenomena is usually aimed at creating memorable image of advertised product in a particular sociocultural community. In banner advertising we come across precedented names which very often have a high social popularity namely at the moment of advertising placement. For example, in nail polish Butter London banner *Limited Edition Lacquer. No More Waity, Katie. Snag your prince and make wedding bells ring* precedented name is "Waity Katie", the nickname which Kate Middlton, Prince William's girlfriend got from tabloid press. The high expressivity of the text is reached also by reconsideration of a cognitive stereotype. The advertisement has been placed in mid-April 2011, two weeks before the Royal Wedding, the event which reconsidered the cognitive stereotype 'Waity Katie'.

Conclusions

It should be specially emphasized that these conclusions prove the possibility and necessity to apply the cognitive-pragmatic approach to the analysis of other types of advertising discourse. Future development of the analysis should consider other types of the English-language advertising and compare them with the material of the present paper.

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О СОДЕРЖАНИИ ОБУЧЕНИЯ ДЕЛОВОМУ ОБЩЕНИЮ СТУДЕНТОВ ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО ПРОФИЛЯ

В статье рассматриваются некоторые вопросы определения содержания речевой деятельности в процессе делового и профессионального общения на иностранном языке студентов лингвистического профиля обучения, исследуются основы для определения содержания обучения и проблемы теории и практики, требующие более глубоких исследований. К таковым относятся отбор лексики и грамматики и их дифференциация в зависимости от коммуникативных целей обучения; упорядочение наиболее профессионально значимых тем и ситуаций общения; создание системы деловых игр/case study и др. Статья может быть использована при разработке учебно-методических материалов по английскому языку делового и профессионального общения.

Ключевые слова: содержание обучения деловому общению, коммуникация в деловой сфере, отбор основных ситуаций общения.

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ON THE BUSINESS INTERCOURSE SYLLABUS MEANT FOR THE STUDENTS MAJORING IN LINGUISTICS

The article reviews some issues related to selecting linguistic content for teaching business and professional foreign language intercourse to students majoring in linguistics. It also analyzes the essentials of shaping the course content as well as the problems of theory and practice requiring further in-depth research. In particular, selecting appropriate vocabularies and grammatical patterns and classifying them depending on communicative purposes of teaching; streamlining essential professional topics and communication scenarios; developing a simulation exercise and case study system among them, etc. The article can be used to work out methodical guides and courseware for teaching business and professional English.
Key words: business intercourse training, communication in business, selecting the major communicative situations.

Introduction

Developing the business intercourse training scheme shall be based on an interdisciplinary approach and learning goals and objectives (shaping relevant competencies in the said field of communication). Business intercourse is characterized by uniformity, similarity of speech acts in many situations [2; 3]. Namely for this reason the communicative minimum of the training program has to rely on the procedures set forth below:

- selecting and describing the major socio-communicative roles typical of this area of communication and their patterns;

- classifying and specifying the basic types of the situations related to performing the core communicative roles;

- singling out essential communicative intentions, their situational and thematic relatedness;

- creating text areas of monologic (documentary, journalistic, scientific) and dialogic texts adequately featuring the core situations and communicative roles, their combining due to the method of expressing contextual parameters of communication in the field of business discourse;

- making a catalogue of speech acts, their grouping and methodological interpretation.

It should be noted that the functional minimum of the business intercourse training program for the students majoring in linguistics has also to be shaped with reliance on the communicative activity approach. At the heart of the would-be scholars professional competence there has to be the basic knowledge in Theory of Linguistics and Theory of the Target Language (phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, stylistics) [1; 4; 5]. The above knowledge shall be a certain foundation, which is the basis of getting a thorough grasp of occupational centric business communication training. The core element of this information embraces the linguistic courses basic concepts: Theory of Speech Acts, Theory of Intercultural Communication, et al. The students have to know and understand what communication and the field of intercourse mean, the specific character of communication in business, what a speech act is, what speech situation and verbal act stand for, what main components of a speech situation mainly affect the verbal fabric of utterances. Studying typical situations of the business intercourse sphere, role positions and role configurations, major tactics and strategies of communication will not only enhance their linguistic competence, but will also become a significant factor in maintaining their motivation in the learning process, as well as their conscious approach to mastering the instructional material. Another important information block contributing to taking in the course shall be the students' knowledge on General Stylistics, the Stylistics of the Russian and Target (English) Languages, as well as practical knowledge of stylistic norms in the field of their native and target languages. It is quite obvious that the mastery of the rules of business communication in a foreign language is achieved more successfully in case the learner possesses relevant competences in their native language.

Thus, the syllabus structure for the students majoring in linguistics with regard to teaching business communication is a complex one and has a multi-level format, including both theoretical knowledge in the field of the theory of speech acts, stylistics and intercultural communication, and a set of speech skills that make up the communicative competence of the students.

In fact, business communication is rather stereotypical and verbal clichés and formulas are in this case related to the specific roles of the communicative act participants rather than to the subject matter of communication. The role-based representation of the speech material is most conducive to its activation and retention at the stage of intensification and development. The role-based structuring of the speech material involves the study of topics, as it relates to communicative situations. The roles and role configurations set forth below are most representative of business intercourse as a specific discourse: a legal entity (the State and an enterprise of any incorporation form and referring to any field of activities); a natural person (supervisor, employee, representative of a legal person, petitioner). Legal persons communicate only in a written documented form (various categories of documents); communication between corporations and individuals is also performed in a written documented form, but in this case slightly different categories of documents are used; communication between individuals can be performed both in a written documented form and orally. Verbal communication in this case can be monostylistic, or may include various stylistic elements determined by the communicative situation parameters (addressee, conditions set, information sender).

