Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education

Narva 2012
Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education
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On May 13–15, 2010 Narva College of the University of Tartu hosted an international scientific conference “Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education”. The conference concentrated on multicultural education and language teaching and continued the tradition of international conferences organised by Narva College (international scientific conferences on multiculturalism and identity issues 2003, 2006 & 2008 and international ELT conferences 2006 & 2008). The aim of the conference was to bring together researchers and practitioners from different countries who are eager to share their researches and experiences in the field of multicultural studies and foreign language teaching and learning. 87 participants from 15 countries joined the conference. The main topics of the conference were multicultural education and support of cultural identity, foreign language teaching and learning, working in multilingual and multicultural schools as well as content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

There were five plenary sessions during the conference, which stimulated the discussion of issues of multilingualism and multiculturalism in modern education environment. Plenary presenters were Katri Raik (Estonia), Anwei Feng (Great Britain), Vino Sarah Reardon (USA), Anne-Brit Fenner (Norway) and Ekaterina Protassova (Finland).

Katri Raik (Narva College of the University of Tartu; co-authors Irene Käosaar, Maie Soll) gave a plenary presentation “From the Two Separate Types of Schools in Estonia to One Estonian School, 1991–2010”. The presentation provided an overview of the development and transformation of the Estonian schools with Russian as the language of instruction during the last twenty years, distinguished three main stages of the process of integration of Estonian education: searching directions until 1997; adoption of the new national curriculum and modification of the Basic School and Upper Secondary School Act concerning a partial transition to Estonian medium studies during 1997–2007; present day fast development of Estonian language studies at all school levels.
The presentation emphasised the steps undertaken to promote the Estonian language and Estonian language learning.

Anwei Feng (University of Bangor) in his presentation “Biculturalism, Multiculturalism and Interculturality — why Terminology Matters” gave an overview of the scientific tradition of terminology usage and brought up conceptual differences between the terms. The understanding of terminology differences is crucial for the development of theories of social identity as well as for the formation of bilingualism and bilingual education.

Vino Sarah Reardon (Ural State Pedagogical University) discussed in her presentation “Assessing English Language Learners in a Multicultural Classroom” the principles and features of assessment in a multicultural classroom. Multicultural classroom is seen as a challenge since it brings together students with different linguistic and cultural background; therefore, a teacher needs alternative and authentic ways of assessment.

The plenary presentation of Anne-Brit Fenner (University of Bergen) “The Role of Literature in Developing Intercultural Awareness in the FL” examined the concepts of cultural competence and awareness in foreign language learning in the context of the European tradition. The author came to the conclusion that literature offers an opportunity to introduce the target culture and develop students’ intercultural awareness and identity.

Ekaterina Protassova (University of Helsinki) introduced in her presentation “Challenges of Bilingualism: New Results from a Finnish-Russian Project” a project “Finnish + Russian” = X: How effective is bilingual education?” The presentation examined multilingual schools and pre-school institutions and distinguished different forms of bilingualism which are used in these institutions. Bilingualism form depends on the balance of languages in the curriculum and their proportion in the study process, out-of-class activities in different languages, forms of the organisation of the study process and other factors.

The discussion of the issues of multilingualism and multiculturalism initiated during the plenary presentations continued in three parallel sections. The section “Multicultural Education and Support of Cultural Identity” included 17 presentations by researchers from Belgium, Estonia, Latvia, Portugal, Russia, Finland, and Hungary.

Elena Zykova (Pushkin Leningrad University) concentrated in her presentation “Educational Capacity of Hypertext in Multicultural Societies” on the formation of identity in the Internet environment, presenting different cultures and their forms. The risk of young people losing their identity was discussed
from various angles and possible ways of solving the problem were suggested both for young people and teachers.

Valeria Koroleva (Pskov State Pedagogical University) in her presentation “Psychological Factors of Successful Foreign Language Teaching at Higher Institutions” came to the conclusion that the success of foreign language teaching is supported by four main factors: building a system of reliable diagnostic tests; taking into account students’ individual psychological characteristics; striving towards the development of communicative competence; using teaching methods that help to reduce the students’ anxiety level, which is connected to academic success.

Galina Maslova (Pskov State Pedagogical University) analysed in her presentation “Multicultural Education in Teaching Tolerance to the Students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages” the ways of developing tolerance in different study subjects. It is especially important that tolerance can be observable both at the level of values and behaviours.

The presentation “Looking for New Ways to Promote Roma Inclusion into Vocational Education in Latvia” by Ieva Margevica (University of Latvia) and Eriks Grinbergs (Riga Technical School) discussed various aspects of the application of inclusive approach in vocational education. Such an approach helps to support the ethnical identity of the Roma minority.

Krista Vogelberg (University of Tartu) and Irina Koksharova (Estonian University of Life Sciences) provided in their presentation “Discursive Negotiation of Interpersonal Relations in a Multicultural Classroom” an overview of the results of a research conducted in Estonian universities, which demonstrates the impact of cultural and linguistic background on the development of interpersonal relations.

Natalia Malkina (Herzen Pedagogical University of Russia) gave a presentation on the topic “Cultural Identity and Foreign Language Teaching: Voices from the Pre-school EFL Learning Environment”. In her presentation, the author confirmed that young learners’ attitude to foreign language and the awareness of cultural identity are directly connected to the activities and tasks that are used by the teachers. Children acquire cultural and socio-cultural experience by reading authentic texts and getting acquainted with different objects that come from various cultures.

Anna Džalalova (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in her presentation “Ethnic Identity, Tolerance and Value System in Teachers’ Multicultural Competence” analysed multicultural competence in the structure of professional
pedagogical competence. The author demonstrated that teacher’s multicultural competence represents a complex phenomenon, which comprises humanistic values, positive ethnic self-determination and personal tolerance. Multicultural competence is seen as a pre-requisite for teacher’s effective pedagogical and interpersonal cooperation with other participants of the study process. The key components of teacher’s multicultural competence are cultural-cognitive, value-individual and motivational-behavioural.

Vera Khotinets (Udmurt University) in her presentation “Multicultural Competency of High School Students and its Development through the Project and Research Activity” presented a three-componential model of Russian multicultural higher education. The author discussed in detail different techniques of developing students’ multicultural competence: problem-solving tasks, group work, project work, research, etc.

Noureddine Erradi (IFA: Integration for all, Belgium) posed in his metaphorically titled presentation “The other Side of The Medal: The Broken Taboo” the following question: why do many integration programmes, including the language ones, seem to fail in European countries? According to the author, such failure is caused by the fact that these programmes are developed by the officials who do not have a comprehensive picture of immigrants’ problems and of the way these programmes work in real life. Noureddine Erradi came to such conclusion during his pilot research of a Moroccan integration programme.

Fernando Humberto Serra (Technical University of Lisbon) gave a presentation entitled “Ethical Dilemmas Facing a Plural Europe: the Problem of the Prohibition of the Muslim Veil in French State Schools Discussed by Portuguese In-service Teachers”. In his presentation, the author concentrated on the original methodology that prepares teachers for working in multicultural schools. The methodology is based on the development of the discussion skills of ethical and moral issues.

Vino Sarah Reardon (Ural Pedagogical University) made a presentation “Developing Intercultural Competence in the Context of Global Education”. The development of children’s intercultural competence entails the development of tolerance. Early global education shapes a personality, who is able to perceive the world as a constantly changing environment and is capable of self-actualisation in line with the changes in the society. Such people in particular form the basis of civil society.

Raquel Benmergui (University of Tampere) analysed in her presentation “From InterActing to InterStanding: Action Research of Applied Drama to
Further Intercultural Communication” an experience of dramatization, which involved foreign students (Erasmus programme). The staging included excerpts, which discussed the questions of personal values, tolerance, justice and self-fulfilment. The participation of foreign students in the performance promotes intercultural learning.

Minttu Räty (Laurea University of Applied Sciences) shared in her presentation “Encounters in Multisensory Space – Promoting Intercultural Understanding in Higher Education” an experience of room design, which is filled in with sounds and objects from different cultural spaces (a large-scale project of Laurea University). Such a virtual room is built from the project participants’ associations and it is used as a place for multicultural dialogue between the participants.

Lisa Harshbarger (Regional English Language Office, U.S. Embassy in Hungary) spoke in her presentation “Teaching Tolerance through English” about the work of English language summer camps in Hungary (which are organised by Regional English Language Office). According to the author, informal communication and cooperation of students with different cultural and social background develops English language skills as well as tolerance and intercultural communication.

Larisa Korneeva and Alexander Efaev (Pskov State Pedagogical University) introduced in their presentation “Teacher Training for Embassy Schools” the principles of teacher education when teacher’s future work is connected with a multilingual and multicultural learning environment. The authors concentrated on three elective modules in teacher education: country studies and economic geography, teaching methodology in the multicultural and multilingual classroom, special courses for the development of tolerance.

Natalja Zorina (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in her presentation “Family and Pre-school Institution Interaction in Questions of Multicultural Education of Children” gave an overview of the results of a research which was conducted in Ida-Viru County. The research examined the attitude of parents to the issues of multicultural education. The author noted the parents’ willingness to cooperate with teachers and emphasised that parents often require psychological support, especially when it comes to the child’s successful adaptation in a multicultural society.

Jelena Nõmm (Narva College of the University of Tartu) focused in her presentation “Studies of Ethnic Stereotypes in University” on the need to research ethnic stereotypes. The author maintained that ethnic stereotypes have a
twofold impact on students: on the one hand, researching stereotypes helps to understand native and foreign culture; on the other hand, it contributes to the creation of a new stereotype. The author presented original tasks for studying ethnic stereotypes and offered the audience a chance to discuss the opportunities and threats of such tasks when developing the students’ multicultural competence.

The section “Foreign Language Teaching and Learning” included 13 presentations by researchers from Norway, Finland, Estonia, Romania, Russia, and Serbia.

Anne-Brit Fenner (University of Bergen) gave a talk “A presentation of the European Portfolio for Student teachers of Languages and Examples of Use in Foreign Language Teacher Education”. The author gave an overview of the European Framework of Reference for Languages as a tool for assessment and self-assessment as well as for developing students’ identity.

Fred Dervin (University of Turku) in his presentation “‘Renewed’ Intercultural Education in Language Learning and Teaching at University: Does/can it Bear Fruit?” introduced a model of intercultural competence, which was created using a hermeneutic and interdisciplinary approach. The author demonstrated the model on the basis of the formation of intercultural competence of the students of Foreign Language Department of the University of Turku during the last five years.

Olga Orehhova (Narva College of the University of Tartu) highlighted in her presentation “Using Modern Poetry in the EFL Classroom” the importance of using modern poetry in the foreign language classroom. According to the author, modern poetry in particular reflects, besides the richness of the modern language, also the challenges of the modern world and helps to understand different cultures. The author presented original tasks, which are based on modern British poetry.

Natalja Zagura (University of Tartu) emphasised in her presentation “Teaching Business English at a Secondary School” that it is essential to consider students’ different levels of motivation and language proficiency when teaching this subject. The author recommended individual work in electronic environment and suggested tasks for the development of professional and multicultural competences in business English lessons.

Enn Veldi (University of Tartu) discussed in his presentation “Implications of Language Convergence in the Circum-Baltic Area for Contrastive Study with English” language convergence, which is characteristic of the languages of the
Baltic area. The author raised the following question for discussion: how does a study of lexically similar word pairs facilitates the compilation of bilingual dictionaries (e.g. Estonian-English, Russian-English, Latvian-English)? During his comparative research of bilingual dictionaries, the author discovered certain differences in the selection of English language equivalents to lexically similar words. The author stressed that comparative analysis of translation variants helps lexicographers in writing dictionaries.

Olga Burdakova (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in her presentation “New Possibilities in the Methodology of Teaching of Aspectual Pairs Formation” dwelled on the question of teaching the formation of aspectual correlates in the course “Russian as a Foreign Language”. The author emphasised that nowadays in Russian as a foreign language teaching practice students are taught how to differentiate in speech between imperfective and perfective aspect forms on the basis of formal markers, but they are not taught how to form such verbs. The reason behind that is that the formation of aspectual pairs in Russian is irregular and there are no general clear rules for the formation of aspectual pairs. The presenter demonstrated the existence of rules of imperfective aspect formation in modern Russian language and offered ways of using them in the classroom.

Heather McKay (Regional English Language Office, Romania) demonstrated in her presentation “The Fluency First Approach as Exemplified in an American Community College” a language learning approach which centres on the development of immigrants’ language fluency (they study English in a New York community college). Such a holistic approach creates favourable conditions for the development of writing skills and leads to the achievement of positive results in the final written test.

Elena Trifonova (Pskov State Pedagogical University) in her presentation “Determination of Foreign Language Proficiency of Non-language Department Students” directed attention to the issue of foreign language learning of non-language department students and recommended dividing students in groups according to their language proficiency. Such division is made on the basis of diagnostic tests, which are conducted before the start of the language courses.

Irina Petrova (Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology) described in her presentation “E-course as a Means of Accommodating Learners” an electronic course of English designed by the author, which takes into consideration students’ individual needs. According to the presenter, an e-course
which is based on the analyses of students’ individual characteristics represents a friendly and favourable environment for foreign language learning.

Vadim Semenov’s (Narva College of the University of Tartu) presentation “Russian for Specific Purposes: Preparation of Study Materials for Estonian Youth Workers” gave an overview of the principles underlying the design of original Russian language study material for Estonian youth workers. The author emphasised that one and the same material should include both modern spoken language as well as formal written language in order to prepare youth workers for informal and formal communication.

Olga Glushenko (Pskov State Pedagogical University) gave a presentation “Optimising Conditions for Motivational Considerations in Developing Socio-cultural Competence of Students of Non-language Departments by Means of Audio-visual Aids”. According to the author, audio-visual materials greatly facilitate the development of socio-cultural competence using the following procedure: watching music videos, creating positive emotions, developing communicative competence, doing creative group work.

Galina Maslova and Elena Klenevskaya (Pskov State Pedagogical University) demonstrated in their workshop “Video Materials in Teaching EFL to Secondary School Students as a Tool for Developing Bilingualism” ways of using authentic videos in language teaching. Moreover, an important aspect here is that language is acquired naturally as a tool for communication and not as a linguistic phenomenon. The role of the teacher is especially important in the preparation of materials, which are focused on socialization and tolerance. Video material which stimulates further discussion helps to activate the students.

Natasha Jovanovich and Jacqueline Anne Gardy (University of Novi Sad) facilitated a workshop on “Webquests, Blogs and Podcasts in ELT”. The authors are convinced that nowadays it is impossible to deal without ICT in the classroom. The presenters demonstrated the advantages of using virtual learning and illustrated the opportunities of using popular internet features — webquests, blogs and podcasts.

The section “Work in Multilingual and Multicultural School and Content and Language Integrated Learning” hosted 12 presentations by researchers from Serbia, Austria, Finland, Estonia and the UK.

Maie Soll (University of Tartu) gave a presentation “Does the School Support the Shaping of Ethnic and National Identity of Language Minority Students?” The presentation introduced a research conducted in Estonian schools whose aim was to find out the role of school in developing the identity of ethnic
minority students. In order to accomplish the aim, the researchers carried out a survey among school teachers and administrators. The results of the research demonstrated that the language of instruction of a school has an impact on the development of ethnic identity. The school sees its role in the creation of conditions for the development of a balanced identity through out of class activities and teacher’s example.

Jacqueline Anne Gardy (University of Novi Sad) discussed in her workshop “Using Web Podcasts as Authentic Listening Material in University and Test Preparation Classroom Settings” alternative ways of preparing listening tests with the help of the Internet resources. The problem of the access to authentic speech can be solved by using, within each lesson, short tasks on the basis of podcasts. The author suggested original tests for the preparation for English language proficiency exams.

Maire Kebbinau and Kai Völli (The Estonian Integration and Migration Foundation Our People (MISA)) examined in their presentation “Formation of Learning Skills through Study Materials at School Level I” early development of learning skills in the language immersion programme. The authors believe that special attention to the development of learning skills should be paid when preparing language immersion study materials. The key principle for writing such materials is that they should certainly include both self and peer assessment of one’s learning skills.

Izabella Riitsaar and Katrin Ekštein (Tallinn Pae School) introduced in their presentation “CLIL in Tallinna Pae Gümnaasium Late Immersion Grades” their experience of preparing and realising the late immersion programme in their school (since 2007). This experience helped them formulate the main principle for the organization of a late immersion programme – the use of interactive methodology. The authors came to the conclusion that in the case of CLIL, one subject should be a centre of the curriculum on the basis of which should be established interdisciplinary links (in Pae School such central subject is nature studies).

Anwei Feng (University of Bangor) gave a presentation “Diversity of CLIL: Case Studies across Greater China”. The author noted that all of the CLIL programmes across Greater China (Hong Kong, Taiwan, Macau and mainland China) are targeted at English language learning since, in many regions, English is a second official language. The study of English begins at the first school stage. CLIL takes place in several phases: language learning, partial teaching in English
and full language immersion. The result of such an approach is active bi- and trilingualism.

Natalia Tshuikina’s (co-authors: Natalia Zamkovaja, Irina Moissejenko; Tallinn University) presentation “Bilingual Students (Russian-Estonian Bilingualism) Studying in the Estonian Language: Sociolinguistic Research Experience” gave an overview of the results of a sociological research which aimed at discovering how often and in which situations Russian-Estonian bilingual children (who study in Estonian at school) use the Russian language. It appeared that children use Russian in private life and when communicating with foreigners. The students think that their Russian proficiency is imperfect and the most troublesome area for them is writing.

Jelena Rootamm-Valter (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in her presentation “Teaching Records Management in Multicultural Class” generalised a five-year experience of administration courses and introduced the results of a research conducted in Narva College of the University of Tartu (2009). The courses were taught in Estonian to native speakers of Russian. The main difficulty in teaching is non-convergence of terms meaning in Russian and Estonian languages. Such differences are caused by cultural and historical factors. The author suggested giving an etymological commentary when introducing an Estonian term and finding a Russian equivalent.

Nina Raud and Anna Golubeva (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in their presentation “CLIL at University: Narva College Case” drew attention to the need of conducting research in the field of CLIL methodology at the tertiary level. The authors analysed the experience of teaching at Narva College and the use of CLIL methodology by the teachers and defined the principles of a CLIL programme in university. They include providing language support in non-native language courses, building interdisciplinary links, creating a supportive environment (including Internet tools).

Helmut Maier (University of Teacher Education Styria) introduced in his presentation “Teaching Science in Classes with an Intercultural Background” the results of a research project. The research was dedicated to early content and language integrated learning. The author maintained that practical tasks in science facilitate understanding of the course material and increase foreign language learning motivation.

Margit Tago and Aivar Ots (University of Tartu) gave a presentation “Multi-dimensional Nature of Bilingual Pupils’ Persisting Low Achievement in Unsupported Submersion Education”. The authors conducted a comparative research
into factors influencing academic success in student groups studying in native and non-native languages. The results of the research allow the authors to make certain suggestions for schools — to systematically carry out students’ assessment according to different parameters: language support at home, social relations at school, understanding of the language of instruction, etc. The results of such assessment can help to ensure timely support both at school and at home. Lack of support decreases children’s academic achievement.

John Poynter (Narva College of the University of Tartu) brought out in his presentation “Aspects of Multicultural Teaching in the UK Curriculum and Classroom” how much the principles of multicultural education found in the UK official documents correspond to the actual school life. The experience of a 25-year-long personal observation allows the author to reach the conclusion that the effectiveness of multicultural education depends on the teacher’s willingness to cooperate and use humanistic methodology.

Hanna-Maija Sinkkonen (University of Eastern Finland) and Minna Kyttälä (University of Helsinki) demonstrated in their presentation “Good Practices in Finnish Multicultural Immigrant Education” good practices of teaching immigrant children with different cultural background, which were discovered during a research. The authors believe that studying in preparatory classes during the first year ensures linguistic, cultural and psychological adaptation of immigrant children in order for them to be able to continue the studies at school. Such support should continue after the first school year.

The international conference “Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education” provided a chance for Estonian and overseas researchers as well as teachers and practitioners to meet and disseminate their research results in the field of multilingual and multicultural education. The conference was organised by Narva College of the University of Tartu and supported by Archimedes Foundation (EDUKO) and the USA Embassy in Tallinn. The abstracts of the conference are available in the Abstract Book “Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education (May 13-15, 2010, Narva, Estonia)” at www.narva.ut.ee/724420.
MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND SUPPORT OF CULTURAL IDENTITY
A new millennium sees the dramatic changes that influence mankind’s life sustaining activity. Globalisation and new technologies, new economic systems and multicultural environment present a challenge to t of nation and personality. It is implemented in education as a dialogue of culture (Arakelyan, 2001; Borisenkov, 2004; Makaev, 1999).

The above mentioned approaches are the scientific response to the cultural diversity in the contemporary society, and lay the foundation for the principles of student attainments in a multicultural society. The ingenuity is not seen as a danger or risk from non-standard behaviour. On the contrary it is observed as a potential for social and personal growth. Getting acquainted with others — a person of other cultural background — is accepted as an opportunity to think over the diversity of values, rules and behavior patterns (Portera, 2008).

In Russia the core approach to polycultural education is based on a three-component model which serves as the fundamental for designing the content in Russia’s polycultural education (Gukalenko, 2007; Makaev, 1999; Yalalov, 2000). This implies ethno cultural, intercultural and polycultural components that provide self-determination of an agent at micro, mezzo, macro levels. The core of ethnic education is considered to be an ethnic component, which is oriented to acquire the values of ones own ethnic culture. An interethnic component encourages a personality development in Russia’s culture within an interethnic cultural and educational environment. A polyethnic component promotes globalisation of education that is aiming to acquire human values through the global educational space.

Psychological practitioners and social care teachers apply a variety of educational techniques to develop understanding of world cultures and promote the dialogue of cultures in education. This involves specific trainings to nurture tolerance. They are:
• **basic cultural training** (cognitive model), that focuses on self-identification as a representative of one’s own culture;
• **special cultural training** that analyses situations of intercultural interactions and interpretation of the reasons for behavior in conflict situations;
• **technique of improving intercultural sensitivity** that helps see the situations from the position of other cultures and understand their vision of the world.

Unfortunately, from personal experience, we can assert that the results of these trainings are not stable and more situational, as skills of intercultural interactions are developed outside realistic situations, they are only simulated and played.

Nowadays, a “knowledge” paradigm, which aims to translate knowledge, is shifted by a competency paradigm. According to F. V. Khutorskoy’s point of view, a competency-building approach suggests acquiring knowledge as a whole rather than by chunks. Inevitably the system of educational methods is seen from a different angle. Introduction of competences into educational standards provides an opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge in order to solve realistic tasks and problem-solving situations in real life (Khutorskoy, 2005).

Theoretical research across a competency subject area is far from being accomplished, at least in Russia. From different viewpoints, by different writers, we can judge that the term “competence” is interpreted as an ability and readiness of a learner to self-realisation so as to apply the potential resources in practical activities. The notion of competency presupposes to assess the personality qualities of a learner that can be applied in certain activities in particular areas (competences) (Baidenko, 2004; Zeer, 2005; Zimnaya, 2005; Kuzmina, 2001; Markova, 1996; Radionova, 2005; Tulkibaeva, 2008; Khutorskoy, 2005). The overview of various standpoints over cultural competency (Makarova, Palatkina, Jalalova, Trasberg, J.A. Banks, Gudykunst, Hutmacher, Pope-Davis, Ramirez) allows us to define polycultural competency as a personal quality that is reflected in apperception of “others” (the understanding of other cultures and cooperation with representatives of other cultures) and is applied in intercultural interactions (Khotinets, 2009). In the context of real life situations it is an implementation of the experience to perceive the worldview at cultural and universal levels (Khutorskoy, 2005).
Polycultural competency is based on three pillars.