Results and discussion

The business sphere language acquisition on the basis of contextual setup of the verbal and lexical and grammatical material becomes a major motivation aspect for the students learning English for occupational purposes, as this kind of knowledge implies a possibility to receive and impart information related to future professional activities. Selecting the major communicative situations to study shall comply with several parameters: firstly, the course unit schedule "Microeconomics, or Economy of an Enterprise" has to be analyzed in detail; secondly, it is necessary to analyze the study guides and resource books; and third is to examine the textbooks, manuals and training materials on business communication in terms of their content. Upon summarizing the data obtained, we have identified the following topics and their constituents:

1. Employment. The documents required for the applicant to be employed (application form, resume, CV, covering letters, recognition letters). Interview. Actions taken when hunting for a job. Staff recruitment advertisements. Presentation. Discussing the working conditions: wages/ salary, PTO, insurance.

2. At the company. Getting to know the company and the fellow workers. Working place/ area and responsibilities of an interpreter/ translator, an office manager, a sales agent. Office setup: premises, inventory and logistics management of activities, the workplace. Types of companies in the US and Great Britain: partnerships, limited liability companies, joint ventures and funds. Business card of an employee.

3. Being on the phone all day long. Telephone conversations and negotiations. Fax machine, e-mail, telegram, telex. The main abbreviations used in business correspondence. The structure of a

business letter. Differences between the British and American variants in business correspondence.

4. Visit of a foreign partner: telephone call, booking a hotel room, picking up at the airport. Getting acquainted, greetings, acknowledgements and thanks, saying goodbye, forms of address. Arrival in the country (customs and passport control, at the airport, at the railway station, schedule, urban transport). Accompanying the foreign partner.

5. Getting to know the firm, the company presentation. Corporate culture. The main activities of small and medium-sized businesses: wholesale and retail trade, services, production of consumer goods. Presentation of the goods. Letter of Offer.

6. Partnership proposal, negotiations. Letter of Inquiry. Cooperation Agreement. Statement of Intent. Business agent work. Advertising agent work. Order, its confirmation and declining the order. Advertising copy, its types. Advertising copies in various types of media. Advertising copies origination system.

7. Entering into contract (subject of the contract, delivery time, payment terms, dispatch documentation, warranties, packaging, marking the goods, insurance, sanctions). Basic terms of delivery. Differences in the American and British variants of the business intercourse language in this area.

8. Discussing the financial terms of the transaction. Corporate finance (monetary assets, form of payment, cash and non-cash resources, currency). Payment as an important part of any commercial transaction. Letters of payment and reminder letters. Payment terms for mediation services. Cash and cheques in England and the United States.

9. A staff conference at the boss's office. Conflicts at work and ways to settle them. Considering a situation in the company. Analyzing the company's activities: reading and commenting on the charts, graphs. Career of a company's employee, career growth.

10. Unfortunate situation (claims and complaints, breach of delivery specifications: short delivery, delay in delivery, damage, breach of contract, force majeure). Letter of complaint and writing back.

We have to define the primary objectives with regard to each contextual unit, which is in this instance the basic unit of training.

Practical goals and objectives of the course can be instantiated in the requirements to communication skills in all forms of speech activity or language behaviour associated with perception and discourse production, interaction (dialogic communication) and mediation (translation and interpretation).

Thus, in speaking the students have to be capable of monologic and dialogic speech in the business intercourse field, they can draw up a statement/notification and a report on a particular topic, engage in conversation, interview or discussion related to the proposed situational minimum. The students have to be able to properly realize their own communicative intention, thereat their speech should possess qualities such as consistency, richness, clarity, coherence, semantic and structural perfection; it has to comply with linguistic norms, as well as pragmatic and cultural and social settings, updated in business communication. While listening comprehension, the students have to be able to recognize the meaning of both the original recording (spontaneous monologue and dialogic speech, being guided by the covered language material, cultural and social knowledge and the skills of contextual deduction) and immediate, face-to-face business communication. The students have to be capable of official writing within the limits of the studied material; they know the major officialese text genres and produce them in accordance with the linguistic norms and pragmatic parameters of the discourse. The students manage the basic types of reading: the reading aimed at understanding the basic content of the text; the reading aimed at the most accurate and adequate understanding of the text focused on observing linguistic phenomena; the reading meant to quickly spot some specific information.

In the course of learning English as a language of business communication the students master a certain range of speech acts to render factual information, express intellectual relationships, affective evaluation, persuasion or influencing the interlocutor; they get acquainted with the peculiarities of functioning the formulas of speech etiquette in a business discourse; they also learn to structure both spoken and written language.

For example, in the field of speech etiquette a student should be able to:

- draw the attention of the interlocutor,
- use formal and informal ways to address people, be able to adequately react to them,
- get acquainted with a business partner, introduce their colleagues, react to the introductions,
- say goodbye, express their wish for further cooperation,
- bring and accept apologies,
- thank the partner (colleague), properly react to the thanks and acknowledgement,
- express understanding or lack thereof; ask to say something again, to clarify, to explain the abovesaid,
- rephrase and explain in other words,
- enquire whether the interlocutor has understood their words,
- make a compliment, courtesy, convey good wishes and react to them in a proper way,
- express sympathy, condolences, and react to them in a proper way.

When structuring their speech, the student shall:

- constantly do self-correction,
- be able to introduce the topic, change the subject;
- properly express their own opinion;
- generalize, draw conclusions, summarize the abovesaid;

- initiate the interlocutor's attention, evaluate the measure of the interlocutor's attention to their own speech;
- encourage the interlocutor to continue the speech;
- tactfully interrupt the interlocutor, inducing him/her to change the subject.

In terms of expressing factual information the student should be able to draw up and structure the statement in compliance with its design and topic; adjust, specify and clarify information. In terms of expressing intellectual relations and conditions the student should be able to express agreement / disagreement, knowledge / non-awareness, to express the degree of probability or relevance of something, come out with suppositions, express certainty / uncertainty, competence / incompetence, ability / inability to do something; express the desire, need, intention, and preference. The student shall be able to properly or contextually express their affective evaluations and perceive the affective evaluations by the interlocutor (sympathy, benevolence, interest, disappointment, concernment, regret, etc.). The student has to learn to influence their interlocutor: offer help, assistance, advice; express warnings and encouragement to action; volunteer, accept offers; give unambiguous or evasive answers.

Conclusions

The above list of speech skills and speech acts of a student is formed in the course of lessons based on the contextual principle. The special practical course framework may come out with and address a great number of different tasks, but the core problem has always been shaping speech skills in those types and forms of communication, which are the basis of their training and future professional engagement.

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СОВРЕМЕННЫЕ КОНЦЕПЦИИ РАЗВИТИЯ МЕЖКУЛЬТУРНОЙ ДЕЛОВОЙ КОММУНИКАЦИИ В ЯЗЫКОЗНАНИИ

В статье рассмотрены проблемы динамики развития межкультурной деловой коммуникации, а также приведены определения лингвокультурологии, межкультурной деловой коммуникации. В работе приводятся переменные, составляющие коммуникативный процесс.

Ключевые слова: межкультурная деловая коммуникация, лингвокультурология, коммуникативное поведение.

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MODERN CONCEPTS OF INTERCULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION DEVELOPMENT IN LINGUISTICS

The article is devoted to the problems of dynamics of intercultural business communication development. The definitions of linguoculturology and intercultural business communication are given in the article. The variables composing the communicative process are analysed in the article.
Key words: intercultural business communication, linguoculturology, language, communicative behaviour.

Introduction

Linguistics is experiencing the reassessment of values, constructively interpreting methodological, social and anthropological studies.

The works and ideas by Ferdinand de Saussure, J. N. I. Baudouin de Courtenay, L.V. Scherba, R.O. Jacobson, A.A. Leontiev, L.P. Yakubinsky and others are in the focus of many researchers as they supported and developed the propositions of Ferdinand de Saussure and his vision of a language as a phenomenon.

Problems of language functioning are analysed and interpreted in a range of theories of speech activity, which form the basis of modern theory of communication.

Linguistic encyclopaedic dictionary defines communication as "dialogical? or polylogical communication between people in the process of cognitive and work activity, involving the exchange of ideas, information, thoughts, etc." [7, 233].

"Communication" and "interaction": concepts under consideration

The most common concepts that will be widely used in our work are "communication" and "interaction".

According to A.V. Kravchenko, the biggest part of the communicative activity is implemented by people through their language activities related to the exchange of information. Thus, there is an involuntary substitution of the concepts when these terms are used. The most evident attribute of the phenomenon, i.e. language activities, is identified with the phenomenon itself i.e. communication. At the language level it is reflected in simultaneous existence of the concepts "communication" and "interaction" which are often understood as synonyms [6, 39].

Communication is a form of people's interaction in the process of social contacts. There are a number of scholars (among them A.A. Leontiev and others) who identify communication with interaction. Usually interaction refers to diversified phenomenon, namely the interaction of social persons, their exchange of activities and skills, as well as the results of the activities. Communication is considered as the informative aspect of interaction. According to psychologists, communication is the process of sharing the products of mental activity, while sociologists believe that communication plays a crucial role in conveying social information.

These definitions explain the same phenomenon from the perspective of different sciences.

"Communication can be seen as a necessary and universal condition of human life and activity, and one of the fundamental pillars of society existence. Society is not so much an aggregate of individuals, as the connections and relationships which these individuals have. ... Every new researcher when faced with the problems of human interaction finds that communicative problems are perhaps the most confusing "[3, 57].

In Great Britain “communication” is defined as follows: "exchange of messages between two or more parties, which is characterised by intentional use of mutually intelligible systems." This definition was developed by M. Hewstone and W. Stroebe [14, 27]. Many other definitions may vary in their wording, but, in fact, they mean the same thing.

As this definition rules out the possibility of interacting without deliberate intention, it cannot be considered as universal: habits and emotions are seen as impulses for communication without deliberate intention.

In the "Dictionary of Logic DEFORT" we can find: "COMMUNICATION" is the exchange of information between objects, bearers of natural or artificial intelligence, and later in the same dictionary we read that "interaction means the same as communication" [5, 162].

As N.A. Balandina rightly noted in her work, researchers present the phenomenon of communication in many studies as a method of modelling. "The building of communication models is used by researchers as a means of understanding the nature and mechanisms of human interaction. This process resulted in appearance of models of communication that reproduce the constituent elements and functional characteristics of the communication process in the form of diagrams. Naturally the content of a model depends on the concept of the researcher who has developed this model, the needs of the sphere of science, which it belongs to, etc. Although a model reproduces some features of the modelled object, it is not a "reflection of reality", let alone not a “reality itself "[2, 37].

For example, the model of Shannon and W. Weaver, describing the process of information transferring, consists of five elements: source, sender, channel, receiver, and the ultimate goal, which are arranged in a linear sequence [15, 76].

Later on the model was revised according to the advances in other scientific fields. After the revision the model obtained six components: source, encoder, message, channel, decoder and receiver.

R.O. Jacobson interpreted ideas developed by C. Shannon. The context in the Jacobson’s model includes the message content and information transferred; the concept of context is connected with the regulatory aspects of communication [12, 43].

This model and its variants are used to study the functions of language, as well as to analyse the operation of certain language units, speech and text generation.

All models prove the ambiguity of the communication process, which forces scientists to develop them taking into account various factors.

The pivotal role in models is assigned to the circumstances of interaction, in which an important component is a context. The circumstances are conditions, time and place of interaction, as well as psychological and social features of participants (psychosociosphere) [11, 35].

Therefore, communication cannot be described only as a process of exchange of meanings, ideas, data, etc. Communication consists of the exchange of necessary information, and in the establishing liaison between business partners. Language, linguistic personality, gestures, traditions and national character, etc, play a crucial role in intercultural business communication.

Cultural differences pose difficulties to intercultural business communication of business partners of different nationalities who constantly communicate with each other, solve problems related to their professional field. Knowledge of socio-cultural factors helps to eliminate common mistakes and misunderstandings in intercultural business communication, so recently the emphasis in foreign languages studies has been shifted to the socio-cultural factors and communication problems. Intercultural business communication is an art and its mastering can help overcome a cultural shock, reach mutual understanding with a foreign business partner.