- **reflexive-cognitive component**: awareness of polycultural world (knowledge of own culture and other cultures represented in the social educational environment; knowledge of culture world on the planet); positive ethnic self — identification (Lebedeva, Stefanenko, Soldatova, Grushevskaia, Popkov, Sadokhin and others); consciousness tolerance (Asmolov, Bratchenko, Drobiizheva, Lensment and others);

- **axiological-semantic component**: developed system of cultural values of their own nation that are internal regulators of consciousness and behaviour, humanistic values and value orientations which are based on the principles of polyculturism (Lebedeva, Mukhamentdganova, Khotinets, Schwartz and others);

- **motivation-activity component**: high cognitive polycultural activity, application of acquired models, programmes, behaviour models, communication models in intercultural interactions (Dzhalalova, Trasberg, Gudykunst, Pope-Davis, Coleman, W. Ming Liu, Toporek and others).

Polycultural competency can hardly be generated into a traditional education with its subject-oriented curriculum. It is developed through systematic integration into the educational process, being an integral part of it (Baidenko, 2004). It is neither a spontaneous nor natural process. It is not the development (“molding”) of the quality within the framework of a definite social norm, a pattern or a requirement in organised and manageable educational process. Competences are formed (“built up” according to V. I. Baidenko) through educational activities and special methods and autonomous learning.

According to V. I. Baidenko most effective methods are:

- project;
- problem-solving;
- feedback through intensive social interaction (interaction with the external world);
- case-studies (analysis of situations);
- research of role models (simulations);
- presentations;
- positive attitude to mistakes etc. (Baidenko, 2004).

According to E.V. Zagvyazinskaya, the following technologies lay the foundation for autonomous education:
• research activity: enables students to develop the skill to understand the problem, to formulate hypothesis, implement the strategy and tactics to verify it, analyze, compare, elicit, consolidate, synthesize etc.;
• group work: raises motivation to learning and develops communication skills. With new ways of knowledge acquisition (self-study) and new experience in co-activity (teamwork) and interactions, students start to demonstrate responsible behaviour and use the experience later in any co-activity;
• projects: generate above mentioned activities, and an accomplished product made by a student that is of social significance. This method tends to switch on an emotional mechanism of knowledge acquisition. E. V. Zagvyazinskaya points out that project work, in particular group work, allows one to build up practical skills (skills to change the reality) on the basis of the theoretical (traditional) knowledge;
• active learning: includes all active methods (problem-solving and context education), that encourage students to speak, discuss, put arguments, carry out a talk. That is how other interiorised meaningful knowledge is transformed from theoretical knowledge. and it is saturated with new cultural code (meaning) (Zagvyazinskaya, 2006).

The aim of the research was to scrutinise student polycultural development through research and project activities. The research and experiment were carried out within two academic years under the auspices of Udmurt Republic project “Children of Udmurtia”. This involved three stages: organizational, process, results (Khotinet, 2009).

The organisational stage aimed to select a focus group of students who were highly motivated to participate in solving social urban, rural, local and nation-wide problems. The group consisted of 49 students of 9-10 grades at school from Izhevsk, Sarapul, Malaya Purga, Yagul. At the beginning of the academic year the development of polycultural competency components was diagnosed by the following methods:
• to assess axiological-semantic component – S. Schwartz “Cultural values”; M. Rokeach “Value orientations”;
• to assess motivation-activity component – “Study of the level of cognitive activity, anxiety, negative emotional experiences as a personality state and personality qualities” by A. D. Andreeva, on the basis of Ch. D. Spilberger’ work; method of interpersonal relations diagnostics by T. Leary; diagnostics of proneness to conflict behaviour by K. N. Thomas; psychological diagnostics of frustration reactions by S. Rosenzweig to identify behaviour patterns in interethnic interactions.

The second processional stage aimed to implement the programme so as to develop high school students’ polycultural competency. Under the guidance of a school tutor (a social teacher, a psychologist, a teacher) students carried out the historic, ethnographic and archeological research of their homeland land, then designed and developed socially significant projects: “Revitalize Udmurt region”, “Design the memorial to our homeland Udmurtia”, “Restore the folk crafts of Udmurt nation” (restoration of rare books), “Let’s understand each other” (Tatar and Udmurt languages courses), “Take the conflict situations away”, “Everyone is different, everyone is equal” etc.

Within the framework of the experiment five meetings of programme participants were held in Izhevsk. They aimed to exchange the experiences of co-activity, co-creativity, autonomous activities in their project and research work. On summer holidays teenagers actively participated in the activities of an ethnographic summer school called “Alangasariy”.

Over the period of the experiment the number of programme participants decreased up to 32 (14 Russians, 13 Udmurts, 5 Tatars) for different reasons. However, those 17 students (8 Russians, 4 Udmurts and 3 Tatars), who voluntarily left the experiment, were encouraged by the tutor to participate in a reference group. It should be noted that students’ ethnicity was identified by V. Yu. Khotinets’ method “The developmental level of ethnic consciousness” (Khotinets, 2000) and with the permission from their parents.

During the final stage the content of the experiment was revealed. On the accomplishment of summer school work the repeated measures were carried out to test the desired quality. The components rates of polycultural competency were processed by Whitney-Mann U-test SPSS 11.5 for Windows. According to research findings component indices of polycultural competency was observed by the end of the experiment (out of 115 tested indices 29 showed significant differences). Reflexive-cognitive component was demonstrated through increasing tolerance level and positive ethnic identity. Axiological-semantic component
was observed through praxis values (capabilities, usefulness, effectiveness, responsibility, will) and accomplishments (broad outlook), interaction and cooperation (friendship, reliable friends, tolerance, honesty, ability to forgive). *Motivation-activity component* was developed through high cognitive activity (high motivation, creativity, intellect, inquisitiveness), cooperation in interaction, affirmative ways out of conflict situations.

For the method of open questions by M. Kuhn, T. McPartland “Who am I?” it was revealed that, before the programme participation, students gave preferences to the categories “professional affiliation” (student), “human” and “gender identifications”, “subjective characteristics” (roles, hobbies), equalling 61%. After the project completion the categories “universal”, “civil”, “group” identifications, “personal position”, “interaction and cooperation”, “positive self-esteem for intellectual and business skills” were predominant (63%).

Through psychological diagnostics of frustration reactions by S. Rosezweig it was stated that, by the end of the project, they demonstrated more apparent fixation for impediments (when the impediment, that caused the frustration, is recognized and pointed out, or interpreted as a good (benefit) or considered as not serious one). Before the project extrapunitive reactions were observed, later impunitive reactions were traced in various settings of interactions. Thus, if students were striving to counteract frustrating situations, neglecting or denying them, it means they demonstrated frustrating tolerance.

Let us now consider the results in the reference group. Using the Whitney-Mann U-test the differences can be observed between rates of axiological-semantic (reliable friends, self-confidence, sense of community, reliability (p<0.01)) and motivation-activity (humble-shy, cooperative-conventional types of interpersonal relations (p<0.05)). It should be noted that leading interpersonal developmental factors during teenage years are the interpersonal communications with peers. The significance of communication for teenagers is underpinned by the motivation to interact with peers; affiliation to a group is likely to prevail. Obviously, age specific features of teenagers are a showcase in the reference group.

The research results showed that development of polycultural competency is build up on the principles of a competency approach and is realised in educational activity through active methods and techniques of autonomous learning: problem-solving, projects, research activities and group work.

Polycultural competence development was underpinned by its components: *reflexive-cognitive component, axiological-semantic, motivation-activity*. It was
proved by the development of tolerant consciousness, positive ethnic identity, value of partnership and interactions, behaviour models, and intercultural communication that embraces such patterns as cooperation, co-activity, co-friendship. Furthermore, it was observed that the students demonstrated an extensive reach in educational activity via the willingness to learn more about their polycultural world, a desire to personal and social fulfillment, forming a socially responsible behaviour, a wider range of socially significant activities in a specific ethnic cultural environment.

According to age psychology teenage time passes through drastic changes in motivation and it is of hierarchical character. Direct motivation is transformed into incentives based on decision-making; interests are transformed into permanent hobby. During the teenage period self-concept is formed and promotes further development of a teenage behaviour model. Consequently, development of teenage psychological proliferation is accompanied by new psychological features and personal qualities. The development of polycultural competency contributes into this process and provides a new educational content.

Finally we can assert that modern education is transformed into co-creativity action, where the humanised co-existing environment is constructed and that allows forming core competencies and provides co-existence in the world of cultural diversity.
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Studying Ethnic Stereotypes in the University Classroom

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Ethnic stereotypes are an integral part of the cultural self-awareness of a person and a social group. All of the researchers of this psychological phenomenon seem to agree that it is impossible to completely avoid the impact of stereotypes on the individual consciousness and their perception of another culture in the process of intercultural communication (Мацумото, 2008; Леонтович, 2007; Налчаджян, 2004; Рот, Коптельцева, 2006 and others). Ethnic stereotypes perform a number of important functions in culture. First, they facilitate one’s understanding of the world, acting as categories which structure the individual’s worldview. Second, ethnic stereotypes help sustain a positive group identity, which means they ensure the longevity of a culture and its reproduction in the following generations (Мацумото, 2008; Стефаненко, 2004; Налчаджян, 2004).

At the same time, researchers unanimously indicate that reliance on ethnic stereotypes poses a major threat for effective intercultural communication (Hofstede, Pedersen, Hofstede, 2004; Мацумото, 2008; Леонтович, 2007; Стефаненко, 2004; Гришаева, Цурикова, 2007 and others). Taking into account the fact that differences between individuals even within the same culture are more pronounced than similarities, researchers call for using a psychological mechanism opposite to stereotypisation in intercultural communication – individualisation (studying the partner’s individuality through communication).

The study of ethnic stereotypes is a traditional thematic unit in many university courses on multicultural communication. It has been noted that university courses sometimes have a twofold function if to consider their learning outcomes. On the one hand, knowledge about the nature of stereotypes, their function in culture and their impact on individual and group consciousness helps students orient in the cultural variety and understand their own and foreign cultures as well analyse their personal and other’s consciousness. On the other hand, learning about cultural typologies and theories of intercultural communication inevitably leads to students forming new stereotypical knowledge. Such
new ethno-cultural knowledge becomes a students’ reference-point in inter-cultural communication and functions as a manual in the cases of intercultural interaction.

It can be argued that such a paradox in the learning outcomes of intercultural communication may be avoided with the help of a module devoted to learning about ethnic stereotypes. Carefully structured classes help the teacher develop students’ intercultural competence. A developed intercultural competence will help students reduce the negative impact of stereotypes on their consciousness.

This article will discuss typical tasks from the module “Ethnic Stereotypes”, which can be used in intercultural communication classes. It will demonstrate how they facilitate the development of various components of students’ intercultural competence. The tasks under discussion have been repeatedly used in the courses “Intercultural Communication”, “Russian Culture in the Context of Intercultural Communication”, “Intercultural Differences: Students with Russian Cultural Background” and others. Since the issue of Russian-Estonian communication is a focal point for the target audience of these courses, most of the tasks mentioned here are devoted to studying Russian and Estonian auto-stereotypes and hetero-stereotypes.

Being aware of the fact that the term “intercultural competence” itself can be interpreted differently, this article will not dwell in detail on this question. When describing the components of intercultural competence, the article will adhere to a scheme used by a range of researchers of intercultural communication (Lynch, 1983; Садохин, 2004; Рот, Коптельцева, 2006 and others). Intercultural competence is viewed there as consisting of three constituent components:

- **cognitive component** (knowledge about native and other cultures, notions of cultural differences; in the present case it also involves knowledge about the nature of ethnic stereotype and its impact on the process of intercultural interaction);
- **affective component** (empathy and ability to see the world and situation from another person’s standpoint; overcoming stereotypical emotional reactions towards another culture);
- **operational component** (ability to react adequately in situations of intercultural interaction; mastering the models of behaviour that help solve difficult situations of intercultural communication; ability to act not under the influence of the stereotypes of one’s thinking, but proceeding from the actual situation of communication).
Developing the Cognitive Component of Intercultural Competence

It is useful to start the study of the topic “Ethnic Stereotypes” with a general discussion of the questions concerning the nature of the ethnic stereotype, its qualities and ways of functioning in the culture. Usually, such discussions are quite lively. Learning about the theory of stereotypes, students transfer it to their personal experience, providing examples from their life and analysing concrete situations. The examination of the universal stereotype “we” (ours) – “they” (others) appears to be very productive. It comes as a discovery for the students that their own group is harder to subject to stereotypisation than other groups. This discovery becomes one more proof of the sketchy character of the stereotype. The understanding of the stereotype as a sign of simplification of reality leads to the understanding of the danger which comes from its thoughtless use. The discussion reaches the general conclusion that an individual approach to evaluating the words and actions of one’s partner in intercultural communication is necessary.

A useful task for developing the cognitive component of intercultural competence is the task “In a common house” or “Choosing the neighbours” (this task in different variations is suggested by many intercultural communication trainers (e.g.: Рот, Коптельцева, 2006; Лебедева, Лунева, Стефаненко, Мартыньова, 2003). The students are offered the following imaginary situation: they are choosing a flat in a block of flats and they have a chance to choose the neighbours to their liking. They have a selection of neighbours of different ethnicities. The reflection which follows the completion of the task helps to reveal the dependence of our thinking and behaviour upon ethnic stereotypes and realise the need for developing a more flexible mind.

Doing project work also helps expose the stereotypes and realise the mechanism of their creation. Within the project, the students conduct research, the objects of which are Russian jokes about foreigners. Such jokes as a genre of urban folklore present themselves really well for analysis since they quite clearly represent the ethnic stereotypes existing in a culture. Jokes about the people of Western Europe and Baltic states become the focus of the students’ attention. The students can complete the task either individually or in groups. One seminar is devoted specifically to the discussion of the results of an independent research into ethnic stereotypes.

Setting such a homework task, the instructor provides the students with a structure for their analysis, which they have to use in the seminar while discuss-
ing their results. The students have to comment on the volume of the corpus of texts about the representatives of a certain ethnicity. The comparison of the heroes’ images found in the particular corpus of jokes helps reveal the recurring qualities that are attributed to this ethnicity by Russians. Each of such recurring stereotypic qualities is illustrated by the students using one or two examples from the texts of the jokes. All of the stereotypic qualities observed are once again repeated at the end of the presentation of the results. During an open discussion of the students’ presentations they, firstly, try to find confirmation that the jokes really contain the actual hetero-stereotypes found in Russian culture (the students give examples from other spheres of cultural life). Secondly, the students attempt to explain the reasons behind the origin of such a stereotypic portrayal, which as a rule lie in the intercultural differences and the attempts of Russians to understand them. As a result of all the presentations, the students arrive at a general conclusion that stereotypes distort the cultural reality, but convey knowledge of intercultural differences; therefore, they should not be taken as guidelines in real cases of intercultural interaction. However, awareness of them helps gain a more adequate perception of both native and other cultures.

**Developing the Affective Component of Intercultural Competence**

The task “Who is who?” offers an opportunity to look at one’s native culture from the point of view of another culture. This task has been tried both in the Russian and Estonian classroom; it can be also used in a mixed classroom, but it is important for the teacher to monitor attentively the discussion of the examples of stereotypic portrayals in order to avoid mutual offence.

The class is presented with a series of extracts from ethnographic, journalistic, historical, academic and other texts. Each excerpt describes characteristic features of Estonians or Russians while the ethnonym itself is missing. The students, using their knowledge of both cultures, have to guess who is referred to in the extract and fill in the gaps in the description.

Given a monocultural classroom, it appears reasonable to offer to the students, for analysis, a set of stereotypic representations customary in another culture. This allows the students to reconstruct a different viewpoint of the culture of their ethnic group and compare it to their ideas of their native and other cultures. For instance, Estonian students have been suggested analysing stereotypic portrayals of Russians and Estonians taken from the texts originat-
ing from Russian cultural tradition (see Appendix 1). The students have analysed both Russian auto-stereotypes as well as the Russians’ conception of the Estonian national character.

Such work completed in the classroom allows the Estonian students to better understand characteristic features of both Estonian and Russian cultures. The comparison of cultures helps reveal intercultural differences. The experience of dealing with emotions that arise when students become aware of the different views on their native culture strengthens the students’ tolerant standpoint.

Provided there exists a mixed classroom, students can be offered for analysis a set of stereotypic representations of Russians, customary in Estonian culture, and such representations of Estonians coming from Russian culture. Prior to completing this task, students learn about mutual stereotypes. In the preceding class, different methods of studying ethnic stereotypes are examined and students have an opportunity to try out one of such methods of studying ethnic hetero-stereotypes on themselves. They fill in a questionnaire where they are asked to name maximum 10 personality traits of a typical Estonian (another option – a typical Russian).

Having been conducting such surveys during a number of years, the teacher has an opportunity to use scientifically valid results. It undoubtedly allows discussing with students in the classroom not a random set of ethnic characteristics but rather the notions that persist in the minds of a big number of participants of a longitudinal study.

**Developing the Operational Component of Intercultural Competence**

The technique “Cultural assimilator”, which is used in intercultural communication trainings, facilitates the development of the operational component of intercultural competence (see Стефаненко 2008: 154-200). “Cultural assimilator” consists of a series of tasks. Each task includes a description of a critical incident of interaction of the representatives of two cultures (the first person is a representative of the students’ native culture and the second one of the culture which is studied by the student). The students have to deduce the causes of the potential conflict and select one of the behaviour attributions of the second person suggested in the programme. After that they read a commentary on the selected answer. If they have chosen a correct answer, they receive relevant information about the studied culture, its characteristic models of behaviour, value system and intercultural differences. If the answer is incorrect, the stu-
dents return to the analysis of the situation, which they study until they can give the correct answer.

The developers of cultural assimilators emphasise that this technique represents an attributive training. It allows the students to get rid of stereotypical thinking, which hinders intercultural communication. At the same time, in cultural assimilators, students learn how to search for an explanation for an observed behaviour basing not on their cultural norms of behaviour, but evaluating the situation from a viewpoint of a representative of another culture. In that way, cultural assimilators facilitate the development of the cognitive, affective, and operational components of intercultural competence simultaneously.

In the classroom, the students can be offered not only ready-made cultural assimilator tasks, but also involved in the process of developing a “cultural assimilator” themselves. For that purpose, as a home task the students have to recall and describe a situation which has either positively or negatively markedly affected their opinion of the representatives of another culture (Russian or Estonian, depending on the cultural identification of the student). The students can describe such situations where their behaviour was misunderstood or they themselves misinterpreted the behaviour of the representatives of another culture; in other words, such situations, which can potentially lead to a conflict. If they have not encountered such situation in their experience of intercultural communication, they can describe the experience of their acquaintances (see Appendix 2).

After the students have grasped the principles of creating a cultural assimilator, they can discuss the prepared stories in groups in the classroom and select the most illustrative story, which could become part of the programme of study. The students present the story, explain the causes of misunderstanding between the participants of the story, expose the intercultural differences, and suggest possible models of behaviour in this particular situation which could help avoid the tension in relations.

This article has examined only a few of the model tasks that can be used with students in intercultural communication classes. It is worth highlighting that their completion helps the teacher work on the development of all the three components of students’ intercultural competence in combination. Ultimately, such work will undoubtedly facilitate the formation of a more flexible thinking and more adequate perception of the reality of the multicultural world.
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Appendix 1
A part of the task “Who is who?”

1. They are not very tall, but they are stocky; usually they have long reddish hair. They are exceptionally sturdy and can undertake the most difficult work, but they are quite lazy. _______ are reserved, distrustful, slow and unreceptive to elevated feelings; they are cross, stubborn and almost all of them are keen on drinking.

2. Spirituality as a value common to all mankind is the basis of _______ national personality, which does not allow the power of things and money (mercantilism) override it. Unselfish love, kindness, patience and conscience, and thirst for justice are the spiritual core of _______ nation. The most explicit manifestation of the strength of the people’s spirit in _______ mentality is making a sacrifice for the sake of the fatherland.

3. Morally, _______ are generally gentle and mild: fights, violence, murder happen among them very rarely. This gentleness of character however does not hold back its resilience: _______ are stubborn by nature and, if irritated or deeply offended, they become vindictive, malicious and persistent in animosity. Being not very sensitive to external influences, _______ have a lot of courage, which can transform into a daring audacity and total defiance of death given their decisiveness; but _______ have an aversion to suicide, as the worst of crimes. The good qualities of these people also include honesty and unselfishness.
Appendix 2  
Examples of students’ stories for the task “Cultural assimilator”

The first story: “My child has always known that his uncle has one son. The uncle’s son started calling my child a “brother”. My son became very confused, because he knows that at home he has only a little sister. He asked his parents for detailed explanations. I tried to explain to him that Estonians have uncles’ sons, but Russians call them brothers and I thought that the wife of my husband’s brother would also explain it to her son drawing on the intercultural differences. However, she didn’t explain anything to her child and even told my son that my explanation was wrong and our children are brothers. My son was again confused. I tried now talking to the wife of my husband’s brother. But she got really angry with me and declared that family is very important for Russians. This lead to a conflict because I felt myself offended since for Estonians family is also very important. The only difference is how it is understood by us.”

The second story: “The most vivid example, which has really impressed me, is about Estonians’ attitude to having guests. The thing is that Estonians do not like unexpected visitors. Unlike Russians, who like to make unexpected visits as if out of the blue, Estonians inform of their visit in advance, at least two or three days ahead. Having once decided to surprise our Estonian relatives with an unexpected visit, we were politely asked to come later at an arranged time because at that particular time they were doing housework. Estonian coldness in comparison to Russian hospitality still puzzles and at times frustrates me.”

The third story: “At the weekend my friend’s new acquaintance <an Estonian – J.N.> invited her for a dinner. My friend willingly agreed. Preparing for the visit, she took with her a bottle of a fine red wine to add to the refreshments. She was given a hearty welcome; the table was set for dinner and exquisitely laid with different refreshments and drinks. The hostess took the wine and thanked her but she didn’t serve it, probably considering it a present. The evening was brilliant but my friend was surprised by it and felt awkward. Certainly, such situation cannot lead to a conflict, but Anna had a disappointing feeling that she did something wrong or the hosts simply didn’t like the wine she had bought.”
The main aim of foreign language education in Russia is developing intercultural competence that overlaps foreign language communicative competence as one of its integral parts. We consider foreign language communicative competence as a prerequisite for intercultural competence and wholly agree to E. Malkova’s opinion that intercultural competence embraces mostly the ontological aspect of personality molding whereas communicative competence covers the language and speech skills of an individual.

In a most general way intercultural competence can be defined as the ability to realise oneself in a cultural dialogue. This main idea can be differently interpreted. There are four approaches to intercultural competence. One of them views it as the capability of people having diverse gender, age, and ethnic group to coexist without discrimination in the same community. Another approach sees intercultural competence as the capability to participate in a previously alien culture. The third approach regards intercultural competence as the identity that integrates knowledge and behaviour patterns, based on principles of pluralism of thinking and recognition of the historic basis of the cultural processes. And finally, for many, it is the personal quality that is based on sensible world and historic recognition, and the readiness for action. Whichever approach we choose includes three constituents according to A. Knapp-Potthoff’s views: affective (empathy and tolerance), cognitive (knowledge of the native and target culture, general knowledge of culture and communication), and strategic (verbal, academic, and research strategies of the student) (Гальскова, Гез 2004:73). Thus, intercultural competence is linked to an awareness of the other sociocultural world mapping, to the ability to see similarities and differences between communicating cultures and to apply them in the process of intercultural communication. In other words intercultural competence, overlapping
foreign language communicative competence, is one of the signs of the formed secondary language personality, which is the aim of foreign language teaching.

Developing intercultural competence is the greatest demand of the 21st century, which is called the century of multicultural dialogue. That is why we find very significant G. Dmitriev’s idea of multicultural education and multiculturalism as a principle that causes the change of educational content (Дмитриев 1999:17). The author emphasises that he regards multicultural education wider than multiethnic education, as it is centred on the sociocultural group, and the ethnic component is considered within the array of many others: religious, political, class, age, gender, professional, language, etc.

Such an approach is more likely to lower the conflict level in society, to develop tolerance to all cultural differences and peculiarities, to enable an individual to freely choose the identity and its self-actualisation (Дмитриев 2000:7).

In terms of indispensible importance of multicultural education G. Dmitriev suggests empowering multiculturalism with the status of one of the main didactic principles. The system of didactic principles is quite movable and is determined by the changing education aims and other factors. Nowadays ethnic clashes, intolerance, unawareness of other social groups’ culture and inability to choose the adequate behavior patterns in multicultural communication are the factors that enhance the necessity to implement cultural pluralism by means of education content and foster encapsulating multiculturalism as a detached didactic principle.

The content essence and the ways of realisation of the didactic principle of multicultural education are the following:

1. There is no good or bad, civilised or primitive culture. Each culture has its pluses and minuses. Meaningfulness and importance of culture are defined by the individuals themselves.

2. Multiculturalism views race as an all-human concept, that is why not only the division of people on the basis of their physiological characteristics, the colour of their skin mainly, but any kind of hatred, discrimination, and segregation in the society is regarded as racism and its forms – ageism, sexism, classism, linguism, etc.

3. The Multiethnic character of Russian society must be reflected in the federal educational content to enrich and to enhance the interrelation of diverse ethnicity of the State.

4. Multiculturalism, as a principle, demands the balanced representation of religious beliefs in the content of education.
5. Multiculturalism caters for the needs of students with exceptional or special needs; representatives of different age groups; inhabitants of different geographical areas.

All these aspects of multiculturalism are of great importance as they “explain the nature of human rights and the forms of manifesting intolerance in the world”. It is essential that everyone should get to know as early as possible the meaning of such notions as racism, segregation, ethnic cleansing, age and sex discrimination, religious persecution. Consciousness of these issues means forming the cognitive level of intercultural competence that triggers developing other constituents: affective and strategic.

Besides presenting the diversity of society, in the content of education, it is essential to recognise the diversity of students as representatives of different social groups. In other words, multicultural education is presenting diversity and considering the diversity of the subjects within the educational process. This way we have concluded that multiculturalism is not only the basis for rearranging the content of education, but also the principle for managing the educational process and the development of tolerance.

In terms of multiculturalism the author of the article developed an elective course whose content and pedagogical technologies would reflect the idea of multicultural education. The course “Social Stratification and the Problems of Inequality” in the English language was developed for the students whose level of foreign language communicative competence is enough for perceiving authentic English language information and for producing their own utterances orally and in written form.

The objectives of the course are as follows:

- Developing a personality that is able to quickly adjust to changeable life and world conditions and to adequately analyse present day tendencies
- Developing social competences that are linked to the capability of taking a responsibility, to participate in decision-making and functioning of civilian society institutions
- Developing foreign language communicative competence in oral and written forms with a focus on sociocultural differences in the multicultural world
- Developing academic strategies (to define a problem, to predict threats and risks in eliminating the problem, to find and deploy information, to use different research methods, etc.), social skills, and the demand for life-long learning.
The content of the course covers a wide range of the problems that are of great importance for today’s world and the place of an individual within it. This is the reason for broad interdisciplinary links, especially with such disciplines as History, Culture Studies, Politics, Law, Sociology, Philosophy, Economics, since the crucial point of this course is integration of different education materials that embrace various courses aimed at studying society and the laws of social life. Among the issues for discussion are social stratification, social class, global inequality and its correlates, race and ethnicity, religion, age discrimination, and gender problems. All the topics entail clashes and represent different social groups in a multicultural context. The content of the course was developed on the basis of authentic sources of information: scientific literature on sociology was backed up with numerous articles from foreign and Russian mass media. The process of teaching is enhanced with interactive technologies, among which are reflexive, student-centered methods, such as discussions, debates, case-study, role-playing, project activities and other ways to develop critical thinking and learning autonomy of the students.

To make the students more aware of the factors that cause conflict all the topics are studied according to the following algorithm:

1. Presenting sociological concepts and notions that will be used in discussions and the most widespread sociological theories. Theoretical material enriches the students’ outlook and provides them with the background that can help approach the situation from different angles.

2. Discussing concrete examples and specific cases from abroad using authentic information. Reading articles from authentic sources of information not only gives examples and cases to illustrate future solutions to the problems, but fosters the target language acquisition and stimulates using the language for productive purposes.

3. Examining the state of issue in Russia using foreign and Russian sources of information. The content develops critical thinking and encourages students to use the acquired language structures for describing Russian real-life situations and phenomena.

4. Discussing future scenarios. Having studied the issue students are asked to predict how the situation will change in the future. It develops analytical skills and teaches students to find solutions in different challenging situations. In some cases students are involved into taking actions. For example, if the issue is focused on class affiliation, they collect clothes and other things for orphanages. If ethnic problems are being focused
upon, prepare concerts of ethnic minorities’ folk art and perform them in secondary schools.

Thus, all the stages of study cover cognitive, affective, and strategic constituents of multicultural competence.

Different points of view cannot but cause argument and disagreement. The effectiveness of discussing cutting-edge problems is guaranteed by organising tolerant interaction in the educational area. To promote a benevolent free self-expression atmosphere the participants of the course discuss and agree on the tolerant area of the discipline where communicants are recommended to become ready and willing to interact with the others in the most constructive way. Such interaction presupposes cooperation, search for compromises and uniting points, in other words, tolerance to different opinions that proves a high level of communicants’ social competence.

It is considered sensible to illustrate the above given stages of teaching with an example. One of the most urgent problems nowadays in many parts of the world is race and ethnicity, and its discussion always generates great interest and excitement on the part of the students. This topic is considered following the above given algorithm. Firstly, students study such notions as “race”, “ethnicity”, “ethnic group”, “stereotype”, “prejudice”, different theories of prejudice, “majority”, “minority”, and their patterns of interaction – assimilation, pluralism, segregation, and genocide. It is essential to show the historical development of interaction patterns, and the value of pluralism that retains cultural heritage and makes people respect and accept otherness.

To illustrate the attitude of the State to minority groups students are asked to read the text “Unequal under the Law: Ethnic and Race Problems in Malaysia”. In the process of discussion students find similarities of ethnic quota systems in Malaysia and the Affirmative Action in the USA. Studying this issue promotes investigating other examples of implementing quota systems in ethnic problem-solving, such as using ethnic ratio while selling apartments in condominiums in Singapore. Students define pros and cons of quota systems and determine walks of life in which quotas seem to be justified.

Having studied examples of majority-minority interaction in different parts of the world, and analysed positive and negative trends within them, students start talking about the racial and ethnic problems in Russia both in retrospective and perspective terms. They find information about ethnic clashes in Russia and try to explain those using sociological theories. It is essential that students should
realise the interrelation of all the world processes: ethnic clashes are closely connected to the economic problems, issues of global inequality, and other social differences within one state or on the international level. The students are getting more aware of the pros and cons of globalisation that, on the one hand, results in economic world integration, but on the other hand, blots out cultural differences between peoples. This also brings about its own advantages and disadvantages because together with the willingness to have contact more with other cultures this process stems into a strong desire for some representatives of minority ethnic groups to retain their cultural peculiarities using all the possible methods including aggressive and violent ones. Students’ comprehension of the complexity and multifaceted character of social phenomena is a prerequisite for their profound analyses of the matters before they formulate their own point of view about it.

Besides forming their own opinion while discussing the urgent facts and relevant information students are involved in activities that develop their emotional world perception and contribute to the affective constituents of the intercultural competence. Sympathy and compassion as forms of empathy enable students to accept others, to tolerate opposite points of view if they are not of “A destructive character”. As a practical activity, students are asked to conduct an interactive presentation for middle school students on the issue covering the themes of skinheads’ activities, causes of extremists’ movements, and their real goals which are often concealed by using slogans of equity and equality. Moreover, they participate in collecting clothes and other essential for life, things for refugees and disadvantaged minorities.

Thus, researching the issue gets students aware of the laws, trends, and theories that underlie ethnic problems and their worldwide solutions. Students sharpen their critical thinking skills, focus on the eternal values, develop their emotional sphere, and take actions that contribute to problem-solving. In the course of the time that is allotted for the course one can observe a developing of students’ tolerance which is manifested in less critical utterances towards each other, readiness for collaboration, and acceptance of those who once were ostracised.

These observations are proven by the results of questionnaires held before and after teaching the course. After answering the questions students scored the points that corresponded to a certain level of tolerance. In our investigation we considered the following levels of tolerance: aggressive intolerance, verbal intolerance, concealed intolerance, indifference, valued tolerance, protective tolerance. In 2010 138 students of Pskov State Pedagogical University participated in the experiment. Among them there were 42 students of the Faculty of Physics
and Mathematics, 56 students of the Faculty of Natural Sciences, and 40 students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages. On average the representatives of three different faculties manifested the level of tolerance that corresponds to indifference, although the scored points were different: the students of the Faculty of Physics and Mathematics scored on average 16.3, the students of the Faculty of Natural Sciences – 21.3, and the students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages – 26.2, which corresponds to indifference too, but is closer to valued tolerance. The main reason for such a relatively high level of tolerance among the students of the Foreign Languages Faculty in our view is the aim of foreign language learning: co-learning of cultures and developing the features of the secondary language personality, without which the acquisition of the foreign language and culture is impossible. These data prove that foreign language learning has a great pedagogical potential in terms of developing students’ personalities.

As the course is included into the syllabus of the educational programme at the Faculty of Foreign Languages, and is taught in English, only the students of this faculty were able to sign up for it. After teaching the course the questionnaire was held again and the level of tolerance reached the highest points of valued tolerance (58.7 points). The course has been conducted since 2004. The author holds the survey every year before and after teaching a group of 15–20 students and every year the results show a doubling rise in points of the tolerance level.

This result enabled us to formulate the steps for teaching tolerance if the multifaceted character of this sociocultural and pedagogical phenomenon is presented in the content and the technologies of the course:

1. Incentive to discuss hot issue of the social life caused by recent events
2. Emotional rapport caused by the discussion
3. Modeling similar situations and role-playing
4. Analysing modeled situations and conclusion about the most efficient interaction patterns in present conditions
5. Taking actions – project work on the group level with high community involvement.

Apart from the above mentioned issues students are able to offer their own topics for discussions if they are of a great interest for the majority and relate to social problems. Especially welcomed is introducing topics within the discussed issue, as no manual or deliberately selected material can substitute real life situations and real world examples.
Students appreciate the opportunity to discuss social issues understanding their urgency.

They confide that problems of religious differences, ethnic clashes, global inequality are not touched on anywhere else but they are to be debated as they are encountered in everyday life. Students see that all the sociocultural problems are interrelated and one always entails the other. One of the most serious and advantageous aspects of the course, as it is seen by the students, is examining international documents on human rights and tolerance principles, which results in analysing the concept of tolerance and its place in the modern world. Students notice that quite a few facts and pieces of information that once left them indifferent now seem significant and meaningful, which proves that they have widened their outlook and are getting more broadminded. Thus, the results of observing the students’ behaviour correspond to the data we obtained after the questionnaire analysis.

Therefore, the results of experimental teaching enable us to formulate the stages of molding and development of the students at the age of 16 and up:

1. Cognising oneself, accumulating experience, realising interests and needs via tolerant interaction, which brings about awareness of tolerance as a social value and a factor of personality development.
2. Obtaining tolerance as a personally meaningful value.
3. Transforming tolerance as a value into the principle of behavior through organising personally meaningful activities.
4. Affective personal development through cultivating empathy, mental flexibility and self-control.

These stages can be conventionally divided into two periods. The first period is characterised by achieving cognitive and motivational criteria for developing tolerance, and ends up including this phenomenon into the system of motivationally meaningful attitudes of personality. The second period wholly can be defined as the period of tolerance transformation into the principle of personality behaviour, realising that behaviour is determined by concrete situations and feelings they arouse, which confirms the unfeasibility to separate behaviour from affective reactions. It is worth mentioning that all the stages are interrelated and entering the next stage does not mean a mechanical lift one step higher. Entering a new stage implies perfecting all the previous stages of tolerance development.
Thus, we can conclude that the elective course, which was first initiated as an opportunity to implement the ideas of multiculturalism in teaching and learning, proved to contribute to the students’ tolerance development and confirmed that students’ intercultural competence presupposes tolerance as a personal quality.

REFERENCES


Experience of Educational and Psychological Counselling in the Cross-Cultural Environment

Sergei Džalalov (Narva)

The educational and psychological counselling aims at providing pupils with the opportunity to obtain proper education. Another goal is to help pupils to cope with problems of everyday school life. Certainly, a pedagogical psychologist requires the corresponding professional competency in psychological and pedagogical disciplines to achieve the goals. Moreover, the range of school problems is so wide that a consultant needs certain individual features and flexibility of thinking in order to switch from one problem to another (Džalalov, 2011). For instance, some problems can be connected with questions of the readiness of pupils for the compulsory education and other – with the question of adolescence of a sixth grade pupil.

Experience shows that working in the multicultural environment requires an additional competency. It sometimes happens that the expert in the field of child’s development cannot cope with the request of a client only for the reason of different understanding of the ‘concept of development’ which varies from one culture to another (Eleftheriadou, 2005). Also consultants – representatives of diverse ethnic groups, can interpret the behaviour of a child in different ways.

A pedagogical psychologist in the multicultural environment has to be aware of norms of other cultures. Hence problems should be observed in the context of cultural peculiarities. Many counselling approaches fail, if a client is a so-called ‘ethnic client’ who belongs to the ethnic minority. It happens due to the fact that many approaches understand the needs of such clients very stereotypically. This means that they do not take into account cultural particularities of clients (Corey, 2003). Cross-cultural counselling is the field which assuredly has to consider such variables as ethnicity, nationality, religion and language (Pedersen, 1991).
Experience of educational and psychological counselling at schools of Ida-Viru County allows to find interesting facts which demonstrate the impact of ‘ethnic variables’ on the process of counselling, consultant’s understanding of his/her task, and on teacher’s or parent’s satisfaction with the result of the consultation.

As far as none of the theoretical orientations or schools of psychological counselling reflects all possible situations of the interrelationship between a consultant and a client, the commonly applied approach in the counselling can be denoted as eclectic. This approach includes seven consequent stages: the analysis of a problem, the two-dimensional identification of a problem, the identification of the alternatives, planning, and the evaluation of the decision, activity, and feedback (Kochunas, 1999).

The experience shows that the variable of ethnicity may occur at any stage of counselling and if it is ignored, the process can cause disappointment and dissatisfaction of both the client and the counsellor. The ethnic variable can be viewed differentially in the light of four dimensions of national culture, namely: the intention to avoid vagueness, the individualism/collectivism, the alienation of authority, the masculinity/feminacy (Hofstede, 1980). They can significantly and unnoticeably influence on consultant’s understanding of his/her task, on the problem of the client, and on the request. Let us have a closer look on the two of them – the individualism/collectivism and the intention to avoid vagueness.

As it follows, for instance, the intention to avoid vagueness on the different poles has the opposite ways of the perception of anxiety. On the one side there are those who attach importance to the routine and uniformity. They are less tolerant to the non-traditional ideas and show less interest in terms of them. They tend to avoid risky decisions. On the other side there are those who attach less value to the formality and rules. They are not interested in the uniformity and they are able to be tolerant towards different ideas. They run a risk easier in terms of a personal decision. The vagueness itself in the consciousness is experienced as anxiety. The differences in the attitude to this anxiety create the spectrum of differences from one culture to another.

Here is an example – a parent whose child goes to Russian-medium school. The most important for him is the fact that the life of his child is relatively well-structured for the future five-eight years of study. This period includes the acquisition of knowledge and skills. However, the position of the parent significantly limits the child’s freedom of choice. Turning with a request to a consultant at school, the parent already has certain prejudice in terms of the
future studying plan of his child. Moreover, this plan is the only true option and it cannot be the subject of analysis. In the process of counselling, as a rule, the parent denies possible non-traditional ideas and does not take a risk. Hence the consultant’s function is to provide the pupil with the required resources in order to fulfil the learning plan created in advance. The parent usually rationalises his child’s opposition or disobedience by the ‘the child can do what he/she wants only after school has been finished’ belief. The discussion on the issue of child’s freedom of choice can cause a conflict with the parent. The crucial factor which impacts the process of counselling is the sense of anxiety a parent has when his/her child’s future is vague. A parent often demonstrates a low degree of tolerance in terms of reduction of anxiety and he/she is not ready to wait until a child matures for making his/her own decisions about his/her future.

A parent whose child goes to Estonian-medium school demonstrates another attitude towards the learning process of his/her child. He/she is ready to search for alternatives. This parent is more concentrated on the child’s ability to value the study and to choose freely. The reduction of educational attainment or some failure of a child may not become an issue of suspense for a parent, but the other way round, it can be interpreted as an opportunity for a child to make his/her own decision. Future is not a plan with a rigid framework. However, it is a sequence of options. And many of these options can be reversible. Current failures in this case are experienced easier than in the above-mentioned situation with a Russian child. The rationalized belief in this case might be the following: “the most important thing is that a child knows what he/she wants”.

Another peculiar ethnic variable in the counselling request is the individualism/collectivism. Individualism implies a freely bound social structure of a society where a person, as it is supposed, is independent, self-reliant, and he/she takes care of him/herself and of his/her family only. Collectivism, in return, emphasizes the interdependence of every human being. It is implied that a person relies on his/her relatives, communities and labour organisations. Collectivist society requires emotional dependence from its members. In a society with equal rights of an individual and a group, organisations are those to take responsibility for their members (Hofstede, 1980).

In practice we reveal that a teacher from a Russian-medium school is often concerned about how he/she might be percepted by his/her colleagues and parents of pupils. He/she demonstrates the fact that he/she cares about other people’s opinions when he/she makes a decision. To a certain extent, he/she is responsible for feelings and emotions of other people which caused by his/her
decision. He/she frequently asks the consultant about how to influence on the people around and what exactly to do in order to achieve his/her goal. In other words, he/she wants to get a tool of influence. During a consultation a teacher from an Estonian-medium school separates his/her private space from other colleagues and from problems of other pupils. Instead of the responsibility for other people, he/she talks about responsibility for him/herself. Saving private boundaries is the main issue of his/her concern. Hence he/she can overlook an opportunity to interfere in pupil’s problems. A teacher asks a lot about him/herself, he/she wants to change him/herself, or he/she is eager to obtain new knowledge and skills. A teacher him/herself is the centre of a request, not a tool of influence as in the case of the consultation with a teacher from a Russian-medium school.

The question frequently asked by a teacher from a Russian-medium school is “What shall I do in order to get more respect?” A teacher from an Estonian-medium school being in the same situation asks this way: “How not to react destructively to situations of disrespect?”.

Certainly, in order to see the impact of ethnic variables it is required to distinquish them from other factors. For instance, in the first case we deal with the personal anxiety of a teacher and we should difference it from the way how the anxiety is coped with within his culture. In the case of another example, we should distinguish between the collectivist attitude and the dependent personality disorder. We refer to the dependent disorder as to a problem. However, the notion of a strong emotional affection within a collectivist culture is considered as a norm. Cultural variables cannot be considered separately. They are a part of the framework of the counselling process and they manifest in different matters – in the client’s reasoning, in the way of behaving and thinking, or in his/her way to interpret a situation. The process of counselling is very dynamic and due to that a consultant is in a danger of paying little attention to the cultural background of his/her client. I doubt wether a client and a consultant at the beginning of a consultation negotiate about the way they interpret the central concepts included into the consultation. For example, for a parent whose child goes to Russian-medium school the concept of ‘academic success’ is associated with the public opinion and with objective evaluation. A parent whose child goes to Estonian-medium school associates this concept with the child’s subjective attitude to the learning process. The situation where the consultant is a bearer of one of these concepts can provoke the contradiction of the cultural frame between him/her and the client. The consultant can subconsciously
induce the client to his/her way of thinking, perception, and interpretation. This can result in distancing and intensifying feelings of being misunderstood. The client will probably conclude that the consultant’s professional qualification is insufficient.

In cross-cultural work it is important for a consultant to have a good level of personal cultural awareness in order to overcome cross-cultural barriers and prejudices. A counsellor needs to be as objective as possible while interpreting the situation with a client. Clients have to be understood within their cultural context. This helps to establish good interaction with a client and it improves efficiency of a consultation.

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During the last 10 years a necessity to promote the formation of a unified community has arisen in Europe that would support and improve the quality of life, including quality of skills and employment, social wellbeing and equal opportunities for all.

As studies carried out in the EU member states prove, e.g. *Causes and duration of unemployment and social exclusion* (2007), *Social situation in the European Union* (2010), the competitive capacity of people in the labour market is significantly influenced by the level and quality of education that they have acquired, therefore the availability of education for persons under high risk of social exclusion and unemployment is significant, in order to reduce the risks of social exclusion and unemployment.

In 2003 the World Bank, European Commission and the Open Society Institute announced 2005-2015 as the “Decade of Roma inclusion” in Central and South Eastern Europe, the aim of which is to develop and implement special state action plans for solving this issue.

One of the problems regarding the inclusion of Roma in Latvia is the lack of education. Due to poor education and discrimination there is a high level of unemployment within the Roma community. Studies carried out in Latvia (*Ethnic Tolerance and Integration of Society of Latvia, 2003, Causes and duration of unemployment and social exclusion, 2007*) show that the Roma that are exposed to intolerance are under particular risk in Latvia. The attitude towards them in a large part of the population is guided by stereotypes and bias.

In vocational education, by implementation of an inclusive approach in education, it is possible to promote not only the inclusion of youth with special needs, but also youth from risk groups, particularly the Roma, in the labour market, and also create an environment that is focused on every student provid-
Looking for New Ways to Promote the Roma Inclusion in the Vocational Education in Latvia

Inclusion of Roma in the system of vocational education is topical both in Latvia and elsewhere. Currently the emphasis is put on the opportunity for Roma youth to maintain their ethnical identity and culture during the educational process, and on the discovery of innovative approaches, in order to promote the Roma inclusion, by working in partnership with the Roma and their leaders.

The European and Latvian experience in Roma inclusion in the educational system proves that there is a necessity to study profoundly the needs of vocational education (VET) of Roma, and to develop curricula that take into account the special needs of Roma, in order to implement effectively and purposefully the principle of equal opportunities in the fields of education, employment and human rights of the Roma community.

The purpose of the study is to explore the needs and wishes of the Roma regarding vocational education and develop recommendations in order to promote the inclusion of the Roma in VET by considering and respecting the Roma culture. The study characterises the situation with the Roma inclusion in vocational education in Latvia.

In order to achieve the aims of the study, questionnaires of the Riga State Technical school 132 teachers were selected to find out their attitude to implementing inclusive education. Interviews were used to find out the opinions of the Roma (2 leaders of Romani unions, 5 Roma students and 3 parents) on VET in Latvia, and to explore their needs and wishes as to vocational education. Based on the results, recommendations were developed in order to promote the inclusion of the Roma in vocational education by considering and respecting the Roma culture.