Intercultural business communication is determined not only by social factors, but also by stereotyped behavioural culture traditions of communicants. Business partners use a foreign language and simultaneously acquire cultural knowledge, as well as form the ability to understand the mentality of other languages speakers.

Intercultural studies were first carried out in the United States with the aim to identify and study the issues of cooperation among people belonging to various racial and ethnic groups. The development of intercultural communication theory is taking place under the conditions of differences in standards, values, thinking and behaviour specific to various cultures. From the perspective of a multicultural reality the communication process that occurs in different linguo-cultural systems results in mutual influence and interpenetration of cultures of societies' members.

The problem of parallel study of language and culture is not accidental. E. Hatch believes that culture consists of traditional ways of thinking, behaviour, etiquette, economic activity, etc, which are handed down from generation to generation and are reflected in the language as national realities [13, 27].

Nowadays the cultural framework of foreign languages studies has been broadened. This is proved in research of language and culture interrelation carried out by leading foreign linguists, psychologists and methodologists.

Linguoculturology is a discipline that studies the manifestation, reflection and integration of culture in language and discourse. It is directly connected with the study of the national worldview, the linguistic consciousness, specific features of the mental and linguistic complex [11, 34].

Language is a universal means of interaction and its study should not be confined to the extent of its system. Language functions as a means of existing private, public and social experience in communication. Language is not only a means of interaction, but also as a means of world perception and cognition in the process of human interaction. Language as a social phenomenon consists of cultural, communicative, developing, educational and integrative and personal components.

The study of language units reflecting national and cultural characteristics of the native speaker – culture-bound terms, connotative and background vocabulary from the point of view of official-business parlance – promotes linguistic and cultural component of business communications.

In general, language regardless of the age, country or school of thought is a means of communication and the engine of thought. There are a lot of functions that are attributed to language. The connection between language and culture is obvious. It can be traced not only at the functional level, but also at the structural one. The main and basic function of culture is communicative.

Since language is a means of communication, it is a social and national phenomenon. Therefore, language reflects the world outlook and behaviour norms inherent in a particular language community.

Language accumulates and stores the prior knowledge about the referent. Language is a part of the social memory, a set of meanings forming the approximate basis of activities.

The interaction of culture and language from the standpoint of cultural and national identity and its sign nature are in the centre of interest of linguoculturology.

Human mind is ethnically determined. A certain system of social and ethnic stereotypes is at the heart of people's worldview and outlook. Ethno-cultural specificity is always traced in the genre of intercultural business discourse.

Ethno-socio-cultural factor is revealed in the national-ethnic characteristics of the thought wording. Mind is determined by the ethnic stereotypes of behaviour and are not realised by the culture bearer.

Studying culture in terms of semiotics contributes to the creation of prerequisites for the functioning of linguoculturology in general meta-language both for culture and language.

Therefore, culture is dependent on mind, speech and behavioural patterns, systems of signs, socially transferred knowledge and experience.

For successful intercultural business communication participants need verbal cooperation to understand and use the knowledge available to the native speakers. According to the approach of V.N. Telia "culture deals with non-discrete way of thinking, it "speaks" the language of coherent and at the same time non-linear fuzzy categories; the conceptual understanding of culture categories is expressed in natural language "[11, 82]. This approach has given rise to the so-called 'linguosynergetic' theory of language (highly productive in relation to language of business) in terms of a holistic non-linear dynamic analysis [10].

Because of expanding international relations in various spheres problems of intercultural business communication gain a special importance when the communication process takes place in a mismatch of the national-cultural patterns of thinking and behaviour including situations of business cooperation.

We understand communicative behaviour as rules and traditions of interaction in the process of communication realised by a particular linguo-cultural group of people.

T. Astafurova singles out the following "types of communicative behaviour, which appear in: a) the specificity of communicative behaviour of foreign society (universally valid rules: rules and traditions); b) the peculiarities of communicative behaviour of business society representatives according to professional norms, rules and traditions of such a behaviour"[1, 59].

However, it is worth specifying the concept of "the goal of intercultural business interaction" and "circumstances of intercultural business interaction." The informal conversation between two businessmen can hardly be attributed to the intercultural business communication. To identify the conversation as a case of intercultural business communication, it should be a formal interaction between business partners of different nationalities and involve intercultural business oral or written verbal contact.

The speaker's intention as a social motive when entering into business contact influences the nature of intercultural business communication. So the initial intentions of communicants may be classified as idealising, neutral or denying. The consequence of the negative mood may be a simplification, underestimation or distortion of information.

The developing over time cognitive image of communicative situation acts as one of the conditions for successful intercultural business intercourse, text generation and its interpretation, and looking wider – cooperation. This image contains the cognitive awareness of conventions, ceremony norms, roles of communicative activities, i.e. it has a socio-cultural character. Information of socio-cultural nature is usually organised in the form of frames, scripts or schemes [4, 130].

The participants of this process are focused on achieving the goal. The regulated nature of the process (restrictions in national and cultural traditions, professional and ethical guidelines) is one of the specific features of intercultural business communication. Intercultural business communication includes transferring, exchanging and receiving business or professional information flowing from one business partner to another through verbal and non-verbal means of communication.

We consider intercultural business communication the most appropriate for our study, because it is wider and is defined as the transfer of information between business partners using audio-visual means or without them. Consequently, we can talk about different kinds of communication – popular, political, public and other types of communication related to the exchange of information in various professional fields.

"Information transferring can be carried out in three communicative forms: 1) monologue, dominated by one-way information transferring from the communication initiator to information recipient; 2) dialogue, in which communicants interact being mutually active. This form of communication is characterised by the exchange of information. Achievement of an agreed solution becomes important in the dialogical form of communication; 3) polylogue, which is a form of a multilateral dialogue. The nature of this form of communication can be described as a struggle for taking the lead in communication, which has to be implemented as effectively as possible "[4, 56].