In addition to the study performed by the authors of the article, the information from other studies has been used: “Ethnic tolerance and the integration of the society in Latvia” by Baltic Institute of Social sciences (Zepa, Šūpule et.al., 2004), “The situation of Roma in Latvia” by Human rights and ethnic studies centre of Latvia, 2003, “On the way to a civic society” (Zepa, Šūpule et.al., 2001).

Context of the Study

Nowadays vocational education is facing a demand to react promptly to the needs (requirements) of the national economy, at the same time ensuring the quality of the programmes offered to the learners that correspond to their needs, in the situation when, having reached a respective level of professional qualifi-
cation, the learners’ competitiveness increases as well as their chances to join the international labour market. Gradually the process of forming a common European space of vocational education is continuing (the work is performed on developing a common modular approach and the introduction of credit points, promotion of the mobility of learners and staff involved in VET, etc.) This creates a necessity to change the existing vocational curricula. Riga State Technical School (RSTS) since 2009 has started the work to restructure content-wise and methodologically the offered vocational education programmes in order to ensure flexible study modules and their planning in a way that corresponds to lifelong learning.

Promotion of Inclusive Education at RSTS

*The Guidelines of education development in Latvia 2007–2013* emphasise inclusive education as one of the key instruments for increasing the quality of education. Several approaches have been developed in the world that facilitate the transition to learning centred around one particular programme, to such a teaching/learning model, which is flexible and concentrated on study services, thus ensuring a possibility for every learner to succeed.

In order to implement inclusive education successfully RSTS has developed, and it is gradually implementing “The Development programme of RSTS for promoting inclusive education” (2010–2015), which is based on the policy principles of inclusive education and is to be regarded as the planning document, which determines the development vision and goals, the objectives, the directions of activities, the necessary resources as well as the predictable outcomes of RSTS.

The Development programme of RSTS has been devised on the basis of the studies performed in Latvia and abroad in developing inclusive vocational education, taking into account the guidelines for the society and education development, which are expressed in the planning documents on inclusive politics and inclusive education of Latvia and other European countries: *Salamanca Declaration* (1994), European Commission “*European year for combating poverty and social exclusion*” (2010), “*Latvia 2030. Sustainable development strategy of Latvia*”, *The Guidelines of education development in Latvia 2007–2013* and the development trends of inclusive vocational education; as well as taking into consideration the accumulated experience and ideas about introducing and implementing inclusive education in RSTS, which have been obtained by analysing the activities of RSTS (2008–2010).
The ideas expressed by J.P. Comer (2004), D. Prets (2000) and V. Stevens, I. De Bourdeauhuij, P. Van Oost (2001) on developing a qualitative school development programme form the methodological background of the development programme of RSTS. The basis of the inclusive school development programme of RSTS is the theoretical basis or the leading philosophy, which provides theoretical information how to improve the teaching/learning conditions of all learners, and indicates the support activities to reach it. *The Index of Inclusive education* (2008) serves as the basis for this leading philosophy.

The idea that lies at the basis of the RSTS development programme is – all learners are able to learn and that every learner needs a short-term or long-term support.

As the goal of the RSTS development programme is to develop qualitative vocational education accessible to everyone, in order to facilitate social integration and to increase every person’s possibilities for inclusion in the labor market, thus decreasing social exclusion, attention is paid also to one of the most discriminated ethnic minorities in Latvia – the Roma. The results of the study *On the way to a civic society* (2001: 76-78) reveal that only 5% of Latvia’s inhabitants would agree to contact Roma to become their relatives, to marry them, and 27.2% of respondents would not like to live in neighbours with Roma. 33% of Latvia’s inhabitants consider that Roma should not be allowed in the country at all. Both the studies performed in Latvia (*The situation of Roma in Latvia* by Human rights and ethnic studies centre of Latvia, 2003) and in other countries of Europe show that the negative stereotypes about Roma are widely spread. Racism against Roma in Europe and elsewhere in the world is recognised as a special problem that has to be addressed in all countries where Roma live.

Roma is one of 156 minorities in Latvia. According to *The Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs* (2010) statistic data, today 8582 Roma live in Latvia, which constitutes 0.3% of Latvia’s population. As ~ 94% of Roma are citizens of Latvia, they speak freely two or even three languages — Roma, Latvian and also Russian.

There are three Roma communities in Latvia — “Polish Roma”, “Russian Roma” (Russian speaking) and “Latvian Roma” (Latvian speaking) (Čigānu apvienošanas kongresā izceļas asi konflikti, 2010). The Russian Roma communities are mainly found in Latgale and the Latvian speaking Roma communities live in Kurzeme and Vidzeme (Apine, 2007).

So far the Roma of Latvia have failed to unite in one organization because the above mentioned groups find it difficult and it limits the possibilities to
use EU support programmes which are envisaged for the minority population of EU countries. This is confirmed by the fact that on September 25, 2010 the Congress of Uniting Latvia’s Roma, which was organised by Riga Roma association union, and Latvia’s Roma organisation and which envisaged establishing a union “Union of Roma — Romano associations of Latvia” ended in severe conflict among Roma who participated in the congress.

If earlier Roma lived in Gypsy camps and changed places nowadays Roma have permanent dwelling places in Latvia. Despite that Roma preserve their isolation; they distrust representatives of other cultures. This is one of the reasons which complicates the performance of studies which are related to Roma and finding out their views on the topical issues for Roma. An example of this is the opinion expressed by Normunds Rudevičs, President of Roma national culture association of Latvia that the study *The situation of Roma in Latvia* by Human rights and ethnic studies centre of Latvia, (2003) can increase the negative attitude to Roma in the society. “I think that the aim of the study was not to help our nation but to emphasize even stronger our problems”, said Rudevičs adding that, “there should be no studies worth 36 thousand Euro; recommendations should be developed how to make our life easier so that Roma could integrate successfully in the society.” According to Rudevičs the fact that the authors of the study do not have the information about the actual number of Roma in Latvia casts doubt on its objectivity. Statistics show that there were 8000 Roma in Latvia in 2000 but the authors of the study presume that there are more Roma – around 13–15 thousand (Rudevičs negatīvi vērtē pētījumu par Latvijas čigāniem, 2003).

During the last 5 years the Roma community is rapidly decreasing due to emigration. The key problems of Latvia’s Roma are the lack of education, professional training and poverty and unemployment resulting from this. Ca. 99% of Latvia’s Roma are unemployed (1% of Roma are officially employed) (Dukāte, 2010). National Programme „Roma in Latvia” 2007 – 2009, was developed in Latvia in 2006 to promote the integration of Roma, within which several activities were carried out, e.g. 20 Roma assistant teachers and 30 teachers for work in the inclusive groups of the educational institutions were educated. Today 7 of 20 are working as assistant teachers.

Studies carried out in Latvia prove that, in the time period from 2008 to 2010, the number of Roma children in preschools and institutions of basic education has increased as well as the number of Roma parents who encourage their children’s learning at school has increased. It is also positive that education in 8 minority languages is implemented in Latvia: Russian, Polish, Jewish,
Ukrainian, Estonian, Lithuanian, Roma and Byelorussian. In academic year 2009/2010 Romani language is taught as an optional subject in two schools. (Mazākumtautību izglītība Latvijā, 2010).

Experience of Riga State Technical School (RSTS) in Roma inclusion can be summarised as follows:

- A special Roma learning group was established in RSTS 2002 in cooperation with The Latvian Romani Union in order to offer a possibility for Roma youth to acquire secondary vocational education in programming.
- On May 29, 2002 the president of Latvian Romani Union N. Rudevičs asked to transfer Roma ethnic group learners to the vocational professional curriculum “Commercial studies” mentioning the fact that after graduating the learners will have a better possibility to specialise and find employment.
- 18 learners started their studies in the Roma group in academic year 2002/2003 of which 14 learners continued their education.
- In academic year 2002/2003 6 Roma learners studied in general groups.
- The learning of Roma students, their scholarship, 50% of transport expenses and their living in the dormitory was financed from the state budget. (Only 3 Roma students lived in the dormitory).
- Only 4 students of 14 Roma learners acquired vocational education in RSTS.
- In the academic year 2009/2010 the cooperation with Latvia Romani Unions has been renewed.

“The Development programme of RSTS for promoting inclusive education” (2010-2015) was worked out which, as regards Roma, envisages:

- to promote tolerance, decrease of negative stereotypes and prejudices;
- to facilitate development of learners’ culture (including Roma) and preservation of their ethnic identity;
- to promote active participation of Roma inclusion in promoting VET of Roma youth;
- to promote the dialogue of the representative of Roma community with the social partners of RSTS for Roma integration in the labor market.

**The Opinion of Roma Community about VET**

In order to find out the opinion and needs of 10 Roma in vocational education, we used semi-structures or relatively open interviews that lasted from 15 to 45 minutes. They were recorded, then transcribed and summarised using the content analysis with the aim to determine the importance of the narrative by delv-
ing into its content. On the basis of the content units the authors have singled out the following sets of the main categories and concepts, which structure the analysis of interviews: needs of the Roma, inclusion in the educational institution, the learning process, teachers’ attitude, the identity of Roma culture. We have presented here the utterances of the interviewees, in some cases they have been edited literary to avoid stylistic and language mistakes but not changing the essence of the utterance.

The respondents answering the open questions about the main problems in vocational education that hinder the inclusion of Roma in VET stressed such categories as the negative attitude of the majority, “top down” education policy implemented by the majority.

“So far the key problem in vocational education and in education in general has been that others know better what Roma people need.”

The respondents mention teachers as the main problem in vocational education who often are not ready to work with learners representing other cultures, thus they do not fully understand the needs of Roma.

“How can we send our children to master a profession if the teachers are all the time shouting at them and calling them fools... What should we do there if no one understands us and we are not welcomed there?”

The respondents focus their expectations more on the aspects that describe active processes of acquiring the profession in the educational institution. Roma especially point out the necessity for school and out-of-school activities where Roma could have a possibility to dance, sing, and thus acquainting their peers with Roma traditions, which indicates the desire to join and feel that you belong, as well as the features of the mentality.

Answering the question about possibilities to promote the inclusion of Roma learners in vocational education, the respondents indicate that a significant problem is the fact that, when working with Roma learners, teachers do not use active and attractive methods and materials, which according to respondents proves that there is lack of interest.

“As many teachers have problems with expressively active Roma temperament, it is necessary to think about using more active teaching/learning methods.”

Probably, also due to time limitations, teachers are not able to devote special attention to the needs of Roma learners therefore as several respondents point out there is a need for the assistant teacher – a Roma – who will be trained and knowledgeable in special methods of teaching and learning. (Authors: there is already experience in Latvia that Roma – assistant teachers work in some preschools).
“It is necessary to offer Roma youth more attractive vocational education curricula, which are developed in cooperation with Roma.”

Interviews with Roma provided information which confirmed the assumption of the authors of the article that in order to improve the vocational education programmes that would correspond to the needs of Roma, attention should be paid to the traditional kinds of Roma employment.

“Many Roma people would study in vocational education institutions if, for example, they could master the craft of a smith, metal processor, the leader of cultural activities, as well as programmes connected with music.”

As the studies carried out in Latvia prove, activities of Roma in Latvia largely depend on the place of their living. Roma living in the countryside (mainly women and children) pick up berries, then sell them to businessmen (berry processing companies, cafes, shops) or sell them in the streets near the shops or the markets, or participate in gathering harvest; men buy and sell horses and leather; both in the countryside and towns, and Roma men living in the cities are involved in trade and buying cars. Roma women living in the cities sell clothes, tell fortunes; men collect metal, process it and hand it down further, etc., buy cars; in some cases they make jewellery. Roma often are involved in crafts – they are smiths, shoemakers.

**Teachers’ Views on Inclusive Education**

The survey results of teachers from RSTS showed that 70.5% of them consider that inclusive education is necessary in RSTS. The obtained data reveal a tendency that respondents, who have experience in work with learners from different cultures, are ready to promote the inclusion of Roma learners in the class.

Teachers who have gained information about inclusive education are more tended for work with learners with different needs.

“I have worked in the group where one student was a Roma, I have to say frankly that I actually did not know what to do with him because he came late for studies, did only those tasks which he wanted; often he did not comply with the class rules, e.g., spoke on the mobile phone during the lessons.”

“I consider that Roma should not be singled out, that are as any other representative of a different culture. I don’t understand why there is a view that they [Roma] should be treated specially”

“My experience in work with Roma is very positive, if you find “the right approach” to them, everything is OK. I think our school is ready that more Roma youth studies there.”
Teachers who have experience in work with Roma youth admitted that it is very positive that RSTS cooperates with Roma unions.

Several lectures about Roma culture both in Latvian and Roma language has been organised in RSTS, which according to teachers’ observations has improved both the learners’ and teachers’ attitude to Roma. Flexible ways of acquiring VET, the use of teaching/learning methods that are oriented towards action and communication in the learning process promotes a successful inclusion of Roma in VET.

**Recommendations**

- To introduce and implement the policy of inclusive education in VET institutions.
- To ensure accessible, positive, open, creative learning and working environment for the Roma people.
- To facilitate mutual support and assistance in the learning process and the improvement of social skills by using the cooperative learning.
- To work and use a flexible assessment system of students’ learning and practical work.
- To implement learning forms that are action oriented, which emphasise the activities of the learners themselves and the achievement of the learning outcomes.
- To develop and offer VET programmes which correspond to the needs of Roma, e.g., in horse-breeding, smiths, music, metal processing, jewellery makers, commercial activities, motor engineering.
- To promote the work of VET teachers, families, specialist of different fields, social partners as a joint team work;
- To promote the development of a positive attitude of VET teachers, learners, their families and social partners towards Roma.
- To acquaint all employees of RSTS and cooperation partners (also mentors at practice places) with the ideas of inclusive education.
- To encourage teachers to adjust flexibly to different needs and abilities of the learners by modifying the learning content, assessment criteria, environment, materials and teaching styles according to the learners’ needs.
- To organise regularly different activities that promote getting acquainted with the culture of other nationalities – concerts of performance groups,
theatre performances, joint out-of-class activities, competitions, thematic events, etc.

- To promote the possibility for Roma children and youth to preserve their ethnic identity and culture in the educational process, by increasing the teachers’ knowledge of the Roma language, in order to use successfully the bilingual methodology in the study process and to strengthen intercultural dialogue in the school and out-of-class events, and so to continue decreasing the negative stereotypes and prejudices that govern in the society.

Conclusions

The inclusive approach plays an important role in the vocational education for promoting equality, social and societal integration, tolerance, diversity and the success of all learners. The study identified several problems which are faced when introducing and implementing the inclusive education, e.g., the negative attitude of many teachers towards Roma, lack of knowledge about Roma culture and history. It is impossible to achieve the inclusion of Roma in vocational education if teachers do not understand the life style and world perception of Roma.

The existing teacher education in Latvia does not specifically address address Roma children’s educational issues. School authorities and teachers have to play a more active role in providing a friendlier environment for Roma pupils.

The authors of the paper consider that the participation of Roma community in planning the policy of inclusive school, promotes the motivation of Roma youth to acquire vocational education. One of the main conclusions from the authors is: In order to provide a successful Roma inclusion in the vocational education it is necessary to broaden the offer of vocational education programmes adding professions such as blacksmith, stableman, as well as metal working, wood-working, commercial skills etc. The authors of the study believe that in the everyday learning and education process lies a direct tolerance promotion when diversity is respected and appreciated.
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Looking for New Ways to Promote the Roma Inclusion in the Vocational Education in Latvia

Latvijas Čigānu – Latvijas Čigānu nacionālās kultūras biedribas prezidenta N. Rudeviča vēstule 2002.29.05. Nr. 24/a RVT direktoram.


Language Use Among Bilingual Students in Different Sociolinguistic Conditions (Russian-Estonian Bilingualism)

Irina Moissejenko, Natalia Zamkovaja, Natalia Tshuikina (Tallinn)

Introduction

There is a significant number of parents in modern Russian diaspora in Estonia who put their children to schools with Estonian as a language of instructions in order to provide them with a worthy place in the Estonian society (bilingual students make up 3.1% of total amount of students in Estonian-medium schools (see Zamkovaja, Moissejenko, Tshuikina 2010: 148); this results in bilingualism uprising. Unfortunately, such pupils quite often lack in linguistic and cultural-logical competence with regard to native language and culture (Baker 2005: 27).

As the research shows (e.g. Карунту, 2010), the group of bilingual students is not homogeneous in the context of their bilingualism. Thus, some of them study Russian as a foreign language B starting from the 6th year (language A is usually English). So, depending on the home language (only Russian or Russian with one of the parents) we can observe two bilingualism types – combined and pure bilingualism (according to the classification on the relatedness of verbal mechanisms) (Верещагин 1969: 27-28), natural as the result of the full immersion in the other language environment of studies, and two home languages; productive according to psychological classification (ibid.: 24-25). The other ones finished a Russian-medium middle school, however they get their secondary education in an Estonian-medium school. Nevertheless, the students of the 11th year study Russian and literature according to the programme of the Russian-medium school, only concisely. Yet one has to take into account that, when studying the other subjects and communicating with the Estonian-speaking part of the class and with the teachers, they use the Estonian language. The specific nature of the mentioned group hinders the identification of the bilingualism type the students of the group belong to, as they immerse in the Estonian-speaking environment for a significantly short period of time, and this fact does not allow to
subsume them to the full extent either to the bearers of natural bilingualism or productive one. Nevertheless, under condition that the home language of the testees is Russian, according to the theory of relatedness of verbal mechanisms, they can be referred to the bearers of pure bilingualism.

The Research and its Methodology
The interviews took place in November-December 2009 in Tallinn, Pärnu and Tartu. The bilingual students studying in the Estonian-medium school, mainly from the 1st year and chosen by the schools’ administration, were interviewed. Altogether there were questioned 53 students of 9th-12th years from 4 schools with Estonian as a language of the instruction. In addition to it there was a written questionnaire. The interview was conducted as a secondary method for getting more reliable data.

The designed interview can be considered as being semi-formalised, since it consisted of questions of both free-answer and closed types (Merton, Fiske & Kendall, 1990). According to the principles and extent of inspection conducted by the researcher while interviewing, the described interview can be qualified as being a directed one. Questions asked contained both with exact and inexact wording. The first type of questions were asked by the interviewer in the way and the order they were written. The second type involved the way that some of the questions were formulated at the option of the interviewer who adjusted them to every respondent depending on the current conversation, orientating not as much on the questionnaire than on the list of information which was to be obtained from every respondent. The questions within the current interview let to a swift response on the reply statements of a respondent, in order not to lose any important information which could be mentioned by the respondent accidentally or implicitly. The respondents were asked both general (of greater logical capacity) and particular (of least logical capacity) questions. The interview refers to the focused class, as it is a task-oriented one and it concentrates on a definite problem. According to the number of participants the conducted interview refers to an individual category.

The interviewing consisted of the following stages: preparation of the interview, including general and specific preparation; the beginning; the main part; the conclusion; the processing of results. The duration of the interview was no longer than 15 minutes, which was defined by logical capacity of the topic and the needed intensity for its disclosure. The interview was recorded with consent of the respondent. The empirical data received were analysed and explained.
The following are the questions of the interview:
1. Do you mainly speak Russian or Estonian at home?
2. With other relatives?
3. With friends?
4. When you are in a café or restaurant, do you prefer to choose from the menu in Russian or Estonian?
5. What language do you speak when you come to the hairdresser’s, dry-cleaner, shoe-repair, etc.?
6. What hobby groups or clubs do you attend? Which language do you more often speak there?
7. What language do you find it easier to express your feelings, emotions?
8. Have you studied only in an Estonian-medium school? If not, tell us a little bit about these schools.
9. Have you experienced the situations when you were glad that you can speak Russian? Tell us about them.
10. What about the situations when it was unpleasant? Tell us if you wish.
11. Do you use Russian or Estonian more often in the Internet? Or some other language?
12. In what language it is easier for you to read books, magazines? To watch films, performances, broadcasts; to listen to the radio?
13. Have you ever had to write in Russian?

Additional question:
If it is not clear if the student converses in Russian only in Estonia or in some other countries language as well, a question can be asked in order to clarify the matter.

Results
The following data were received:

**Language of studies**
For all 53 students the language of studies is Estonian. It should be mentioned that one of them started education in Estonian being 8 years old, the other 2 were put in Russian-medium kindergartens, one person studied in a Russian-medium school for 5 years, the other one for 6 years; one person changed kindergartens (Russian – Estonian); one boy studied for a short period in an English-medium school in China; one girl studied 5 years in Italy.
Home language
In the family 31 students speak Russian. The two languages (Russian and Estonian) are spoken by 15 people. Only 3 students said that they speak nothing but Estonian. 4 students speak two languages (Estonian – Ukrainian, Estonian – Armenian, Russian – Dargwa, and Russian - Azerbaijani) – these people are from Tallinn and their language use demonstrates that their parents motivate them to use the languages of the countries where they originally come from when there used to be the Soviet Union.

Language for communicating with other relatives beyond the family
30 students use Russian to converse to relatives, the two languages are used by 13 people, 5 people speak Estonian. Other languages are used by 5 people: two of them speak Armenian and Estonian with their relatives, others speak Ukrainian, Russian and Dargwa, Azerbaijani.

Language spoken to friends
In order to communicate with friends 8 students use the Russian language: the two languages are spoken by 28 people, the Estonian language – 14 people. 3 students use 3 languages to converse with their friends: one of them chooses between Russian – Estonian – Ukrainian, the other one – Russian – Estonian – English, the third one – Russian – Estonian – German. There has to be mentioned that students who defined German as a language of use within different areas of communication are from the school majored in German (Tallinn).

Language in the services sector
Only 2 students use Russian in the services sector. The two languages are spoken by 20 people, Estonian – by 25 people, and most of them who replied this way are from Tartu and Pärnu. This result is very demonstrative, as it shows that the services sector in the south of Estonia is mostly monolingual, while Tallinn is mostly bilingual. 6 students from Tallinn replied that “it doesn’t matter which language to use”; 1 student speaks Finnish (“to drill” as he explained; it could be a part of the truth, but it must be taken into account in order to present the research results without any prejudice).
Language spoken in hobby groups
In hobby groups, sport clubs the Russian language is spoken by 14 people; the two languages – 11 people, Estonian is the language of communication for 27 people (2 of them also speak German in German dramatic club, another one speaks English, as the teachers of both do not speak Estonian or Russian), 1 person speaks other languages attending foreign language courses.

Language use in the Internet
In the Internet 2 people speak Russian and they are from Tallinn, 7 students admitted that they communicate only in Estonian, 11 students speak the two languages. In three languages (Russian – Estonian – English) 20 students communicate, Russian – Estonian – English –German are the languages of communication for 4 people, Estonian and English are chosen by 5 people, English and German – 2 people, only English – 1 person, one person uses Russian, Estonian and Italian (the girl who used to live in Italy for 5 years).

Speaking Russian in other countries
According to the students’ comments they have spoken Russian in the following countries: Russia, Ukraine, Lithuania, Latvia, America, Spain, Turkey, France, Poland, Belorussia, Finland, Greece, Egypt, Tunisia, Germany, Azerbaijan.

Language use to express emotions
17 people prefer to express their emotions in Russian, 11 students can do that in both languages, and 21 people prefer Estonian. Two people can use any language, one person chooses the language depending on the addressee – they meant Russian, Estonian, English and German; one respondent claimed that she better expresses herself in English or German.

Positive emotions while speaking Russian
All the respondents answered the question positively. They emphasised that the knowledge supports their studies at school, as they achieve better results in Russian as a foreign language class; others mentioned their own helpfulness in the streets when someone needs help and has no Estonian skills; the languages broadens communication scopes while travelling, etc.
Negative emotions while speaking Russian
10 students noticed that they have experienced bad feelings about their Russian in some situations: these are mostly connected with their early age at school when some of them did not have enough Estonian language competence.

Language of the information sources
Books in Russian are read by 3 people, in Estonian – 36 people, in both languages – 5 people, in three languages (Estonian – English – Russian) – 3 people, in Estonian and English – 4 people, in German and Estonian – 1 person, in Russian and German – 1 person. Magazines and newspapers in Russian preferred by 7 students, in Estonian – 36 students, in the both languages – 3 students, in Estonian and English – 4 students, in Russian and German – 1 person, in three languages 2 students (Estonian – Russian – Armenian, Estonian – Russian – German). Films in Russian are watched by 20 people, 3 students from Pärnu watch only in Estonian, in the two languages – 16 students, in English – 5 people, in Russian and German – 1 student, in three languages – 8 people (Russian – Estonian – English – 6, Russian – Estonian – German – 1, Russian – Estonian – Armenian – 1). The frequency of English in this category can be explained by the fact that films on Estonian television and in the cinemas are usually not dubbed – they go in the original language with Estonian subtitles, most of the films are American. Performances in Russian are attended by 11 students, in Estonian – 13 students, in both languages – 26 people, in Russian and German – 1 person, in different languages – 2 people. Television is watched in Russian by 11 people, in Estonian by 8 people, in the both languages – 27 people, in Russian and German – 1 student, in three languages – 6 students (Russian-Estonian-English – 5, Russian – Estonian – German – 1).

9 students listen to the radio in Russian, 9 students – in Estonian, 28 students – in the both languages, 6 students – in different languages.

The Russian language use in writing
In writing 43 respondents use Russian. They have had to write personal letters, e-mails, messages, sms, fill in forms. They communicated in writing either within the family or in hobby groups. Speaking about their writing abilities, respondents confessed their lack in them; they noticed that they felt ashamed for their written texts.

The following table demonstrates some data received:
Table 1.
Language use by bilingual students in different situations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Russian</th>
<th>Russian and Estonian</th>
<th>Estonian</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Estonian – Ukrainian, Estonian – Armenian, Russian – Dargwa, Russian - Azerbaijani</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ukrainian, Estonian – Armenian (2), Russian – Dargwa, Azerbaijani</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Russian–Estonian–Ukrainian, Russian–Estonian–English, Russian–Estonian–German</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>„it doesn’t matter what language to use“; 1 Finnish „to drill“</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Russian-Estonian-English</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Books</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td>Estonian-English-Russian</td>
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<td>Magazines, newspapers</td>
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<td>Estonian-English</td>
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<td>Russian-German</td>
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<td>Films</td>
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<td>Russian-German</td>
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<td>Performances</td>
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<td>Russian-Estonian-German</td>
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<td>Russian-Estonian-English</td>
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<td>Russian-German</td>
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<td>Radio</td>
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<td>Russian-Estonian-English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data show that the intensity and scope of application of the Russian language depend on different agents. One of them is the language of instruction at school. Under the influence of the medium language (in this case all the respondents study in Estonian-medium schools) the spheres of application for
using the Russian language grows away, and the intensity of application falls. So from 38 students researched, 7 students speak only Estonian with friends. In hobby groups Estonian is spoken by 17 people. Communicating in the Internet 11 students do not choose Russian.

It became apparent that the answers by the informants depend on the language environment. The regions where the interview was conducted differ on ethnic composition: the population of Tallinn is half-Russian speaking, what cannot be said about Tartu and Pärnu which are mostly Estonian-speaking.

It can be seen that 90% students speak Russian at home and 80% of them support their Russian skills communicating with relatives. The interviews show that those who do not are mostly from Tartu and Pärnu. Students from Tartu and Pärnu schools do not use one (Russian) language in the services sector; however, only 2 students from Tallinn use the one language. Russian in hobby groups is spoken by 2/3 Tallinn students, 1/3 Pärnu and 1/6 Tartu students. When using the Internet Russian is a means of communication for 1/4 students from Tallinn and Pärnu; students in Tartu do not use Russian on the Internet. Feelings and emotions in Russian are expressed by 2/3 Tallinn students and 1/3 Tartu and Pärnu students. Students from Tartu school have not attended performances or listened to the radio in Russian, 1/2 Tallinn and Pärnu students attend performances in Russian, 1/3 Tallinn students and 2/3 Pärnu students listen to the radio in Russian. Communication with friends or writing in the Russian language showed no differences in the regions.

All the respondents noticed their poor competence in written form in Russian; however, their spoken language also was not correct enough.

**Conclusion**

100% of students assess their knowledge of Russian as a positive agent and speak Russian not only in Estonia or Russia. The geographical use of the Russian language is quite vast, which can be assessed as a motivating force for supporting the language.

The other motivating force for it is the fact that most of the students confessed they would like to study Russian deeply, not just as a foreign language. Such research shows the aspects in their social life which can be used as supportive ones in the future special Russian course for bilingual students, as well as the spheres which need extra exercising, such as writing and reading.

Anyway, within a sociolinguistic perspective the language habit uses of the students demonstrate how bilingualism is distributed in the public sector.
Acknowledgement
The research has been done under the targeted project “Estonian Text in Russian Culture. Russian Text in Estonian Culture” (SF 0130126s08, grand holder Professor. Irina Belobrovtsева) and the Tallinn University Research Foundation project “Russian Child in an Estonian-Medium School” (TA 37309, grand holder Natalia Tshuikina). The authors are thankful to Tallinn University lecturer Inna Adamson for her help in gathering the data from Pärnu.

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Russian-Speaking Women Abroad: Prejudices and Achievements

Ekaterina Protassova (Helsinki)

Introduction
The purpose of the present article is to show in what terms the Russian-speaking immigrant women outside Russia formulate their language attitudes concerning intergenerational language transmission, communication preferences, values and norms; what are the typical connotations, associations and allusions connected to their discourse characteristics in bilingual situations; how they express their new identities in verbal form and how they evaluate their success. In my study, the Russian women living abroad are people of different age, background and immigration history. Some are new in the foreign country, some are born there. With various motives of migration, which can be marital, economic, political, professional reasons, or repatriation to the historical fatherland, women find each other and become close friends while connecting continents. Some people discover each other through social networks (for example, in www.vkontakte.ru or www.odnoklassniki.ru, the Russian-speaking Internet communities), some through mutual acquaintances, and some come across on the Internet forums (like www.eva.ru, www.7ya.ru which are accessible for all speakers of Russian, or country-based sites), and these virtual encounters lead often afterwards to real ones. I would like to trace some fundamental characteristics of the immigrant women's attitudes toward the new aims and practices of their lives, based on the formulations of their cultural self-consciousness and embedded in their reflections about the role of their former identity, under their new circumstances. The special reference to gender is not an elicited presumption: women are, in effect, steadier and more scrupulous about their positions, and their sociality is reflected in the material I have collected.

The hopes for a better life are only partly satisfied by the welcoming country's majorities, so the women stay in search of 'sisters'. While willing to find or to create a world of their own, the Russian-speaking women have found the
possibilities of the Internet: they develop friendships, give mutual support and
advice, and explain the differences between cultures for each other, exchange
impressions about their journeys, speak about their husbands, parents and
children across the planet. Originating from different parts of the former Soviet
Union and sharing the common language and the common past, they experi-
ence similar ways of emigration, adaptation, integration and of the present life
among the Western people who differ from them. These are the foundations
of their new trans-national identity replacing the former Soviet supra-national
identity: the world-sized great virtual community of the Russians abroad. To my
mind, women really dominate in the sphere of global virtual friendships; they
even go to visit each other after they have concluded ties.

I suppose that the Russian women abroad develop a particular sense of
belonging to an international Russian-speaking community of emigrants from
the former Soviet countries. Their bicultural identities are once more genera-
ised under the auspices of a free Russian language: free from actual politics, free
from grammar rules, but not free from the past and contacts with the ordinary
Russian people living in Russia. Women testify that not only their old classmates,
neighbours, and relatives are relevant to their thoughts back to their homeland,
but there are quite a lot of new relations as well. Moreover, having developed
a novel identity outside Russia, they aspire to acquire up-to-date matches
for their flourishing self. So, it is the Russian language that is distanced and
transformed, adapted to the new needs, yet to some extent still full of imported
prejudices about the Russian culture, searching for the means to fill in the gap
between Russian and Western culture. All over the world, women are increas-
ingly gaining access to political power, but not in Russia; nevertheless, among
the candidates representing Russian-speaking immigrants, women dominate,
at least in Finland. The only Russian-speaking member of the European Union’s
parliament is a woman (Tatyana Zhdanok from Latvia).

I would like to underline the role of women as explorers of the unknown
world lying at their feet, and as transmitters of the previous values (language,
among them). Recent evidence of this is displayed, among other facts, by
authentic female testimonies. The material collected raised five salient features
common for the Russian-speaking women, which are discussed below.

The Phenomenon of Being a Russian-Speaking Woman Abroad
The Soviet woman, as depicted for example in Bertaux, Thompson, Rotkirch
(2003), Posadskaja (2002), has now explored the world for 20 years. Before per-
estroika, women who left the USSR were stigmatized as traitors by the official authorities and perceived as heroes or, on the contrary, dodgers by many average citizens. At the same time, they were envied and felt sorry for having to leave their own country. The experience of a young girl born in 1965, emigrating from the Kabardino-Balkaria in the Soviet Union and becoming a woman in the USA, is depicted as a process of searching for an identity, struggling against a combination of old and new problems, learning language and culture, going back and returning to America, in an anonymous bestseller, published in the USA and sold in Russia (Avtor, 2007). In the case of the dissidents expelled from the Soviet Union, women, as the wives of the fighters for a democratic Russia, emigrated without any hope of return. In the decade 1985-1995, the gate opened, the iron curtain was destroyed, and women did not need any foreign husband to leave the country. Repatriation and labour migration started, while the general open-mindedness was for an adaptation of the Western values inside Russia.

In 2001, “the perception of emigration as a social phenomenon” was “freeing itself from the negative stereotypes of the Soviet past”, yet 54% of the respondents to this sociological screening in Russia had neither friends nor acquaintances nor relatives anywhere abroad, 24% had some in the countries of the NIS, only 9% had relationships to further abroad, and the remaining 11% kept in touch with people both in near and further abroad, mostly with educated persons with higher income levels. The majority thought that the expatriates were interested in events in Russia and could see them as “ours”. 45% of the respondents said that Russians living in further abroad differ from those living in Russia in wealth, salary, well-being; with a possibility to fulfil themselves under the new economic and social circumstances, but their main problem is the cultural assimilation, absence of spiritual values, which presents a change for the worse in the moral aspect. “Collectivism, neighbourly participation in the life of each and everyone, soulful warmth and openness have always been and are, in the eyes of many poll participants, an important and powerful part of life in Russian society, being a national specific and an object of special pride”. The quotations from the answers of the subjects to the investigators reflect their ideas that they cannot find friends there, that in the Western world, nobody can understand them, they feel homesickness and miss being a part in the individualistic societies, and their social and professional status lowers; maybe their children will feel better. All in all, many people in Russia sympathise for Russians abroad whom they consider as being the well-educated intellectual and business elite, which is a significant loss for the country. Yet, they profit from the fact that now they
are able to help their compatriots at home. The negative answers were explained morally and ideologically: *insufficiently patriotic, disinclined to self-sacrifice, escaped from difficulties in search of an easier life, negligent or hostile toward their former motherland.* The general opinion is that people should earn money abroad, but bring it back home, be engaged in good deeds; their comeback must not be caused *exclusively by material gain* or by the wish to *flatter their vanity.* More people thought that the state should help emigrants than vice versa, and nobody noticed any official policy towards the expatriates who could become a link between Russia and the wider world (Ivanova, 2001).

Subsequently, new generations have come, and grown up with the idea of raising Russian self-consciousness or national countries upon the rest of the former Soviet Union. Shmerlina (2007), in her report to the Common Opinion Foundation, states that Russians often go abroad for extended periods looking for money (46%), for life improvement, to escape crime, fear, corruption, in search of law, for work, to see the world, or for education, to realise one’s further potential. More people think that Russians do not want to stay abroad for ever, rather than the opposite. 36% of all respondents and the majority of the inhabitants of the Russian capital have connections to people abroad. The minority (14%) “disapprove of people who leave Russia for good”, and only 9% of those who have relatives or acquaintances there, but 27% do not like intellectuals leaving the country, but not in the capital, and the phenomenon of the brain drain is considered to be negative by 76% of all Russians. Some opinions are quoted: *we live in Russia and must breathe Russian air, the country brought them up and they’re working for somebody else, the country doesn’t take care for them.*

24% predict growth of emigration, 29% expect its diminishing, and 46% have no opinion. “14% would like to emigrate permanently (most often, 21% of those between 18 and 35, most rarely, 4% of senior citizens and 5% of the respondents with low education levels). Most respondents (81%) would not want to leave Russia for good. Among those who know people who have emigrated, 21% would like to emigrate, and 76% would not”. To my mind, it means that Russian women abroad are partly dependent on the common opinion both in Russia and in the host countries, and this opinion is not always favourable towards emigration. Those who left their previous home have to defend their decision in front of the old and new opponents and find friends who would share their attitude. The tendencies of migration are also discussed in Wall et al. (200), White (2007).”

“At home, they celebrate national traditions and prize collective glory, not individual freedom”, says Madeleine Albright in her article about Vladimir Putin.
Ekaterina Protassova

(Time, 12.5.2008, 34). When, in the beginning of the liberalisation, a husband from abroad was a wishful match, nowadays it remains as such only for women after 40 who think that they will not find any possibility to marry in their own country. In the common opinion, Russian husbands are richer and more generous than those from abroad. Post-Soviet women are bringing into the world a typical Russian behaviour: the prejudices and stereotypes of a better life, the wishes to approve and disapprove, the need to be accepted and loved, the necessity of being part of a bigger community of friendly people, aspiration to belong to a society. In an individualistic human formation, after breaking their hopes against the wall of hostility, they seek for expatriates to feel protected by an imagined collectivism of disaster.

The investigation into the identity of a Post-Soviet woman has demonstrated the reconceptualisation of womanhood with key-words: women as secondary citizens, as homemakers, as career businesswomen, as sexual objects and victims of violence, non-encouragement of lesbian and feminist identities (Pavlenko, 2002) and showed how an immigrant woman can struggle to create a new identity (Pavlenko, 2001). The transformation was crucial (Rømer Christensen et al., 2004). The negative stereotyping of Russian women can be often found in the scholarship, even conducted by the Russian immigrant women themselves. So, it has been proved that the Russian-speaking women in Israel are excessively exposed to sexual harassment due to their dependent and marginalised state, they disparate in sexual and family norms from the mainstream Israeli (Remennick, 1999b). Media wrongly portray Russian women in Israel as prostitutes; they are under-represented in media positions, political debates (Bernovsky, 2003). In the Nordic countries, they experienced a marginalized life until they accepted the community help and created circles for themselves (Irni et al., 2008; Saarinen et al., 2008). The realms of preventive practices aimed at female reproductive cancer typified that Russian immigrants, contrary to their experience in the home country, avoid screening activities; gynaecological check-ups, breast examination and mammography, maybe because they were low motivated, had low self-efficacy and external locus of control over health, or did not want to overcome communicative and other cultural barriers (Remennick, 1999a). Russian-speakers in the USA exhibited a high prevalence of obesity, high blood pressure, and sedentary lifestyle; women were among those more likely to be at risk; the previous research on Russian immigrants links “dietary behaviour, economic hardship, cultural and linguistic barriers, and less favourable health outcomes” (Hosler, Melnik, Spence, 2004). The marital state remains attractive,
though divorce is also widespread: the Russian-speaking women (independently of the fact that they are mostly Ukrainians or Jewish) are reported to have been married at least once at the high value of 96% by the time they turn 40, compared with 15% for all women in that age group in the United States, a fact that stands out, including rates among other ethnic groups. They marry at a younger age than most. At the same age of 40, they have higher rates of divorce in the United States than all other major groups of female immigrants, according to the 2000 census (Bellafante, 2004).

The next passage from an Internet discussion illustrates a discussion about the specific characteristics of the Russian women compared to Russian men abroad:

I was asked yesterday by foreigners whether there is a difference between the identity of the Russian men and women, living abroad. I told them that it seems to me that they don’t differ. And afterwards I thought that the general destiny of any Russian woman remains, i.e. to comfort, to sacrifice herself etc., but what is new? That you are forced to behave yourself in a way not to be identified as a stereotype: you are not a prostitute, not lazy, accurate... (D.). I think that the roles of women and men change under the influence of circumstances. Maybe not all adjust in the same way. But it seems to me that Russian men become more responsible abroad and are more involved into work at home. And the woman becomes freer from the everyday problems (B.). You know, all my Russian female friends had responsible men in Russia as well, they helped in the household and their marriages were partnerships. I doubt that there is dependence from the immigration. I would prefer to speak about education, character, and surroundings. And I wouldn't call household problems to be specific for Russia (V.).

The most common problems of Russian women in immigration are (un)employment, acquisition of a second language (plus English as lingua franca), family life, colleagues and friends, connections to the relatives in Russia, maintenance of bilingualism in children, understanding of the new environment, nostalgia, and comparison of their everyday practices with those they had before. The psychological problems of the search for activity and self-esteem are common (Rotenberg et al., 1996). Russian-speaking women are usually more educated, oriented towards cultural events, appreciate art. Now they emigrate in the period where the notions of family and sexuality are changing (Korhonen, 2007). But maybe the most important question is to realise in which aspects they differ from the ‘indigenous’ and other local people and how to cope with the fear to lose their identity or to become strange to them.
About one hundred of immigrant women were interviewed formally and informally in different European and American countries, as well as in Australia and New Zealand, mainly about their attitudes towards the changed language use, and from another two hundred written documents (letters, articles, essays, Internet conferences, Life Journals) have been taken into account (about 2,000 pages altogether). The methods of biographical study, ethnography and discourse analysis have been used.

Integration: Women as Members of the New Communities
While integrating into the new societies, Russian-speaking women have to adjust their previous views to the new systems, and this process goes on for many years, especially in the field of sharing family duties, speaking up about the own sexuality, presenting their own conception of gender roles. For example, women have to learn new meanings of how to get dressed for work and for leisure time, what to expect from a doctor or a teacher. Without being prepared to follow the laws of the new country, unconscious of the future financial and communication restrictions, only believing that transition of the border would “resolve all the problems”, Russian-speaking women who marry abroad often experience domestic violence and abuse, but are not mature to seek help, partly because of their superstitions about masculine and feminine power (Saarinen, Carey-Bélanger, 2004). Many researchers and witnesses recommend learning language and culture before going to marry a foreigner or emigrating and to get informed about the peculiarities of child upbringing, education, gender roles, housing and human rights in the country where one intends to settle down (Crandall et al., 2005).

Once being abroad, one has to study the language and to integrate linguistically; the language of the country opens the ways to understand the torrent of life flowing around. In my experience, within the immigration countries like Canada or New Zealand, Russian women have no problem of using the language acquired at a level that is typical of the foreigners. They mostly find work and create sometimes their own jobs, often part-time. In more monolithic societies, as in Finland, many women experience difficulties of speaking without accent. If they are members of repatriate families (as in Germany, Greece, or Spain), they try to integrate as quickly as possible feeling sorry for not being the same as native speakers in this country, having lost a part of their hereditary identity in their previous life. If their husbands have been invited to work, the men do not usually learn the language of surroundings if their working language
is international English, but the women do because they have to accompany children through the educational process and to communicate in the educational institutions; if women have been invited to work, they learn the language usually more slowly.

When immigrating, Russian women are often not conscious about their rights and their problems (Maxnovskaja, 2003; Tjurjukanova, 1996); in the intermarriages, miscommunication between female spouses and husbands is due to their different education and life values (Visson, 2001). The 'other' reality confronts them with the intentions to become the 'own' and to integrate completely (cf. Säävälä (2007) about the less family-centred labour market strategy of Russian immigrant women compared to the Kosovo Albanian immigrant women in Finland which may be doubtful for their long-term well-being). Many scholars underline the stress connected to the fact that the necessity to be equal among the others, to acquire financial capital and a high speed of accommodation to the new circumstances push the Russian-speaking women to abandon their former family preferences and to loose the former ideals.

Here is a part of the discussion about how to acquire French from the site www.infrance.ru:

* M: * This is a difficult language! How long did I study it! Five years at school, three years at the philological faculty (softly speaking, it was not the same: half of the words are pronounced here differently, this has surprised me), and now here, and I have to work all the time. I have learned English from the zero-level, approximately in one-year-time, on my one, having taken lessons with a pedagogue for three months.

* K: * If you have a real Frenchman on your side, use it! Watch the TV, even if you don’t understand anything at the beginning. Let your friend fill in some words in French. Put everywhere pieces of paper with French names, look in the catalogues and all sorts of commercials, where all of the objects are signed. Me too, first I started to speak to my friend in German [like you speak in English] that was our common language. I went to the university afterwards, but the most important thing was to communicate with French people. My husband studies in this way Russian, I am replacing gradually French words for Russian ones, sometimes my sentences have nothing in common with French or Russian, but I explain that this word means this thing…

* D: * You have to train yourself to the everyday language lessons. It will never stick to you by itself even if you are immersed into the language sur-
roundings. There are two approaches to language acquisition: you may learn the most widespread phrases without thinking about grammar (habitually it’s the shortest way, but your achievements are more modest, in what concerns lexical baggage and the ability not only to speak, but also to read). Or the other way, the analytical one, studying of the French grammar and fulfillment of exercises (the more, and the more frequent, the better). Try to combine both methods, and you’ll find out which one is more adequate in your case. The systematic training is one of the main conditions. And of course, you have to watch movies, listen to the music, practice French speaking with your friend and with environment. Keep a notepad and write down phrases you’ve heard, and so on. To follow the courses would be a nice thing as well.

F: I also had the question where to begin to study the French language, there were so many things to learn and I didn’t know what to take first. Then I bought a self-instructor manual, a dictionary with transcription, five different writing-books, three markers of different colors, a black and a blue pens, a pencil, a good desk light, a nice pivoting chair, soft and comfortable, and it started... and it commenced... and it flew... Every evening, I sit down and write down new words and phrases into one exercise book (verbs of the first group are marked in pink, those of the second group – in yellow, and so on). The second writing-book is for easy grammar exercises, the main rules, prepositions, verb conjugation etc. are put into the third one. The last two writing-books with difficult exercises are given alternatively to a French woman once a week for a small sum of money for a revision. When I am planning a trip, I take with me a dictionary or small cards with new words and I repeat them while traveling somewhere. Before I go to sleep, I read the new material and been reassured afterwards... As result, I remind to myself during the whole day that I have to learn something new. Try it yourself, and you’ll see that it will be a pity to give up, because you’ll have already invested big efforts. What really means a lot to me, having everything arranged for my needs and comfortable, and the material equipment helps me. Maybe I just like this systematic approach and order in everything. It brings me self-assurance in the French language.

So, learning a second language is a big part of the self-identification, and many testimonies are devoted to different prompts how to succeed in the acqui-
sition of the environmental linguistic and cultural codes. Women tell each other the jokes and reactions of their colleagues; they discuss translations and hint best places to study, to live, or to visit.

Transmission: Women as Advocates for Bilingual Education
The Russian language must be maintained and taught to the children, because they have to be able to speak to their relatives in Russia, cherish the cultural standards of the Russian-speaking society, and share the love of their parents for some movies and animation films. Some mothers try to find friends in Russia for their children, so that it could be also a country of their own friends. Russians and Russian Jews are more active in this process than the representatives of the other ethnic repatriates who are expected to assimilate in their respective new countries.