Conclusion

Intercultural business communication is a complex process of establishing, maintaining and developing contacts between people of different nationalities in the professional field, originating in a mismatch of national and cultural stereotypes of thinking and behaviour and socially accepted rules and standards and as a result achieving business agreement between the parties concerned [8; 9].

In our study we analysed rather specific linguistic material that alongside regulatory and communicative situations of different business communication genres is based on episodes that demonstrate atypical verbal and non-verbal patterns.

Besides functional and pragmatic analysis of examples of different business communication genres that reflect stereotypes of verbal behaviour, special attention was paid to the etiquette rules of modern business field, which resulted either in successful business communication, or in a breach of its norms.

Professional human activity is characterised by the diversity of functions. Numerous scientific studies in this area indicate that almost all professional activity of the person is associated with intercultural business communication (oral and written): a job interview, business meetings, negotiations, presentations, business correspondence, etc.

People of different occupations most of their time spend in intercultural business communication, as it is the most popular communication in society.

Thus, from the perspective of different sciences communication can fulfil a number of functions including: 1) informative; 2) interactive; 3) gnosiological; 4) axiological; 5) standard; 6) social, etc.

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РЕЧЕВЫЕ СТРАТЕГИИ В КОНФЛИКТНЫХ КОММУНИКАТИВНЫХ СИТУАЦИЯХ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКОГО ДИСКУРСА

В статье описывается прагматический потенциал средств речевого планирования в английском экономическом дискурсе. Речевые стратегии и тактики призваны гармонизировать конфликтное пространство профессионального общения. Автор подчеркивает, что адекватный подбор речевых средств приумножает их функциональный потенциал и усиливает прагматический эффект воздействия на слушателя.
Ключевые слова: функциональная прагматика, экономический дискурс, улаживание конфликта, речевые стратегии и тактики.

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DISCURSIVE STRATEGIES IN CONFLICT COMMUNICATIVE SITUATIONS OF ENGLISH ECONIMIC DISCOURSE

The article aims at describing the pragmatic potential of speech planning resources in English economic discourse. Discursive strategies and tactics serve to harmonise the conflict space of professional communication. The author highlights that it is important to understand how appropriate arrangement of speech tools multiplies their functional potential and intensifies the pragmatic impact produced on the recipient.

Key words: functional pragmatics, economic discourse, conflict management, discursive strategies and tactics

Introduction

In modern circumstances of intensive global economic relations conflict management is of great importance as the actors of economic discourse (economists, officials involved in economic policy, representatives of business circles etc.) have to interact effectively i.e. for mutual benefit in spite of different positions. These positions may hinder effective discourse in various situations and correspondingly speech registers: negotiations, meetings, commercial correspondence, reports, news, press conferences, interviews etc. In addition to economy being a sphere of practical interests' clash conflict or misunderstanding can occur in verbal communication at external level (between companies and institutions) as well as internal one (inside organizations). Hence the necessity of harmonizing economic discourse, linguistic analysis of verbal tools influencing practical and speech effectiveness and their systematizing.

Theoretical background

Economic discourse is treated as a type of institutional discourse restricted by a certain professionally oriented topic (particularly – economic one) [7] – a heterogeneous unity of communicative events producing economic texts. At that researchers note that it is a broad field that may be actualized in industrial, commercial, administrative or managerial communicative spheres. That is why some linguists identify it with business discourse or consider it to penetrate into business, political or scientific discourse.

The issues of effective communication are studied in the framework of rhetoric, argumentation theory and pragmatics. The latter associates speech impact mechanisms with the notion of discursive strategies and tactics [8, 9]. In linguistic pragmatics discursive strategies are tools which control the result of verbal and practical activity along with the transition of theoretical aims to their practical implementation. In comparison with these discursive tactics are particular practical tools realizing the general theoretical plan of speech interaction (strategy). The aim of this article is to describe the strategies peculiar to economic discourse and the way they help to avoid conflict in professional communication.

Methods and empirical material

Works on pragmatics, functional linguistics and rhetoric [5, 10], economic discourse [3, 4, 6] and conflict theory [1, 2] constitute the theoretical basis for research. Around 700 samples of oral and written discourse of economic, financial and commercial spheres have been analysed. Empiric material has been selected from mass media, authentic business English courses, Internet resources and fiction depicting the life of professional circles. The pragmatic properties of discursive strategies are revealed by method of discourse analysis combined with methods of linguistic description, component and context analysis.

Positive effects of conflict

Communicative conflict is a result of verbal behaviour in which communicative intentions contradict communicative roles of the addressee and the sender. In such aggressive context discursive strategies are applied in case communicative aims of the participant(s) of communication cannot be realized.

Communicative conflict often positively affects movement of partners towards result. For example, it intensifies the process of mutual perception and boosts the ability to adjust to new communicative circumstances. General plan in such situations can be effected by means of discursive strategies of pressure, threatening, competition, avoidance, waiting and others. Corresponding discursive tactics are suppression (1), threat (2), discrediting (3), shift from the topic (4) and others.

(1) *So let's talk a little bit about the testing schedule. Time is short.*

(2) *You will be put behind the bars for that!*

(3) *It seems to me that we are pretty understaffed in the trading area.*

(4) *Would you mind if we took a few minutes to introduce ourselves first?[11]*

For example, the following comments show how historic disputes hinder present economic relations between Greece and Germany.

"Why did Greece not try to negotiate this question when they entered the Eurozone ***by cheating*** *the European Union and the European Central Bank?" <…>*

"Germany and ***especially*** *the German taxpayer is* ***showing solidarity*** *with a* ***difficult*** *situation in Greece and in the end they will* ***send us a bill*** *for something* ***far away*** *in our history and* ***definitely*** *solved". [12]*

A representative of one of German parties makes remarks on Greek demands to take into account after war reparations when giving financial help during recession. All verbal means highlight that these claims are considered groundless: tactic of accusation (*by cheating*), tactic of affront (interrogative form of sentence), tactic of opposition (*showing solidarity – will send us a bill*). Adverbs intensify the degree of indignation (*especially, far away, definitely*). Periphrasis (*send us a bill – demand, away in history – in the past*) makes the discourse more figurative and emotional.

Primary and secondary discursive strayegies

Usage of appropriate discursive strategies and tactics can be a way to overcome these difficulties. The role of discursive strategies is two-fold. On the one hand, their functional purpose is to accumulate the impact potential of separate speech means and result in practical outcomes. On the other hand, they reflect the pragmatic properties of the speakers' discourse – their ability to realize their intentions and modify verbal behaviour of the opponent in the course of speech impact.

One should distinguish between primary and secondary discursive strategies. Primary strategies are used at initial stage of speech influence while secondary ones represent reaction to this influence. For example, in the following excerpt such types of strategies are used to settle some problems in cross-cultural communication at the meeting. It is held by a new head of research department in Brazil Tsao Ming who previously had the experience of working in the USA.

– *Good morning. My name is Tsao Ming and I'm looking forward to working with everyone. We've got a lot on the agenda today, **so let's jump right in**.*

– ***Jump right in?***

– *Oops, I mean, let's get the meeting stared **right away**. So **we'll kick off**, I mean, **start**.*

A member of the team, Carla, represents the conflict party in the dialogue. Min has to defend himself and follow the secondary strategy of cooperation. The manager makes a mistake using colloquial language and idioms appropriate for informal communication (*jump in, kick off*). Carla tries to avoid misunderstanding asking back and thus expressing the necessity of more lucid wording (*Jump right in?*). She resorts to conflict strategy of competition and tactic of discrediting. In the course of the meeting she imposes her own “rules” several times, asking back and interrupting Min.

– *Sorry, Doctor Tsao. But* ***would you mind if we took*** *a few minutes to introduce ourselves before we jump right in?*

– *Oh yes, by all means. And feel free to* ***call me by my surname****, Tsao, and my* ***first name****, Ming. You can* ***drop the Doctor****.*

– *Well, I am Carla Sova and I’ve been with the company for over 15 years, mainly in R&D…*

– *That sounds quite interesting. So let’s talk a little bit about the testing schedule.* ***Time is short*** *and we need to… [11]*

Evidently, in some cultures networking is as important as the subject of discussion. For Carla it is more essential to get an idea of all the participants of discourse. She inquires some personal information (*would you mind if we took a few minutes to introduce ourselves*). Active steps showing initiative by the employee look unusual to the manager but he continues applying the cooperative strategy realizing it by tactic of permission (*You can drop the Doctor*). This way he modifies the system of business relationship explaining how to address him. He prefers informal address peculiar to American linguoculture.

In the course of conflict communication intentions are simultaneously realized through two channels: from sender to recipient and vice versa. So two discursive strategies in one speech act can be singled out. Both speakers and one of them may use the conflict strategy. In the second case one party has to surrender resorting to secondary strategy of concession. In situations of cooperative communication one discursive strategy uniting common aims of partners is applied.

Conflict management strategies

A possible way of conflict strategies' neutralisation may be developing empathy in relationship with partners. For this purpose the following secondary strategies are used: active listening, establishing trust, avoiding the conflict matter, cooperation. Correspondingly, they may be actualized by tactics of repetition (1), periphrasis (2), politeness (3), compromise (4) and others.

(1) *I am the last of all here almost every night. – Aha, last one out every night.*

(2) *There might be issues in work you might not 100% be satisfied with.*

(3) *Yes, can I help you?*

(4) *As you know, a support position is budgeted and we are working on getting someone to help you. [11]*

Interpersonal distance in communication also plays an important role. Too close or too far positioning is unfavorable. This factor can be traced in forms of address like in the following example where a British businessman is avoiding the unfavorable terms imposed on him by a Mexican agent.

'We are looking for an agent to represent the Graham Construction Company in Mexico, Mr. Perez, and you have been highly recommended,' said Sir Hamish, sounding unconvinced by his own statement.

*'**Do call me Victor**.'*

*Sir Hamish **bowed silently** and **shuddered**. There was no way this man was going to be allowed to **call him Hamish**.*

In this dialogue the obvious disagreement in personal distance is reflected in the form of address (*Do call me Victor*). From the first words Victor Perez suggests using first names. Markers of distancing strategy are non-verbal here *(bowed silently and shuddered).* The British traditional notion of politeness doesn't let Hamish Graham use inappropriate address to almost unfamiliar partner in formal discourse. Moreover, his being late, untidy appearance and frivolous manner raise enmity in partners. Calling him by first name means intruding into his personal space (*There was no way this man was going to be allowed to call him Hamish*). As noted by cultural studies scholars, distancing is typical of British culture as it appreciates personal space and individualism.

"I'd be pleased to represent you, ***Hamish****,' continued Perez, 'provided that you find my terms acceptable."*

"Perhaps you ***could enlighten us as to*** *what those –* ***hm,*** *– terms might be," said Sir Hamish* ***stiffly****. [13]*

Distancing strategy is realized by the tactic of politeness (*Perhaps you could enlighten us as to*), emotion control (*bowed silently, – hm, said stiffly*), insincere agreement (*Perhaps you could enlighten us…*) at the same time including the rhetoric figure of irony. Intentional use of high-flown style and pausation accompanied by interjection "hm" shows unwilling to accept the familiar manner of the agent. The tactic of doubt is expressed by modal verb "might" and pronoun "those". Thus, distancing strategy allows at least to preserve the outer balance of relations with the undesirable partner.

Conclusions

As we see, discursive strategies accumulate all verbal and non-verbal means to achieve maximum result under the influence of external circumstances. Conflicts constitute natural environment in economic discourse – a sphere of competition. To harmonize this complex communicative event it is important to understand how appropriate arrangement of speech tools multiplies their functional potential and intensifies the pragmatic impact. Such method can benefit to harmonization of global economic discourse as compromise is the only way to achieve mutually beneficial progress in this sphere.