The interest for English dominates. If the language of the country is not so widespread as English, e.g., it is Hungarian, Italian etc., immigrant parents often try to bring their children into an English school. In case of intercultural marriages, euphoria of the first years when mothers stay at home with their children and they become bilingual, is replaced by fears of losing Russian when the child goes to preschool or school and switches to the dominant language of the environment. Mothers discuss situations on the playground, in public transport, within family of their husbands and other communicative partners. Children from the first marriages are less able to forget Russian completely, especially when they immigrate by the age of 8-12 when the first socialisation through the written language has been completed. In the Russian-speaking immigrant families, fathers often switch to the language of the environment when speaking to children, while mothers continue to address them in Russian and invent different means to reinforce the use of their mother tongue (circles, video- and audio-cassettes, books, exercises). They even try to find, in their past, things which connect Russian culture to the actual politics of the country where they live. So, during the war in Iraq Russian mother have reanimated books about pioneer heroes of World War II, written in the after-war period in the Soviet Union. Many children do not allow for their mothers speaking to them in any other language but Russian, because it is their own intimate communicative tool, or the mother cannot use the second language in a proper way, or the image of the mother is created in Russian and must remain so. Many parents try to make children love Russia, Russians and the Russian language, and some of the children are staying so long in the Russia-connected culture
that they may speak of paying with rubles and kopecks even if, in reality, paying
with dollars and cents.

Immigrants with another ethnic origin, or Russian emigrants from the first,
after-1917-revolution wave, set an example of the first language use in the
second language surroundings. Russian immigrant women are concerned about
the usefulness of Russian in future; about the amount and quality of language
spoken in the family, and the need to use it everywhere in public places (Won’t
we be ignored? Marginalized? Ghettoised? How are we going to integrate?
Should I be silent?). Northern (Scandinavian) culture does not support loud
speech, contacting people in the street, but Southern cultures are more open,
tolerant, ready to communicate. In the Southern countries, people make obser-
vations telling mothers and their children how they should behave themselves,
just as is the common practice in Russia. The type of personality, in children as
in adults, influences their language acquisition style (e.g., shy persons wait for
grammar to come before they dare to say something). The mothers overstate
the capacity of children to learn the language ‘from the air’ that they don’t pos-
sess themselves anymore. The dominant language will win, so the main effort
must be oriented towards Russian. Those who associate Russian only with bad
things may insist that their children shift to the second language, while keeping
Russian for themselves as a means of communication with their own referent
group or with their husband. TV is an important source of the second language,
especially when the child doesn’t have many friends among the indigenous chil-
dren. Bilingual children develop very differently, and this is a matter of concern
for the Russian-speaking mothers.

In case of intercultural marriages, it seems that most of them have not been
pre-planned. Women are adopting their previous views and practices to the
families of their husbands. Surprisingly enough, there is almost no difference
between attitudes and interests of the Russian women married to a foreigner
compared to those married to a speaker of Russian. Their family life may run in
a different way, but outside the family, they behave just as the others immigrants
with Russian language.

Traditions: Women as Bridges to the Former Communities
Wonderful stories are told about families, ancestors, childhood, birth towns,
adventures in the countries of origin, nostalgic remnants of a former society,
which is for many the Soviet Union more than Russia. It has changed with the
new generations who were educated at schools socialising in national culture
rather in the Soviet one. Still, former friends are invited to spend holidays
together. Visits of parents, above all mothers, are seen as the luckiest events,
bringing everything into order. The local people sometimes cannot understand
how a provincial Russian mother with a head kerchief, but without any foreign
language knowledge, can really comfort so much her daughter, dressed up after
the latest mode, speaking several languages fluently and working in a presti-
gious firm.

Going back to Russia or other countries of the former Soviet Union needs
advice, help or support. The bureaucratic rules are in the process of permanent
changing. Having another citizenship, two citiizenships, a double citizenship,
taking a child or non-citizen husband with her, inviting relatives, exchanging
money, buying tickets, consulting Russian physicians (who are believed to be
much better than those abroad – or nothing at all) and visiting dentists, hair-
dressers, – everything must be discussed. Some people go six times a year to
their countries of birth, some even more often, mostly on business trips.

Russian-speaking women are often hired as specialists in the Russian
language and culture, or are organising their own business with Russia, Baltic
States, Eastern Europe or Central Asia. The changes in the modern Russian
language and society are followed up. As one of informants told, “Having emi-
grated with my parents when I was 10, I have already abandoned my Russian at
school, because I didn’t see any use in it. Afterwards, I had to revitalise it and
take some courses at the university, because through Russian, I can hear three
times as much as I could without it”.

Russian-speaking infrastructures are built in the new home countries: shops,
newspapers, clubs, and learning and leisure activity centres. Therefore, new jobs
are created for those who speak Russian, and cultural exchange with Russia is
strengthened.

Networking: Women as Constructors of a
New Trans-National Community

Russian-speaking women are actively searching for counterparts in other coun-
tries and trying to establish trans-national ties. Maybe they are not satisfied
with the small quantity of speakers in their new countries of dwelling (they
are unable to choose the right friend corresponding to their hopes and needs).
Maybe they don’t want to explain to the incoming immigrants the things they
have already explained many times for their predecessors (one can tell it two or
three times, but not all the time, and the quantity of years lived abroad reduces
the sense of novelty). Or they are tired of the old friends from Russia (or the Soviet Union) who are always taking them only back into their past, or telling them that they have forgotten the right Russian language, or are not up-to-date for the progress in the modern Russia. Or they are catching up the years they have not been abroad (Western people could travel in their childhood and youth and make friends, and the speakers of Russian could not).

This trans-national community of Russian-speaking women outside Russia is organising summer camps for their children, exchanges between school students and teachers, and meetings of people from different countries whose mother tongue is Russian. They also ask each other about prices for certain goods, possibilities of spending holidays, school systems, leisure occupations etc. Eventually, they buy a more cheap or missing product for each other and send it overseas, or arrange a visit.

The Internet users coming from the USA, Australia, Germany, Switzerland, Netherlands, Sweden, and etc. have even once played an Internet role play of the communal apartment, which lasted about two weeks with some breaks. The nostalgic feelings (‘it was a hard time, but we were together and had such a fun’) demonstrate that that sort of conferences fills in the gap of the cultural differences between the local and Russian-speaking people and helps to elaborate a new identity with strong components of Russianness.

Recently, such initiatives were supported by the Russian State: it organised The Congresses of compatriots – graduates of Russian universities, working in Russia and abroad (Berlin 2010; Kazan 2011). This aims “to expand and strengthen the cooperation between the Russian scientific diaspora, working abroad, with Russia’s scientific and educational community to develop and restructure the national science and higher education systems, their integration into the global scientific and educational sectors, the joint statement of research problems and develop approaches to reform scientific sphere in Russia” (SRI FRCEC, 2011).

New media technologies become accepted not only through their use, but also through the rhetorical use of discourse on and about them. As to forums, they become group therapy, public discussions, a social and cultural club of interests; this is a form of well known for sociologists ‘institute of mutual women’s help’, typical of the Soviet / Russian way of life. The fact that women appear in this ‘close’ space and discuss the borders and limits of the other’s participation in it, demonstrates that the more people think about it, the more they are involved into the reflection about the norms and regulations of this commonly
shared apartment. This community of the private Internet users discusses the social and moral costs of emigration, the interrelations with the environment, providing a network of mutual help. The use of Internet has deeply changed the working and family lives of the immigrant women, their leisure time and their upbringing of children. This network can be investigated within the domain of sociology, semiotics, and mass communication.

**New Identities: Women as Bilingual Bicultural Persons**

The written documents of the Russian-speaking immigrant women are full of mistakes and print errors. Excuses are often made: the quality of Russian is deteriorating. Cyrillic and Latin alphabets are being confused; places of certain letters on the keyboard are taken for the letter itself (so, Russian ZY replaces Latin PS); the same graphemes are taken for the same sounds, though they symbolise different things in either language. The Russian words are written with Latin transcription which sometimes is conserved even after the alphabet has changed (so, those who live in Germany, write occasionally the four letters TSCH for the single Russian Č). Writers and speakers do not remember what the norm should be, and those moments of uncertainty can last minutes or weeks. So, after the testimony of a Russian-speaking woman M., “I have looked for a long time at the word ‘dushy’ [instead of ‘dushi’, souls; the type mistake is a break of a rule learned in the first grade at school]. I felt that something is wrong. Maybe, I have rearranged the letters? I have tried to say ‘dyshy’, but again, there was something wrong about it. I have sent my letter, but my hesitation didn’t disappear. And I had to write ‘dushi’. Oh, my orthography is so bad”.

Russian verbs are often used without prefixes and aspect differences, words with general meaning, internationalisms and descriptions are replacing specific Russian lexemes. There are also other markers of the first language attrition. One Russian woman (S.) told me, “I am afraid: what will happen to us if after some years our Russian changes in the same way? [Like by the older Russian immigrants] That’s why we want to work in all directions, to study Finnish very well, but not to forget Russian either”. After the woman writer Dina Rubina, emigrated to Israel, the process of putting on the other’s language, the changing clothes of the consciousness, it is like a tragic carnival process, the essence of the émigré transformations. With the years abroad, the one language becomes dilapidated, partly lost, there are lapses in meaning’s nuances and implications (“House behind the green wicket”, 2008).
Compared to other immigrants, those who are Russian-speaking are in overall more educated, but they miss the common knowledge typical of the Western society in many domains of modern life, and have to acquire it together with the accompanying vocabulary. Accommodation to another way of life is a permanent source of language insertions, calques and borrowings, but it also influences the way of thinking. The newly acquired matters must be transferred to the newcomers, and this is how the ‘old immigrants’ teach the ‘new immigrants’ the language and customs of the country and create a jargon which comprises units from both languages, their combinations, as well as linguistic and cultural hybrids. While Russian-speaking people are not always able to develop a high-level proficiency in a second more frequently and crucially needed language, contacts with this language and culture sometimes have detrimental effects, which impede their understanding of the new societies. The types of their identity construction vary as a function of composition of the group, degree of self-control and liberty, targets of communication and special attitudes towards cultural initiative and creativeness. I suppose that contact-related change is generally due not to lack of equivalent functions in the dominant language and culture, nor is it due to the prestige of introducing new elements into the discourse, but rather to cognitive pressure, need to reduce efforts, and – more hypothetically – to the structures of the languages and cultures in contact and the type of confrontation between them.

27.3.03 (www.7ya.ru), topic: English words in Russian language (conducted in Russian; my comments are put into the square brackets).

K: I have been living in Israel for 10 years; at home, we speak Russian, but Hebrew words intrude in our Russian language, it doesn’t sound very gorgeous. First, we have even tried to fight against it, but had to abandon this intention, because it is too stressful. Some words are easier pronounced in the Hebrew language, some concepts were here absolutely new for us (e.g., everything connected with bank operations) and we have learned them immediately in Hebrew. I have studied my profession here, that’s why the whole terminology is in Hebrew or in English...

I: Every occasion we speak about the time needed to go somewhere, I say “Eto berjot menja 5 minut byt’ tam-to (It takes me five minutes to be there)” [a word-for-word translation, instead of Russian “Doroga zajmjot u menja 5 minut (The road will borrow 5 minutes from me)”]... And I also say that “Ja est’ doma (I am at home, with a copula-word which should be omitted in Russian)”. This is what my friends tell me the most...
E: I am combating against it, but my Russian is dirty...

N: I try to filter my speech with purpose; or, I shift to English. For instance, when we plan an important conversation, it is easier for me to articulate details in the language I’ll be conducting this conversation afterwards. Before I have understood it, I was suffering all the time. Now, if we are speaking with my friends about a new flat, so I am discussing rooms, but when we are going to meet our realtor, so we are speaking in English.

L: I try to purify my Russian from the foreign words; even if it takes me time to formulate ‘how is it in Russian?’ In the same manner, I don’t allow English words to introduce themselves into French language, and vice versa. I hate languages to be stirred.

A: No, “ja zhivu v odnobedrennoj kvartire” (‘I live in a one-thigh [pun, from bedro, in Russian, for one-bedroom] apartment’ is better) German words are interfering into my Russian as well, but I am struggling against them absolutely consciously, even if I just chat with my friends. I don’t like language-mixing and attaching, for example, Russian endings to the German words. And the most terrible thing I have seen recently, it was in a newspaper published in Russian-language in a rather big quantity of copies, German words were printed with Russian characters, and, in addition, these words were declined. So, the impression was simply wild.

K: What is also interesting… I have remarked that children don’t confound languages, it is easier for them to speak in Hebrew, but if they speak Russian, they don’t insert Hebrew words. My acquaintances tell me that their children do the same.

A: Because children speak (usually) the new language much better than their parents. That’s why they don’t mix languages. I have remarked that languages are mixed much more by the newcomers.

B: I have discovered the dependence of the ignorance of the new country language and the wish to asset the knowledge of sample words.

D: I am absolutely not interested in parading my linguistic proficiency for my husband, maybe he is not interested in it either, because we have to speak German at our working places, and he speaks this language almost fluently. Nevertheless, at home, at an ordinary supper, German words are pronounced, sometimes genuinely as a joke, sometimes entirely naturally, by-passing. What we really try to avoid, is for instance not to conjugate the German verbs in a Russian manner, or to construct a phrase with a word order which astonishes us afterwards. Yet, if I learn to know some
new words in German, I am not running to apprehend their precise translation, though it is maybe not completely right. Still, I know only in German, for example, the names for the five sorts of salad sold in the neighboring shop, and so I do use them, making no big question of their translation into Russian.

B: A conscious effort, lasting three or four months, restores your Russian for sure completely, in particular with a Russian husband… There exist of course lexemes characteristic only for this culture, and there is no sense for translating them, then, these words are used in the language of this country.

D: Indeed, I wanted to say that the connection between the bad knowledge of a foreign language and its influence on the Russian language is not so evident.

B: Consciousness is one of the factors:-) People who speak the language of the country well enough are less spontaneously wishing to speak a language that is not their mother tongue. I am observing it personally. There is no science about it:-) By the way, the work-related lexicon is also difficult to translate.

A: I agree with you. Parenthetically, I did tell exclusively my own observations. I don’t pretend to be objective:)

P: My child is three-year-old, and he mixes languages sometimes very hard, sometimes he uses Russian words with articles:) [There are no articles in Russian]

A: Your child is still too small:) I was speaking more about children at a more conscious age...

D: I also try to battle, but I am too weak against such a temptation:). Essentially, it is always the similar procedure: my Russian language is invaded by the same words as the language of many Russians living in Germany, *Termin, Mensa* [‘appointment’, ‘student’s cafeteria’; these words have no one-word equivalents in Russian] … *Scheisse* [‘shit’; an emotionally coloured word] is also organically woven into my Russian speech, though I had never used its Russian equivalent in my life… And yesterday, I’ve even said to my husband, “Xorosho eto net” [‘good is it not’, for German ‘Gut ist es nicht’], meaning that it looks bad. What I cannot principally understand, I don’t live through German language, I am still rather distanced from it, but it influences me and causes troubles with the Russian language :-(
A: The languages start to be confounded just at the point when you know the second language much worse than the mother tongue. Because you try unconsciously to remember new words and to introduce them it doesn’t matter where:) I am also fighting against my friend when she starts to talk to me in German. I can understand it, because she lives in a completely German milieu (me as well), we speak German fluently (we have studied it before immigration), but nevertheless... it is somehow not organic for me.

Such exchange of opinions offers an examination of the persuasive approaches; it is used in discussions on and about the use of Internet for maintenance of the linguistic and cultural identity, it increases awareness of what is assumed, unquestioned, and naturalised in the media experience.

Conclusions
This study aimed to investigate how much, and when, the target language is used by different groups of female subjects, and how that use is affected by their activities, what is the influence of the background during the first language and culture loss, how it can be enhanced or accelerated by a friendly or a hostile environment, which results are coming from the politics and the common opinion of the first and second countries of the migrants and of different extra-linguistic conditions for using the language. The meta-linguistic abilities of the native speakers play a role which is far from negligible: the inter-lingual identification, the judgments of individuals about the linguistic specificity of their speech, their wish to conserve their level of language proficiency and communicative competence, and their efforts to organise a positive milieu for first language use make it possible to remain a good native user of the first language. Nevertheless, the level of the first language is largely determined by the age at which one changes one’s linguistic environment, the duration of one’s sojourn in a foreign language society, opportunities to use the mother tongue, quantity and quality of the literature and mass media production, living standards, religion, traditions in both cultures, educational and migrant policy of the host community, and the socio-economic background of the migrant family.

The analysis is based on the lived experiences and life records, cultural and linguistic self-representations of informants in questionnaires, letters, structured and spontaneous interviews, and internet-forum discussions to different topics, studied by means of text and discourse analysis, life history, and ethnography.
The importance of using Internet sources (cf. Bolter, 2001; Gattiker, 2001) can be justified in my case by the distances that separate people (e.g., one author writes a letter at night on one continent, and it is received by her friend early in the morning on the other continent) and necessity to feel commonness by meeting each other at any time you need company: your friends with their problems are always waiting for you on the web. It is not common for all, just for the middle class of the Russian-speaking immigrant community. Those who meet on an Internet forum have made similar efforts to find it there, and this unifies them again. Afterwards, they may meet live and develop new relationships ‘in the flesh’.

Being, knowing and believing (Fishman, 1989) is the core of identity. So, there are two different identities: out-group and in-group. The correlations between the second language proficiency and self-conception of the immigrants, according to their testimonies, are not evident. The self-esteem and self-realisation can be implemented in the Russian language. Though the involvement in society plays an important role, it is not necessarily crucial for the general success of a personality. The pragmatic consequences of the language choice influence the position of the individuals in the society, but the absence of the friendly and positive background formed by the people whose mother tongue is the same as yours can be detrimental. Russian-speaking women would like to speak the second language fluently, and the preferences are high for the language of surroundings. The opinions are divided in what concerns which language to use in the family communication and what must be the quality of Russian. For many immigrant women, their professional absorption happens successfully, and they can choose what kind of job they would like to take. However, a balanced self-conception seems to be possible only when the ties to other people who are speaking Russian exist. The new media, in this case the democratic and accessible for educated people through Internet, serves as a meeting point, a forum for discussing new global Russian-speaking identities and revitalizing traditions under the danger of loss.

All the previous waves of the Russian emigration in the 20th century have almost completely integrated into the population of the countries where they lived. The last (fourth) wave may create a new trans-national community of its own thanks to the political and societal movements underlying the need to conserve the identity of the immigrants. More likely, the third generation of the Russian immigrants, with some exceptions, will not speak the Russian language as the mother tongue. This perspective makes important the attempt to understand the contemporary situation of Russian-speaking women.
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The article deals with the aspect of developing socio-cultural competence of students of non-language departments with the help of audio-visual aids. Socio-cultural competence is formed through the effective process of incorporating audio-visual aids into the teaching/learning process.

The use of audio-visual aids enhances the level of motivational considerations in learning foreign languages. In our research we consider audio-visual aids as being socio-cultural, since they develop socio-cultural competence in those mastering a foreign language. In regard to this, we also consider the socio-cultural motivating principle to be a basic principle of the language teaching process. The latter is accomplished through the means of multimedia, which in its turn is directed at increasing motivation and optimizing motivational considerations.

The use of audio-visual aids helps learners to observe the natural way for different types of social interactions. The strategies we suggest enable learners to develop excellent analytical skills as well as a deeper understanding of the language in use. Being motivated, students develop the ability to detect their weak points in mastering the language.

Language and culture are closely tied to one another and have a profound influence on communication. Music, in its turn, can forge a higher motivation for learning languages and present cultural peculiarities to enable students to better comprehend other people and other existing realities. For example, such phenomena as the length of a pause or a change in tone can vary by culture. Registers of speech and body language will also depend on the culture one comes from. The variety of daily and intellectual contexts differs greatly from one culture to another, often making it difficult for people of other cultures and
nationalities to effectively communicate with native speakers. Such contexts are widely presented in films, making it easier for the viewers to comprehend and communicate with the people of another language and culture. Using audio-visual aids will develop students’ understanding of general cultural contexts and their implications. Besides, it will enable students to fully comprehend oral speech or a written text from another culture. It will also help students develop their language fluency and maintain their communication skills. Many researchers claim that video materials promote the motivation of learning foreign languages. In addition, videos provide common ground to students of any nationality.

Our techniques are based on the application of a foreign language musical film (musicals). We emphasise the role of emotions in the process of mastering a foreign language; emotions influence the individual perception, play a remarkable role in the way how students accept and acquire new information. We are sure that music awakens the students’ emotions and motivates them. We suggest that musicals are a perfect solution for multicultural misunderstanding as well as for the lack of socio-cultural awareness. A musical is a combination of various aspects of social interactions, including authentic speech, music, dancing and every-day life situations. These aspects reveal how different extra-linguistic constituents, such as body language, turn-taking, mimics, intonation etc. are used by native speakers, giving foreign language learners a good background for cultural awareness. Students who are well aware of communication standards in another country are able to apply these norms to their behavior.

The recommended sequence of implementing theoretical aspects regarding the efficiency of incorporating audio-visual aids to promote motivational background is as follows:

- application of a foreign language musical video series;
- modelling of positive emotions;
- developing motivation for taking actions;
- formation of communicative competence;
- stimulating creative activities.

It should be noted that teaching socio-cultural competence in a classroom has nothing to do with making students reject their own cultures and adopt another cultural identity. What teachers can do is to present some new information for their students to consider, giving them an opportunity to see how people of other cultures act, behave, and communicate. They can accept and
learn presented material for the sake of better communication and appropriate
behaviour in other environments. Teaching socio-cultural competence with the
help of audio-visual aids is a way to encourage students to develop an outlook
on communication in the English language.

In our research we managed to create a set of activities that facilitate the
process of studying a foreign language and its culture. The set of suggested
exercise activities consists of three stages:

Stimulating (warming-up) exercises – aim at optimising conditions for
motivational considerations.

Watching exercises – aim at understanding video materials.

Speech-forming exercises – aim at forming motivation in process.

Pre-watching activities, such as answering questions, searching for some
additional information, and studying new vocabulary can enhance students’
interest and motivate them considerably.

Watching activities aim at understanding video materials.

Post-watching activities, such as role play, drama, or pair work seem perfectly
suitable as they allow students to experiment with the language and receive
constructive feedback in a controllable environment.

We may put forward the following conclusions:

1. During our research we found that creating a certain atmosphere to
   maintain students’ interest and motivate them is extremely important
   for teaching a foreign language.

2. Effective formation of a motivational basis is connected with application
   of multimedia methodology (in our case with musical films).

3. Teaching a language through the means of multimedia, in combination
   with traditional materials, demonstrate positive results. The analysis of
   questionnaires showed that students are open to new forms of work,
   which are directed at communicative skills perfection, broadening cul-
   tural outlook (culture and traditions of the English-speaking countries),
   norms of behavior, etiquette, social attributes, and so on. Students find it
   exciting to be exposed to audiovisual materials while learning a foreign
   language.

It should be noted that our students do not have an opportunity to be
immersed into the atmosphere of the language they study. Not being able to
establish contacts with English speakers, students develop an enormous lan-
guage barrier that hinders them from developing language fluency. Everybody
knows that the more we speak, listen, read and write in the language we want to know, the better and faster we will learn it. This means that speaking, listening, reading, writing and studying new words and phrases (vocabulary) should be a part of everyday routine. Audio-visual aids make it possible for this to happen, either in class or at home. Another important aspect is that audio-visual aids, in our case musicals, help to create an enjoyable atmosphere connected with the language and culture students are learning. If they keep watching regularly, they will get used to new words and phrases. If the students are exposed to the spoken language on the regular basis, new words and phrases will automatically be memorised and stored in their memory. First, they will be able to recognise new vocabulary in speech, and later on apply it accordingly to their own language situations.