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МЕТОД ЭКСТЕНСИВНОГО ЧТЕНИЯ В ОБУЧЕНИИ ИНОСТРАННЫМ ЯЗЫКАМ

В статье раскрываются некоторые приемы повышения уровня мотивации студентов, изучающих английский в качестве второго. Наиболее актуальные практические выводы из рассмотрения перечисленных теоретических подходов, в том числе – так называемого экстенсивного чтения, - последний может быть достаточно эффективно использован для преодоления состояния «language anxiety» и повышения мотивации студентов неязыковых вузов. Определение термина «экстенсивное чтение» до сих пор вызывает разночтения у исследователей и ученых. Термин «экстенсивное чтение» впервые появляется в работах известного лингвиста Harold Palmer. Заметное ускорение работы по исследованию экстенсивного чтения получили после публикации известных зарубежных лингвистов Stephen Krashen, Richard Day, Julian Bamford в середине 80-х годов пошлого века. Сам метод экстенсивного чтения является логическим продолжением известной теории Stephen Krashen пяти входных гипотез или input hypothesis при изучении иностранного языка. Практическое воплощение теоретических работ перечисленных ученых нашло место в многочисленных работах практиков – преподавателей иностранного языка, в основном – английского, в разных стран мира. Перечислены конкретные предложения по

формированию граничных условий применения данного метода.

Ключевые слова: экстенсивное чтение, изучение иностранных языков, мотивация студентов, прикладная лингвистика, базовое знание иностранного языка, восприимчивость к иностранным языкам.

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EXTENSIVE READING APPROACH IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The article reveals some tools for improving the motivation of students. Learners of English as a second language. The most important practical conclusions from the review of the theoretical approaches, including the so-called extensive reading, the last can be used effectively to overcome language anxiety status and motivation of students in non-language universities. The definition of "extensive reading" still causes confusion among researchers and scholars. The term "extensive reading" first appears in the works of famed linguist Harold Palmer. A noticeable acceleration of work on the exploration of extensive reading received after the publication of the famous foreign linguists, Stephen Krashen, Richard Day, Julian Bamford in the mid 80-ies of the last century. The method of extensive reading was a logical extension of the well-known theory of Stephen Krashen's five input hypothesis when learning a foreign language. Practical implementation of theoretical works listed scientists had found a place in many works of practitioners-teachers of a foreign language, mainly English, in many countries all over the world. The specific variants on formation of boundary conditions of this method application are listed here.

Key words: *consensible identity, extensive reading, applied linguistics, foreign language learning, intrinsic motivation, instrumental and integrative motivation, reading proficiency.*

Within the domain of what is described more and more in the professional literature as the extensive reading, the search for definition, that is - for consensible identity, has been pursued since the late of 1980's by various communities of scholars and practitioners. The term "consensible" is Ziman's neologism for signifying rational opinion about which there exists collective scholarly agreement. According to Ziman consensible knowledge is belief about the widest possible range of problems and uncertainties that is regarded as probable if not certain by the widest possible community of scholars [14, p. 9-11]. This search of consensible idea in language learning ended in creating a number of extensive reading definitions. All of these definitions do not vary greatly in disciplinary scope therefore we could say that the long hoped precision in disciplinary scope has been realized. With Palmer (1964)'s first applying the term "extensive reading", definition of extensive reading have been mentioned by many of educators. Day and Bamford (1998) credited Harold E. Palmer, the founder of applied linguistics, as the first to use the term "extensive" in referring to a large amount of reading with a focus on the meaning of the text. For Palmer, reading extensively has the advantage of being both informative and pleasurable [10]. Therefore the term extensive first appeared in the beginning of the twentieth century by efforts of Harold E. Palmer.

One of the most popular up-to-date definition in Wikipedia sounds as "Extensive reading (or free reading, book flood, reading for pleasure), is a way of language learning, including foreign language learning, through large amounts of reading" [13]. The famous researchers of the problem Professor Julian Bamford of Bunkio University and Professor Richard R. Day of University of Hawaii assert that extensive reading is a language teaching procedure where learners are supposed to read large quantities of materials or long texts for global understanding, the principal goal is obtaining pleasure from the text reading [1, p.1].

According to J. Bamford and R. Day the extensive reading is individualized, what means that students choose books they want to read, they read it independently of the teacher and they are not required to do any tasks after reading. Moreover, they are encouraged to stop reading whenever they consider the material not interesting or too difficult. Extensive reading can be introduced to any kind of English learning class whatever the content, intensity, age of students or their language level, the only condition is that students already have a basic knowledge of foreign language and are literate in it [1, p.1].

Today, Richard R. Day and Julian Bamford (2003) views extensive reading as an approach to the teaching and learning of second language reading in which learners read large quantities of books and other materials that are well within their linguistic competence [1]. On the other hand, Stephen Krashen (2004), the professor emeritus at the University of Southern California, called extensive reading ‘pleasure reading’[9].

This paper has shown that extensive reading activities have a positive influence on students’ reading proficiency and their intrinsic motivation. Even if this research has not proved whether extensive reading activities would affect students’ motivation in other areas, such as extrinsic, instrumental and integrative motivation, it is highly probable that English teachers in English learning should take extensive reading activities into consideration when designing their curriculum to improve students’ reading proficiency and motivation.

Extensive reading belongs to Free Voluntary Reading approaches that share the common idea of independent, voluntary reading. Therefore we can see the attempt of another researcher to label the process of extensive reading. Other examples of free voluntary reading are Sustained Silent Reading or Self-Selected Reading [9, p. 2].

The theoretical frameworks supporting extensive reading include so-called input hypothesis [7, p. 2,3] and pleasure hypothesis (Krashen, 2004) [8]. According to Krashen language learners acquire languages by understanding messages in a low anxiety context [6,7,8]. Specifically, Krashen (1989) explained the hypothesis in this way: "comprehensible input is the essential environmental ingredient – richly specified internal language acquisition device also makes a significant contribution to language acquisition" [8, p. 440]. Following the predictions of the hypothesis, when the language acquisition device is involved, learners subconsciously acquire target languages. By focusing on meaning rather than form, learners are less conscious of language acquisition and achieve what is called incidental learning [8, p. 440]. If the hypothesis is correct, the more comprehensible aural and written input is provided, the more language acquisition occurs.

Krashen's approach deserves more detailed analysis. Until the early 80's the emphasis was still on method, but in the late 70's a transition began to occur. Teachers and linguists became more concerned with a more cognitive approach to learning and teaching. One of the theories developing from changes taking place in philosophy was started by Krashen [6]. Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which is based on a cognitive approach, is a theory stating that language is acquired in a non-threatening environment where learners are engaged in the language to negotiate meaning. The language itself is not focused on as the object of study. This approach is very similar to the way younger children acquire their first language. In this case a person learning a language should be exposed to and listen to as much of the language as possible. The receptive skills of listening and reading are at first the centre of concentration. The productive skills of speaking and writing are taught after a period of time during which receptivity is increased. A good receptive basis is considered necessary for better productivity. According to Van Parreren (1983), students should be provided with a number of models, both oral and visual, before asking them to produce a sentence. Models are not rules because they are taken from used language and are not abstract [12]. Davies (1983) warns that an approach emphasizing initial receptivity has nothing to do with passive learning. Receptive learning is not passive. In the same article Davies states that some scholars prefer to call receptive learning “interpretive” because of the two-way process between teacher and learner that is involved. He states that no skill can be learned passively. The new theory has many implications for teachers. First of all more attention is given to language input without immediate productive feedback. More attention has been given to developing listening skills, and therefore, a longer initial listening period is provided to students before they produce language. Language production should come about gradually, when the student is ready, and is not forced [3].

Similarly, more attention is placed on extensive reading, which is viewed as a valuable source of input, and language is not only presented in the context of grammatical items. Instead, interesting reading texts are presented that will challenge and interest students enough so that they will be drawn onto negotiation for meaning without conscious attention given to surface structure. Now, eliciting meaning is the central focus [7].

The Natural Approach to language learning was developed by Stephen Krashen and one of his colleagues, Tracey Terrell. It is an approach based on modification of Input Hypothesis. When using this approach, students first develop listening skills during the preproduction stage. The early production stage is characterized by the production on the part of the students that is sometimes incorrect. However, the emphasis is on meaning and not form, so only gross mistakes that interfere with meaning are corrected. The final stage involves extending production to longer discourses, but again the emphasis is on fluency, and teachers correct only major mistakes [5]. Although this approach has weaknesses, it gives more scope and depth to language acquisition. Several studies in the 80's have been done to find out just what the effect extensive input has on productive skills and whether or not immediate or delayed production is better in the long run.

Reading is a valuable form of second language input. Elley and Mangubhai (1983) did a more extensive study of this in Fiji Islands University. It was found that elementary students increased mean scores in several school subjects after being exposed to high-interest extensive reading in English for several months. These students especially improved in English as a foreign language courses. Researchers have also shown that there is a definite positive relationship between reading and writing skill in first language learning. During the studies mentioned, the researcher will determine the relationship between extensive, authentic and interesting written input and the effect that it has on second language reading comprehension, a receptive skill, and writing proficiency, a productive skill. In the field of foreign language learning reading and listening are referred to as receptive skills, while speaking and writing are productive skills. Reading extensively means that students are reading a larger amount of material for the main idea and only general, not specific details. Authentic material is reading material in another language that has been edited a little or not at all, from its originally written state [4].

Tudor and Hafiz (1989), researching in England, found that extensive reading as a form of a second language input had a significant effect on written skills. The study was connected with a group of English as a second language students in Leeds and graded readers were used exclusively for the experiment. Extensive reading also positively affected reading comprehension ability. Purposes of this study were, first of all, to determine if extensive reading increases reading comprehension in language learning. Students would be asked to read material dealing with science fiction, myths, public issues in to-day's society, and articles about celebrities in politics and entertainment. Some historical material will also be included. Secondly, the researcher wants to find out if extensive reading causes writing proficiency to improve, and thirdly, to discover if subjects in the experimental group felt that extensive reading increased their reading comprehension and writing skills. Demographic information concerning education, age, gender, and previous foreign language experience will be collected for the experimental purposes [11]. As the result some conclusions could be formulated:

∗ Extensive reading could be made an integral part of the course, and treatment could be extended for several weeks. This would be difficult to do and would call for complete reorganization of the course.

∗ All students should be tested for reading comprehension in English. By doing this, it would be possible to see if abilities in English had any correlation with abilities in the foreign language.

∗ It would be interesting to see if teacher personality affected the outcome of treatment. In other words, does this treatment work better with certain types of teachers than with others.

∗ Providing students with more interesting reading might prove more motivational, since the treatment should consist of high interest material.

∗ The final questionnaire concerning students' feelings about reading should contain questions about general pleasure reading habits in native and foreign languages. It would be interesting to see if heavier readers had higher reading and writing scores.

Extensive reading could be a useful tool in foreign language teaching. Although it is used occasionally by some teachers, consistent use would be enjoyable as well as helpful. Each classroom should have a reading resource centre of some kind, even if it is only a small table in a part of the classroom [2].

Spending one or two class periods per week reading and discussing authentic material could keep students informed about culture as well. There is a great deal of cultural and historical information that could be learned in this way. It is also motivating for students to tread articles of interest and could be the next best thing to actual travel. These activities are a nice break from regular classrooms routines. It would be possible for teachers to print readers for students that contain interesting material which could be read all year long. However it is important that students have some free choice about selections that they would like to read, which would make the process more enjoyable and motivational. More advanced students could be assigned book reports and short research projects. It is important to realize that extensive reading for main meaning is not the only way to read, but it could be used as a regular part of a course to greatly increase language input.

The fact that a course emphasizes reading and receptivity does not mean that writing activities would be scarce or deleted. These could be worked into the curriculum more slowly after the students become more skilled in processing the language. No skills should be neglected in the complicated process of language learning.

The mutual point of all definitions we have got up-to-date is that the learner has to read a great deal of English books whether they are fictions or scientific ones. As the result it is the only point that all the experts in English language learning are to recognize nowadays.

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