In actuality, watching films makes learning more effective and enables students to build up their vocabulary and start to notice how the language functions and how the words come together. The more practice in watching foreign films the students get, the faster they develop understanding of a foreign language. They discover new words and word combinations, new patterns and constructions. They become more fluent and accurate, and make fewer mistakes. They also seem to behave more naturally in the other language environment demonstrating the proper norms of multicultural behaviour.
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Culture, Identity and Foreign Language Teaching: Voices From the Pre-School Language Environment

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Teaching foreign languages to pre-school children has become a common practice in many countries and the Russian Federation is no exception. Russian educators consider pre-school foreign language teaching both as a language and a target culture learning experience. Consequently, foreign language pedagogy is striving to develop appropriate techniques, activities and methodologies to teach children about a target culture (stories, rhymes, songs, games, toys etc.) At the same time, within current preschool FL practices in Russia, the child home culture is often ignored, and thus the needs of a child’s growing linguistic, cultural and social identity development are neglected.

However, educators warn that neglect of home culture and exclusive presentation of target culture, in early foreign language teaching, may downplay the importance and value of the home culture in young children and, on the other hand, lead to distorted concepts about the target language culture, especially in young children (Vickov, 2007). A warning against the risk of developing a different cultural identity, when learning a foreign language has also been voiced too. Yet it is suggested that this can be prevented by appropriate teaching methods (Byram, 2008). Though the connection between identity development in pre-school children and foreign language learning/teaching is not quite clear, this issue is seen as being potentially important both by Russian and European language educators (Byram, 2008; Norton, 2007; Сафонова, 1996; Гальскова, Гез, 2004).

To overcome potential dangers in subjecting preschool children to a target (foreign) language culture the need for a balanced introduction of both child home and target language culture, especially into pre-school foreign language teaching, should be recognized. This idea is not new in language pedagogy,
and has been discussed in a number of publications on various occasions by different authors (Vickov, 2007; Tsui, 2005; Ажмякова, 2003). Yet appropriate methodologies, especially at pre-school level, are still a very undeveloped area.

The aim of this paper is to explore how specific teaching techniques, namely language zoning and use of puppets, bring together two languages and two cultures in a pre-school EFL situation – child home culture and target language culture (broadly speaking the Anglo-Saxon culture) and how they aid linguistic, cultural and identity awareness in pre-school children within an EFL setting.

The issues of language and culture are particularly important in preschool foreign language teaching for a number of reasons. At pre-school age foreign language teaching is seen as a vehicle that opens, for small children, the existence of other cultures and worlds and triggers the natural curiosity and interest of young children to the world around them, plus stimulating children’s openness and tolerance to other cultures and people.

Also young children are active learners, and the way they conceptualise the world is constantly developing and their cultural identity is in the process of growth. In Russian preschool education the task of cultural identity development holds a high priority and is regarded as being crucial for further child socialisation and acquisition of cultural and ethnic values of the home country. It is at pre-school age that the awareness of the “self” and the “other” is being formed, and consequently the boundary emerges that lays the foundation for linguistic and cultural self-awareness, together with social and cultural identification in later years (Ворожцова, 2007).

In foreign language teaching, the language environment becomes a place where identities are constantly negotiated through interactions with the “otherness” that permeates FL teaching materials used. Cultural concepts, beliefs, values and attitudes manifest themselves in traditional target culture stories, rhymes and games that are commonly found in early language teaching. Interesting comparisons can be found in J. Laccos (Laccos, 1999) who describes the way sociocultural values are manifested in the rules of some traditional American and Russian children’s games.

Due to specific characteristics of preschool children the use of appropriate methodologies is becoming extremely important. It is possible that inappropriate methodologies may lead to misunderstandings, wrong interpretations and cultural concepts not only about the target culture but also about the home culture in small children. Some empirical research on the issue puts forward the ground for this thinking: children often transfer the previously learned concepts
of their home culture into a foreign language and as a result developed concepts get new names (Vickov, 2007) or children label unknown concepts as wrong and inappropriate within the domains of their home culture (Ажмякова, 2003). This can be illustrated by the following example from the Russian context. When the 5 year old Russian girl Sonya was asked what was wrong about the picture (the picture represented a Christmas celebration at home) she said, “To put presents into stockings is not right”. In this situation it is far more important for the child to learn that things elsewhere can be neither right nor wrong but different. In another situation children made some interesting remarks about Santa Claus. When preschool children (5 – 6 yrs) were asked who was Santa Claus some of them genuinely believed that Santa was just the same as Ded Moroz (Father Frost), – in Russia a popular traditional New Year character who brings presents to children – or that he was the relative of Ded Moroz. Yet, it is well known that Russian Father Frost has no connection with Santa Claus at all. 

We may theorise that, unless the right methodologies are used, there is a danger of “losing” a small child between cultures or “pushing” the child towards false stereotypes, attitudes, distorted concepts and values of the target language culture. This issue is becoming indeed very topical with the mass scale use of imported English language teaching materials produced in the UK or elsewhere.

The strive for a gentle and age-specific introduction of a target language and culture, in order to support children’s linguistic, cultural and identity growth, has led the author and the colleagues to the development of a “language zoning” methodology, which forms an essential part of the experimental EFL programme “Stupenki Plus” (“Steps Plus”) developed for teaching pre-school children (aged 4, 5 – 7) within a kindergarten setting in St Petersburg, Russia.

Central to the programme”Stupenki Plus” is the concept of the language learning environment (LLE). In Russian language pedagogy the learning environment is regarded as an organised and structured didactic environment which main function is to provide contact, experience and learning of the target language and culture (Malkina, 2009). LLE is made up of tasks, activities and the surrounding physical environment (books, toys, puppets etc.).

Within the programme “Stupenki Plus” the physical environment is divided into “language zones” (LZ), i.e. “the Russian language zone” and “the English language zone”. “Zoning” is based on the “one language – one place” principle that is important for developing bilingual ability in children. “Language zones” perform various functions, among them, especially important, is representa-
tion of the child’s home culture and target language culture (mainly British and American).

Organising zones is important not only for developmental reasons (identity, cultural, linguistic) but also for psychological ones: often small children feel the need for the place where they can speak their mother language and, consequently, can express their feelings and thoughts freely when needed. The introduction of “language zones” adds to the concept of the language learning environment (LLE) which is seen as a cultural learning environment where opportunities for cultural experiences are provided and cultural discoveries are made. LLE becomes a space for the interplay between cultures when relevant methodologies, tasks and activities are used. Thus, a LLE provides a place for the “dialogue between cultures”. Consequently, children learn about their home culture in the “Russian language zone” and they learn the corresponding elements from the target culture in the “foreign language zone”.

“Zoning” indirectly supports cultural and linguistic identity that is developing in preschool children and that manifests itself through the use of the Russian language in the home language zone. LZs help children learn that each language (Russian and English) should be used in specific contexts and places, that for communication purposes mixing both languages in conversation is not allowed and that languages and facts, things and people can belong to different cultures. We suggest that differentiation between the two cultural worlds represented symbolically by different LZs teaches small children about unique things and concepts, representative of each language and culture, and also about the things that seem similar in both cultures. While language learning activities and tasks are organised in turns in either of the LZs children learn better where (to which language zone) they belong and how they should behave in a particular language zone. They also learn to associate certain cultural elements and characters with a particular language zone and language (either Russian or English). For example, the naughty boy Willy and the funny frog Floppy belong to the English language zone. For children they are English and they speak English, play English games and read English books and neither of them can understand Russian. The preschoolers’ understanding of the zones can be illustrated by the following example: on one occasion the little girl Katya (5 yrs) pointed to the English language zone and said, “Here Willy lives. He is an Englishman. You can speak only English with him. If you speak Russian, he won’t understand you.” (translated from Russian).
Here is another dialogue that shows how 5-year olds differentiate between languages, language use and the speakers:

Willy (the puppet): I like bananas. What do you like?
Anya (speaks Russian): Apelsiny (Oranges)
Arkasha (in Russian, addressing Anya): Nu cho ty?! On zhe ne ponimaet, ty emu po angliiski govori (what are you saying?! He can't understand you. He doesn't understand you, you speak English to him).

The review of the Russian children's sayings collected over the two years time suggest that there is a risk that children may create cultural labels about the target culture elements because of the generalisations they make. It was found, for example, that some children tend to think that all English children and people are red-haired just because Willy is red-haired or they question whether the English boy Willy buys food and clothes in English shops or sometimes he goes to Russian shops. Interestingly enough children's curiosity takes them further and they start wondering what language Willy speaks when he goes to Russian shops, and whether he plays with English or Russian toys.

The analysis of the interviews carried out among Russian-speaking pre-schoolers learning English about their attitudes to the English puppet boy Willy demonstrates that children's linguistic and cultural self-awareness develops over the time as they get more and more engaged into playful communication with Willy, the frog Floppy or other puppet characters who speak only English and live in the English language zone. Here is another sample from the playful interaction between the boy Arkasha (5 yrs) and the puppet boy Willy:

Arkasha (in Russian): Willy, Vot tebe angliyski chai y angliiskoye pechenye (Here are English tea and an English biscuit for you). Nu, ya khotel skazat’ (I meant to say), – It is tea, it is cookie. Please. For you. Ya ved’ pravil’no po-angliiisky skazal? On menya ponyal? (Did I say that correctly in English? Did he understand me?).

This conversation shows that the boy is eager to be understood: Arkasha questions the meaningfulness of his saying, addressing his questions to the teacher. On the other hand, these questions manifest the developing sense of self and the other, the ability to see the situation through the eyes of someone who can't possibly understand a different language.

The situations when the child communicating with the puppet suddenly realises that he (the child) speaks Russian, the language that the puppet cannot
possibly understand, are common for children when they are in the English language zone. The wish to communicate with the puppet is so strong that children make a conscious effort and switch to English. However, similar efforts have not been registered in children’s conversations with the puppet in situations where there are either no language zones or they are used inconsistently.

In our experience children voicing questions about the correct and appropriate use of English are very common when they get engaged into meaningful interactions with a puppet, provided that the puppet use is consistent and dialogues with the puppet provide a meaningful communication practice. Children’s positive attitudes towards the puppet combined with their natural curiosity and a high motivation offer vast possibilities for incorporating the elements of home culture and target language culture into FL teaching. Interestingly enough, children in this case may act as home culture mediators explaining some elements of it to the puppet. Though this is not the case with the described FL programme “Stupenki Plus” it still seems an interesting idea that opens new possibilities for the development of early foreign language programmes, methodologies, tasks and activities.

In their interactions with the puppet children experience language as a successful social and a cultural practice which affects their motivation to communicate and to learn. Identities are constructed and negotiated through social practice and language use (Norton, 1997). We have seen so far that in pre-school EFL situations “language zoning” and meaningful playful communications with the puppet who acts as a social and cultural partner provide space and opportunities for identity growth in small children.

It was also found that children negotiate their cultural and linguistic identities not only through language use and interactions with the puppet, but also through avoiding conversations with a puppet, for a reason. This can be demonstrated with the following children’s remarks (translated from Russian): Sasha (5 yrs), — “I will not speak English, because I can forget Russian”; or Katya (4, 7 yrs), — “I can’t speak English because I’ve forgotten all the words”. There is a number of children’s sayings that demonstrate children’s worries about their potential “loss” of the Russian language which, as they feel, belongs to them. At the same time children feel quite different about the English words and phrases that they forget: their utterances place English as something that belongs entirely to the boy Willy and usually children do not worry too much about forgetting English words.
As has been discussed previously, the aim to introduce a target culture into EFL preschool teaching inevitably brings together the issues of culture, identity and FL teaching methodologies. It has been demonstrated that the appropriate FL teaching methodologies help successful introduction of language and culture and teach children to differentiate cultures and form the right concepts about the self and “the other”. Crucial for the described approach is the balanced representation of home culture and target culture, the organisation of “language zones” and meaningful communications with an English-speaking puppet. Though the described approach has turned out very fruitful there is still a need for further research and methodology developments which can emerge only as the results of the common efforts of linguists, language educators and experts from other relevant fields.
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II

CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING
Using Modern Poetry in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Researchers and teachers, learners and other education specialists have for many years strived to make foreign language learning and teaching more effective, productive and, last but by no means least, enjoyable. A number of approaches and methods, which differ in learning objectives, learner-teacher roles, instructional materials and activities, have been put forward over the course of time. While some methods may be nowadays considered more useful or popular than others, one can dare to say that the effectiveness of foreign language learning and teaching still varies greatly from learner to learner (as well as from teacher to teacher), since it depends on such a wealth of factors apart from methodology (e.g. student’s age, aptitude and personality, teacher’s beliefs, educational, social, political or cultural context, interpersonal relations, to name just a few). The process of foreign language teaching is apparently very contextualised and should be ideally personalised, which is not always possible in the classroom setting. What foreign language teachers can strive for, however, is to use a diversity of methods, techniques and materials in the classroom so as to cater to different students’ needs and learning styles and engage them in the process of learning.

Literature and poetry in particular seems to be a useful foreign language classroom resource, which lends itself quite well for the purposes of foreign language teaching and learning, in addition to the more tried-and-tested materials, such as course books. Developing communicative competence is now generally considered to be the ultimate aim of language teaching, and when it comes to poetry, it might seem that it has little or nothing to do with that task. However, it can be argued that poetry (just as any other customary classroom resource) may be successfully used for the development of virtually all aspects of communicative competence (grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and even strategic competence). It can make foreign language learning more productive and enjoyable and can be used as a basis for
many stimulating activities aimed at developing different language (as well as cognitive and self-expression) skills.

As Samuel Taylor Coleridge quite insightfully put it some centuries ago, prose is “words in their best order”, whereas poetry is “the best words in their best order” (cited in Bartlett 1919). Poetry appeared long before it was classified as such – ancient ritual chants, magical spells and the like probably constitute the earliest examples of poetry. In a broader sense, various kinds of texts can be probably considered poetry (e.g. nursery rhymes, chants, song lyrics, etc.). The present article, however, concentrates on poetry in its “classical” sense, as a form of literary art that has some literary merit.

Poetry, according to Encyclopaedia Britannica (2008), represents a form of literature “that evokes a concentrated imaginative awareness of experience or a specific emotional response through language chosen and arranged for its meaning, sound, and rhythm”. It appears to be quite difficult, especially in our current eclectic postmodernist time, to define poetry or distinguish it from prose, but there are some distinctive features that are traditionally associated with poetic texts, such as special layout, rhyme, rhythm and repetition, high frequency of neologisms and archaisms, peculiar word order or syntax, ellipsis, metaphors and similes, vivid imagery, use of dialect, stretching the rules of punctuation and spelling, etc.

When considering the definition above it may seem that poetry represents some kind of special language, which is probably not suitable for classroom use. However, as Maley and Moulding (1991: 1) point out, “poetry is a special type of English, just as scientific or newspaper English are also special – in different ways”. Lazar (1993: 6) also supports such a viewpoint, maintaining that there is really no “specialised literary language” (as in comparison to other fields, such as e.g. law, science, newspapers, etc.); literature is a “form of discourse in which any language use is permissible” and it “feeds creatively on every possible style and register” (ibid.), which can be in fact of use to foreign language study.

As for the literary devices commonly associated with poetry, they also cannot be considered inherently literary since many of them are actually pervasive in our everyday language as well (e.g. metaphors, similes, neologisms, wordplay, rhyme and rhythm, etc.), and to recognize this is in fact a part of students’ competence. Literature usually pays a lot of conscious attention to language and in this respect it may be quite useful for the process of foreign language learning.

The following list presents just some of the reasons why poetry may represent a useful foreign language classroom resource:
• poetry is a rich authentic material, which provides a meaningful and memorable context and content for language learning;
• it may provide an insight about different cultures and societies and develop students’ intercultural awareness;
• it offers an information or opinion-gap, which can lead to meaningful classroom communication and develop students’ inference and self-expression skills, critical thinking and imagination;
• it may stimulate personal involvement and response and supports the whole person development;
• it provides opportunities for developing interdisciplinary links as well as content and language integrated learning (CLIL);
• it allows for natural focus on form (stress, rhythm, syntax, collocations, spelling, etc.) and repetition;
• it gives an opportunity to experiment and play with language and promote students’ linguistic awareness;
• it is easier to deal with in one lesson (in comparison to longer texts).

Modern poetry, in addition to the above, is also frequently connected to modern events and realia, contains modern cultural allusions, touches upon contemporary issues, embraces various (sub-)cultures and languages, showcases modern and creative use of language and is in general creative and experimental, which may further appeal to and motivate students, being something to which students can relate.

Despite the apparent benefits, many teachers may still have doubts about using poetry in their classes. Many might argue that poetic texts are too complex language and content-wise and that the cultural or linguistic gap is too big and unbridgeable for students to understand a text. Teachers may also feel that they lack necessary competence, knowledge or skills to deal with literary texts during their lessons and thus may not know how to approach literature in the classroom, which texts to choose and what to do with them. To overcome such concerns, it is necessary to plan the use of poetry in advance, considering both the selection of poems and relevant activities. If these questions are not considered in detail, the potential benefits that the use of poetry may provide to language learning may not be gained.

It is also important to decide what role poetry will play in the language classroom. The three main models or approaches to using literature in the language classroom are: (1) literature as content, (2) language-based approach, and (3)
literature for personal enrichment/growth (Lazar, 1993). The approaches differ in the role of literature, role of teacher and students as well as corresponding activities. The first approach puts emphasis on the text (content, historical/social/literary context); it is rather teacher-centred, with a teacher transmitting information and imparting knowledge. The second approach focuses on different linguistic and stylistic features of a literary text and their analysis; and the third is a more learner-centred approach, where literature is mainly used for self-expression and personal growth (Lazar, 1993). Each of these approaches has certain advantages and disadvantages and focuses more on one particular aspect of literature.

It seems that the most favourable and reasonable kind of approach to poetry in the language classroom should somehow integrate all of the aforementioned aspects, as the focus on language does not necessarily have to preclude the focus on content and personal response. Such an integrated approach has been, for instance, proposed by Savvidou (2004) and it consists of several purposeful stages:

1. preparation and anticipation — eliciting students' life or literary experience of the main themes and context of the text, personalising the topic;
2. listening to and/or reading the text and focussing on specific content in the text;
3. preliminary response — students give their intuitive response to the text, either spoken or written;
4. focussing on comprehending the first level of meaning through intensive (and possibly cross-textual) reading;
5. analysing the text at a deeper level and exploring how the message is conveyed through the overall structure and language (e.g. rhythm, register, imagery, devices, etc);
6. interpretation and personal response — increasing understanding, enhancing enjoyment of the text and helping students to arrive at their personal interpretation of the text.

When selecting a poem for classroom use, different aspects have to be given consideration, such as, for instance, students (their age and intellectual/emotional maturity, their needs and interests, social and cultural background, linguistic proficiency, etc.), course aims and syllabus, the topic and language that are being currently studied, and the like. It is also important whether the teacher enjoys, understands and feels comfortable or confident using this text.
himself/herself so as to communicate his or her enthusiasm to the students. Reading and working with a text should be ideally meaningful and enjoyable, having a positive effect on the learners and arousing positive reactions. One of the main criteria for selection is, therefore, the potential ability of a text to stimulate students’ personal involvement and provoke certain affective response and intellectual engagement (which again depends on the students’ character).

The teacher should also consider what cultural/historical/biographical/literary background is necessary for working with a particular poem and what additional materials, support and guidance are needed to explore the text. It is probably worth mentioning that a text should be also evaluated in terms of such aspects as obscene language, controversial topics (e.g. sex, drugs, violence, racism, etc.), offensive humour and the like. The text that draws on such aspects has to be approached with special care and preferably used (if at all) with more mature students, provided the teacher is able to handle such topics in a careful, impartial and unbiased manner and can foresee and deal with a variety of potential problems that may arise as a result (e.g. disruptive behaviour, insults, misunderstandings, etc.).

The activities that can be used with poems are innumerable and are in essence the same kinds of activities that are habitually used with other language classroom resources. The following is a list of some possible activities, which have been drawn together from various sources (Collie and Slater, 1992; Lazar, 1993; Maley and Duff, 1990; Maley and Moulding, 1991; Spiro, 2004) and grouped according to the stages of the integrated approach mentioned above:

1. Preparation (preparation for the text, warming up, establishing necessary context and drawing students into the text):
   - speculating about the title of the text, predicting the theme from the poem’s title or key words/lines;
   - filling in a questionnaire to determine students’ attitudes to certain issues raised in the literary work;
   - brainstorming as many words/associations as possible on the topic of the poem, or choosing these words from a list;
   - answering questions or writing their own questions;
   - describing or discussing relevant pictures;
   - drawing/matching/collecting pictures;
   - recalling and sharing particular memories;
   - speculating about what a student would do in a situation similar to the one in the poem;
“inhabiting” a certain relevant scene in the imagination and then sharing own experiences in a group (what students see, smell, hear, do, how they feel, etc.);

expressing and sharing ideas on or responses to a theme, situation or visual prompt (photos, magazine pictures, etc.);

listening to other people talking about their reactions to the text;

engaging in a discussion, role-play, dramatisation on a relevant theme;

completing some metaphors or similes from a poem before reading it (e.g. My love is like a ...) and then comparing and discussing the variants with each other;

writing short poems on a relevant topic;

working with the author’s biography (Collie and Slater, 1992);

biographical montage (students speculate and try to reconstruct/illustrate author’s biography on the basis of some pictures, photos, objects, place names, etc.);

creating a sketch of the author (speculating about author’s personality and biography on the basis of some of his/her pictures);

guessing a missing information in an author’s biography (e.g. education, married life, political beliefs, etc.);

biographical lie-detecting (identifying an untrue piece of information in author’s biography);

studying some relevant background information or vocabulary (listen to/read a text, watch a video, search the Internet/dictionary, etc.).

2. Reading/listening to the text and its content, eliciting students’ preliminary response to the text:

listening to the teacher (or the author or someone else) reading the text (and speaking along);

reading the text (silently or aloud, individually or in pairs/groups/one by one, etc.);

ordering jumbled-up lines or stanzas;

gap-fill/cloze;

predicting the continuation after having read the first line or stanza of a poem, or choosing from a set of possible continuations/unfolding the poem line by line with the help of students’ suggestions;

jigsaw reading or listening (different groups of students are given different extracts and must reconstitute the complete text consulting each other);
point of order: several students receive some lines/stanzas from the poem, in no particular order, and read them in front of the class, who try to order the students according to the original order of the lines/stanzas (Collie and Slater, 1992).

3. Exploring and appreciating the content of the poem, focusing on meaning:
   - reading the poem aloud (discussing stress patterns, pauses, rhythm, emphasis beforehand) all together/in turns/in character/with a special mood (e.g. angry, sad, happy, etc.);
   - building up the poem from memory after listening to it several times;
   - answering different kinds of questions (open-ended/multiple choice/true or false, etc.) to check comprehension and stimulate discussion;
   - highlighting the key points of the text in terms of the content and sharing/discussing ideas about their significance;
   - choosing the best paraphrase or summary of the poem or writing it individually/in pairs/groups;
   - discussing some critical statements about the poem;
   - choosing (from a list) or speculating about a moral, implicit value judgements of the poem and the like;
   - parallel reading (reading some other texts to explore a particular topic/background information);
   - comparing and contrasting various aspects of two poems that are somehow connected (theme, form, vocabulary, message, etc.);
   - pyramid discussion of some relevant issues raised in the poem;
   - engaging in a role-play on the basis of the poem;
   - writing different texts on the basis of the poem, such as, for instance letters, newspaper articles, reports, epitaphs, missing posters, other poems and so on (pre-teaching relevant conventions and vocabulary is essential).

4. Exploring the language and structure of the poem and how they convey the message:
   - matching/classifying vocabulary, practising structures, conjunctions, etc.;
   - highlighting the key points of the text in terms of language and structure and sharing/discussing ideas about their significance;
   - “correcting” or, alternatively, experimenting with spelling, punctuation, layout, vocabulary or structures and speculating about the effect;
• changing some words/lines in the poem and discussing the effect;
• changing factual sentences into metaphors or vice versa;
• discussing translations of the poem or translating it individually/in pairs/groups.

5. Personal response to, and interpretation of the poem, sharing responses and summarising previous work:
• discussing (agree or disagree with) some statements about the underlying meaning of the poem;
• choosing/discussing the most plausible interpretation of a poem (e.g. by a critic);
• discussing or having debates about values and ideas present in the poem;
• discussing other poems on the same topic;
• converting the poem into another kind of text (newspaper article, note, story, advertisement etc.) or vice versa;
• rewriting the poem (changing language, layout or meaning, etc.) or writing another poem using the original as a model;
• writing a poem (individually/in groups/pairs) using different kinds of models (structure, beginnings/endings, rhymes, phrases, etc.), prompts (e.g. pictures, objects, etc.), associations on a certain topic or memories about a particular experience;
• writing a critical review of the poem or an essay on a relevant theme;
• generating ideas for visual presentation of the poem (e.g. a short film), etc.
• coming up with a visual image or mime/gestures for the poem or each of its lines;
• illustrating the poem (drawings, collages, computer graphics, etc.) to express own thoughts and feelings or to attract a potential reader;
• doing various kinds of role-plays (interviews, editor’s choice, etc.) or dramatisations on the basis of the poem.

It should be mentioned that the success of such activities and tasks also depends on the way they are carried out and involves thorough preparation, enthusiasm, flexibility and a supportive attitude on the part of the teacher. What is more, it is also vital for the teacher to analyse and evaluate the lesson to draw necessary conclusions and further practical implications for using poetry with his or her students.
The use of poetry thus seems to be justified, as is the use of other customary language resources. Poetry, despite being seen by many as a complex, peculiar or even odd kind of language use, may actually represent quite a powerful resource for language learning and teaching. It can potentially attend to the diverse needs of students and allow for the much-needed variety (not to mention interdisciplinary links and the whole person development) in the foreign language classroom.

REFERENCES


The Concept of ESP
The meaning of the term English for Specific Purposes, which is a part of most university courses in the world today including Estonia, is probably realised best when opposed to English for General Purpose, which usually precedes ESP and is studied at school. While in General English the language is appreciated for its own sake as a universe of lexical units merging into numerous patterns to produce written or spoken discourse that might or might not be of any use for the learner, in ESP a very particular aim – a target application of the language – is a starting point dictating the types of discourse with the relevant structures and vocabulary to be acquired. Depending on the area where the language is going to be used, various ESP sub-disciplines are distinguished with English for Academic Purposes, English for Business Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes being the main ones.

The word “specific” usually refers to several components of such a course: specific needs of the learners, specific study materials and tasks, and specific language. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, in Dudley-Evans 2001: 132) define these as absolute characteristics of ESP. A decade before that Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19) write that “ESP is <...> an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need”. Gatehouse (2001) and Crystal (2003) too stress that ESP is a course built upon the goals that the course participants set. Hence, a proper ESP course is one that heavily relies on needs analysis.

Needs Analysis and Related Problems
Needs analysis typically begins with looking at the target situation, which provides the information concerning the desired learning outcomes. As a result,
it is possible to determine objective needs – skills and knowledge the course participants have to acquire, and subjective needs – how a particular learner can best meet these requirements. For example, a group of specialists attend an English course since they often have to communicate with foreign engineers visiting their plant. Thus, the objective needs would be showing a visitor around, describing equipment, explaining production processes, answering questions. However during an interview with the learners in the course of a subjective needs analysis, it becomes evident that they are familiar with all necessary terminology and can produce a good monologue about their plant, at the same time having difficulty interacting with the guests or making small talk during lunch. The ESP course will, thus, concentrate on developing learners’ communicative skills employing the topics not necessarily related with engineering, for example the weather, food, hobbies and other common small talk themes.

However, in Estonia most ESP courses are a part of a university programme, where the participants are trying to prepare for a target situation not knowing yet what this target situation is going to be like apart from assuming that it will be related with the field they are studying. Consequently, if it is not possible to collect much information about objective needs, it seems reasonable to focus on learners’ subjective needs. In that case learners themselves become the main source of information, which means that the usefulness of the course will depend to a great extent on how accurately the students can identify their needs. Another possible difficulty is that even if course participants assess their abilities and define objectives accurately; their individual needs may vary significantly, as higher education has become accessible for people with very different backgrounds.

**Learner Training**

The problems that ESP course designers and instructors are faced with at a university, where students’ objective and subjective needs are mainly inaccurate or too diverse, can be addressed with the help of learner training – teaching the students how to assess their language skills at any given time, define their objectives concerning necessary development and use available resources to reach those objectives. In other words, if a university ESP course cannot prepare the participants for the target situation, at least it should supply them with tools for self-study that they could employ once the target situation occurs. Hence, a university course becomes a simulation of a “real-life” challenge, where they will need to:
• Identify the requirements
• Identify own skills and deficiencies against the set requirements
• Set personal aims as for meeting the requirements
• Choose strategy for achieving the aims
• Work with suitable resources
• Evaluate the progress

As practical experience shows, for many students, coping with these six steps is indeed a very challenging task. For example, some students fail to receive a good mark for an essay simply because they do not familiarise themselves with the assessment criteria and write four paragraphs instead of the required five. An example of being unable to set realistic goals is, when completing a personal objectives form at the beginning of the course, students with the level of proficiency A2 write that after a 16-week semester they wish to speak English without mistakes. Often students promise, in order to achieve their aims, to do things that they are most likely not going to do: write an essay every week, learn twenty new words every day or read Shakespeare in the original language.

E-learning as a Way for Satisfying Individual Needs
In the case of a university course, the set requirements will be the same for all participants, while the path that each student takes to fulfil them will be strictly individual. To ensure that this path is conscious, reasonable, and the student learns from it, one compulsory course requirement for any ESP course must be developing skills for independent learning, which can be realised via an electronic environment.

E-courses can be conducted via electronic environments such as Blackboard or Moodle, which represent a system specifically designed to either totally replace or complement classroom-based education. A fundamental difference between classroom-based education (being in an auditorium with other students following teacher’s instructions) and e-learning (studying in a private setting) is that, in the latter case, each learner would have to make their own decisions as for what to learn, when and how according to the individual aims. In the classroom, no matter how learning centred the methodology is, the teacher inevitably is a leader simply because there should be someone to coordinate the simultaneous activity of group participants. In contrast, in e-environments it is the learner who has to take responsibility for how the studying time is spent.

E-learning can also be characterized as “the process of lazily meandering through something, doing things as it occurs to you to do them, an enjoyable
tinkering that often leads to insight and creativity” [About Moodle], which is written on the official Moodle site to explain the choice for the name of the resource. However, to make sure that this process of studying individually is enjoyable for the students, they have to get used to it and receive support and guidance.

To avoid isolating the students, a big role in e-learning is assigned to various communication tools: discussion forums, chat rooms, e-mails, blogs and so on. Hence, it would be totally unfair to accuse e-courses of depriving the learners of the opportunity to talk to each other and ask for the teacher’s feedback. In fact, it provides even more possibilities for communication than the learners would have had in the classroom. The question is whether they are aware of these possibilities and feel positive about using them. On the one hand, communication tools in electronic environments cater for the needs of those for whom the class time is not enough for practicing or those who feel shy in face-to-face communication or need preparation time before expressing opinions. On the other hand, those who are not interested in communication are not obliged to participate in forum discussions.

Offering choice is probably one of the key characteristics of e-courses, which can embody a huge collection of reference materials, activities and links to external Internet resources. Course participants can decide upon their own action plan depending on individual needs. If there are still people who are opposed to the idea of studying via the Web, they can concentrate on classwork and paper versions of the learning resources. If there are students who cannot attend lessons, due to having to work or for any other reason, they could opt for e-learning. The majority will hopefully be those who can take advantage of both class- and out-of-class activities paying more attention to particular problematic skills or areas of most interest. Finally, there is always a category of learners who would try to complete as much of the available work as possible.

**Conclusion**

The peculiarity of English for Specific Purposes courses lies in an attempt to reveal and consider the individual needs and aims of the learners when planning and conducting the teaching activity. E-learning can be a handy tool in fulfilling this challenging task in the context of university courses. E-learning can help to develop students’ responsibility for their own progress, teach to carry out self-evaluation of their subjective needs, improve their self-study skills, and ensure that their education is meaningful and beneficial.
REFERENCES


New Possibilities in Teaching of Aspectual Pairs Formation

Olga Burdakova (Narva), Natalya Bogdanova (Moscow)

Introduction
As it is known, the verb is highly important in our speech: being the bearer of the predicativeness category the verb-predicate forms an utterance. This syntactical function of the verb defines, to a large extent, the place the verb occupies in the course of Russian as a foreign language (further on RFL): work on verbal categories already begins within the frames of the introductory phonetic course and it does not stop during the whole language study period.

Besides this, students start learning about the personal forms of the verb, its tense forms and they become aware of the aspectual opposition and the usage of verb aspects already at the initial stage of learning. The aspect of the verb, which is the leading category in the grammatical system of the verb in the Russian language (it characterises all the verb forms, including the infinitive one), is rightly paid a lot of attention. However, students do not practice formation of the aspectual pairs either at the initial or at the following stages of learning.

A student is taught to differentiate between the forms of the perfect aspects (hereafter PA) and the imperfect aspect (hereafter IA) in speech on the basis of formal indicators. Thus, for instance, the student is told that the forms and verbs of PA have a prefix and the forms and verbs of IA have suffixes -а- / -я- or -ыма- / -има-, -ва-, etc. To demonstrate these indicators to beginner and intermediate learners teachers often use tables (see, for instance, Table 1) which show the system of the ways of formation of the aspectual pairs in the Russian language.
Table 1. Ways of Formation of Aspectual Pairs\(^1\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways of Formation of Aspectual Pairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Verbs of the perfect and imperfect aspects have different suffixes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) verbs of the imperfect aspect have suffix -а- and verbs of the perfect aspect have suffix -и-:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>кончать — кончить</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>получать — получить</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>изменять — изменить</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) verbs of the imperfect aspect have suffix -ыва- / -ива-:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>рассказывать — рассказать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>показывать — показать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>спрашивать — спросить</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) verbs of the imperfect aspect have suffix -ва-:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>давать — дать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>уставать — устать</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>узнавать — узнать</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite its title, a table of such type is not able to help a foreigner to form verbs of the PA and IA, although it undoubtedly helps to distinguish the aspectual form in context and, on the basis of the suffix, to decipher which of the two aspectual meanings the form expresses.

As teaching of the aspectual correlates formation as such (production, not perception) is not carried out, aspectual correlates are introduced not as forms of one word, but as independent lexemes. In other words, a foreigner studying Russian learns by heart the PA and IA forms of a verb as two correlative, but quite independent lexical units.

The situation existing in the methodology of teaching RFL can be explained. It is clear that in order to teach a foreigner to compose the aspectual forms of a verb in speech, not to produce the learned-by-heart forms, it is necessary to elicit/know the mechanisms of composition of these forms in the Russian language.

**Elicited Mechanisms of Composition of Forms of the Imperfect Aspect in the Russian Language**

As it is known, in the Russian language aspectual correlates are formed in two main ways: perfectives are formed with the prefixal method and secondary imperfectives are formed with the suffixal method. Let us leave aside the debatable issue of the perfectivation as word-building in the Russian language and concentrate on such an unarguable, live and productive way of formation of aspectual pairs as suffixation – composition of IA forms from prefixal verbs of PA.

\(^1\) The fragment of the table is quoted from the textbook (Soboleva et al.: 67).
Three different suffixal morphs participate in this above-mentioned process in the modern Russian language (compare: захватить — захват-ыва-ть; покорить — покор-я-ть; овладеть — овладе-ва-ть). From the point of view of the mother tongue it all seems clear: a Russian, Slovak or Czech certainly knows how to make an imperfect form of one or another prefixal verb. But as soon as we approach the issue from a point of view of a different, even closely related, language, the situation becomes different: methods of imperfectivation lose their “automaticity”, the choice of formal means of imperfectivation turns out to be “not reasoned” (Isachenko, II: 176–177). However, the intuitive command of the formation norms of the IA which was described by A.I. Isachenko does not help either a naïve Russian speaker or a qualified teacher of RFL to explain to a foreigner who is learning Russian how IA forms are composed and which “rule” Russian speakers follow when choosing from the possible means (for example, the suffixal morph -а- / -я- to make the form покор-я-ть, but not -ыва- / -ива- (*покар-ива-ть)). Do such “rules” exist? Is it possible to state that IA morphs are distributed according to positions, but are they in the relations of additional distribution?

Despite the fact that these issues, in such a form, have not been raised in grammatical descriptions, apparently, they or similar issues attracted attention of grammarians during the whole of XX century. It is no coincidence that classical works in grammar dating from the last century include single notices or rather successful attempts to describe the action zone of imperfectivation morphs (see, for example, works (Karcevski 2000: 50; Karcevski 2004: 75; Vinogradov: 415–419; Isachenko, II: 176-201; Shelyakin 1983: 124–133; Shelyakin 2001: 483–486; Shelyakin 2008: 102-105)). The approach which turned out to be productive was described in works by S.I. Karcevski. Within the framework of this approach the choice of imperfectivation morph was linked to the notion of “grammatical class of the verb”. The result in realisation of the approach was the presentation of the main tendencies in distribution of imperfectivation morphs in the form of compact and informative tables (see tables in works (Shelyakin 1983: 132–133; Shelyakin 2000: 146–148; Shelyakin 2001: 484)). Let us refer to the table from the textbook “Современный русский язык” (Modern Russian Language) which was completed and updated by M.A. Shelyakin (edited by L.A. Novikova) (Shelyakin 2001: 484) (see Table 2).
As the table shows, the direct and (what is more important for us) unique dependence between the suffixal morph of imperfectivation and the correlation of infinitive and present tense morphemes (basically, the class of the verb) was elicited in the majority of the cases. The revealed tendencies could be trans-
formed into simple (under one condition) or difficult positive or negative, as well as operational rules. For instance:

If the infinitive of a verb ends with -ать, and the form of 3rd person plural has the ending -ат / -ят, then IA forms are made with the help of the suffix -ыва- / -ыва-.

(Simple positive rule)

Rules of such kind could be used at different stages of teaching RFL but for one “no” which significantly complicates solving of the task – formulating of the rules for composition of IA forms from the majority of verbs with -ить (the last row of the table).

Revealing of Tendencies in Composition of IA Forms from Verbs with -ить

IA forms of verbs of the so-called productive class V (with the correlation of the infinitive and present morphemes и ~ Ø with the ending -ат / -ят in 3rd person plural) are made, as Table 2 shows, either with the help of the suffixal morph -ыва- / -ыва- or with the morph -а- (see rows 10-13 of Table 2).

Grammarians of the XX century were not able to identify the grounds for dividing suffixal morphs in the course of formation of IA forms within this group. In fact, the issue of imperfectivation of verbs with -ить was not solved and thus, in such (we should say rather numerous\(^2\)), cases grammatical descriptions advised the readers to refer to dictionaries and learn IA forms as “vocabulary items”.

At the same time, speakers of Russian freely make IA forms from any verb with -ить (even if it is obviously absent in their personal speaking experience). It is proven by a linguistic experience in the course of which we asked Russian speakers to make IA forms from verbs with –ить whose meaning is unknown for us (for more information about the experiment see (Burdakova, Bogdanova; Burdakova)). The results of the experiment allowed us to suggest that there exist regular formal patterns of distribution of morphs in the course of imperfectivation of verbs of this class. These are the “rules” that every Russian speaker has the mastery of at an intuitive level. We have the sense of these rules; we follow them, even though we are not able either to become fully aware of them or to

\(^2\) In the middle of XX century, according to specialists’ estimations, over 30% of all verbs in the Russian language belonged to this class (Kostomarov 1955: 5).
interpret them. These are the patterns which have not been discovered by the science and the rules which have not been formulated.

We believe that the choice of the means of imperfectivation at a given historical period is regular and not arbitrary, but in the modern language it is reasoned by structural (formal) features of PA verbs. The following aspects of the endless variety of the formal features characteristic of a word can influence the choice of the imperfectivation morph:

- a certain morpheme in the structure of the word;
- a phoneme/letter or a combination of phonemes/letters in a certain position in the word (in the root, at the end of the verb stem, etc);
- the length (the linear character of the “meaningful” by Ferdinand de Saussure) and the depth which mean the number of syllables, phonemes/letters and the number of morphemes;
- accent (which morpheme, syllable or phoneme is accented; whether the element is accented/unaccented).

The identification of the dependence between the presence of one or another feature in the formal structure of the verb and the means of imperfectivation of this verb allows one to determine the conditions for choosing of the means used in the imperfectivation process, i.e. to find the full-scale imperfectivation model of verbs of Class V which can be used in teaching RFL.

In order to do this all PA verbs with -ить which have the correlative IA form (made through imperfectivation) were selected from BTS by the means of continuous sampling. In total 3761 lexemes were selected: 2034 verbs with imperfectives with -иба-, 1577 verbal lexemes which are imperfectivated with the help of the morph -а-; 5 — with -ева- and 145 words which have variational competing IA forms with the morphs -иба- and -а-. As the initial data base (the number of words) and the number of different formal features influencing the process of imperfectivation are rather large, the analysis of formal characteristics in order to find patterns of distribution of imperfectivation morphs is a very difficult and demanding task. In order to solve the task a package of computer programmes “GrouperV” was created which is able to:

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3 The programmes were written in the Object Pascal language in the Borland Delphi framework, version 3.0 for the MS Windows operating system. The authors express their deep gratitude to D.S. Bogdanov, Candidate of Physical and Mathematical Sciences, the Head of Economic and Mathematical Modeling Sector of VNIGNI (Moscow, Russia) for development of the mentioned computer programmes package necessary for solving the task set by the authors.
firstly, identify the above-listed formal features in each word, count the
total length of a word (by syllables or morphemes) or the length of sepa-
rate parts of a word, identify the accent, etc;
secondly, identify statistically important patterns in distribution of suf-
fixal morphs of imperfectivation (or criteria of morphs distribution) on
the basis of the frequency analysis of the dictionary and formal features;
thirdly, rank the criteria on the basis of their “purity” (or relevance) and
frequency of occurrence.

As the result of the automatic analysis of the data, it turned out that quite a
few of formal characteristics of verbs with -ить correspond to a certain means
of imperfectivation. Consequently, it is possible to say that the structure of a
verb and formal features (certain signs of imperfectivation) “dictate” us the
choice of the morph.

For example, if in the initial verb of PA the number of syllables after the
prefix before the unaccented thematic element (till –ить) is more than 1, then
the IA form is made by adding the morph -ива- / -ыва-, for example:

взбударáть — взбудорáж-ива-ть, искале́чить — искале́ч-ива-ть,
nакрахмáлить — накрахмáл-ива-ть, ошарáшить — ошарáш-ива-ть, etc.
(with few exceptions).

If at the end of the verbal morpheme before the thematic vowel (before
-ить) there is a combination “vowel + j”, then the IA form is made by adding
the suffixal morph -ива-:

вклéить — вклé-ива-ть, допо́йти — допа-ива-ть, зата́нить — зата-
ива-ть, надстро́ить — надстра-ива-ть, обеспоко́ить — обеспоко-ива-ть,
etc. (no exceptions).

If the thematic vowel is preceded by a combination “consonant + h”, then the
imperfect form with -а- / -я- is made:

затемнить — затемн-я-ть, изгря́зни́ть — изгрязн-я-ть, наво́днить —
nаводн-я-ть, обе́днить — обедн-я-ть, etc (with few exceptions).

If the word has prefixes воз- / вос-, пре-, пред-, по-, then the IA form is
made by adding the suffixal morph -а- / -я-. Compare:

возглáвить — возглáвл-я-ть (but cognates: обезглáвить — обезглáвлывать,
oзаглáвить — озаглáвлывать); поглотить — поглощ-а-ть (but: поглотить
— заглатывать, проглотить — проглатывать; преломить — преломить-я-ть (but: заломить — заламывать, надломить — надламывать, отломить — отламывать), etc.

If the word has prefixes вз- / вс- and о-без- / о-бес-, then IA forms are made with the help of the suffixal morph -ива- / -ыва-:

взбодриться — взбадр-ива-ться (but ободрить — ободрять); обесславить — обесславл-ива-ть (but ославить — ославлять, прославить — прославлять, восславить — восславлять, расславить — рассславлять), etc.

All the revealed dependences were automatically ranged. As a result, we received a sequence of 16 features covering 1054 verbs (see Table 3).

Table 3.
Results of Automatic Ranging According to the Frequency of Revealed Criteria of Distribution of Imperfectivation Means.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Formal Criterion</th>
<th>Morph</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Polysyllable structure (&gt; 1 syllable) between the prefix and the unaccented thematic element -и-ть</td>
<td>-ива-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Combination &quot;vowel + й&quot; before -и-ть</td>
<td>-ива-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Combination &quot;consonant + н&quot; before -и-ть</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Combination оро, оло, ере, ело within the root</td>
<td>-ива-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Prefix по-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Prefix воз- / вос-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Prefixes о-без- / о-бес-</td>
<td>-ива-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Prefix вз- / вс-</td>
<td>-ива-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Prefix пре-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Unaccented (syllabic) suffix</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Prefix во-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>No prefix</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Consonantal root</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Compound word (&gt; 1 root), accented thematic element -и-ть</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Prefix пред-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>with exceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Prefix низ-</td>
<td>-а-</td>
<td>no exceptions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sequence presented in the table can be transformed into a simple algorithm not requiring any special linguistic knowledge operations on identifying features of occurrence of one or another imperfectivation morph within a word.
We will not state that in speech the synthesis (composition of the form) is preceded by a similar analysis, and that in the process of verb imperfectivation the speaker “scans” a word to pick up the information which is important for choosing of a morph. However, we think that something similar could take place.

After correction of the initial database (selecting and removing words which are on the periphery of the language), the algorithm can serve as the basis for composing of an operational (instructive) rule whose form varies depending on the stage of RFL learning.
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The Creation of text in school is traditionally related with the formation of receptive and productive skills because the successful socialisation of students depends on their skills to orientate in the surrounding information, to relay it correctly as well as to create their own texts that are adequate in the communicative conditions. Practice shows that in work with bilingual students the mastering of various text producing techniques to reproduce and produce text is significantly slower because students have difficulties in finding the appropriate speech items for the communicative situation in order to generate thoughts. This imposes focus not only on work with texts as a communication unit but also on enriching the bilinguals’ vocabulary through systematic lexical work.

The lexical work in schools starts with the introduction of the concept of word and the distinction between the word and the object it denotes. Having in mind the scarce vocabulary of bilingual students it is good to use all possibilities to visualize the examples, so the students could be able to relate the words with the objects they denote. It is better if the examples have peculiarities in relation to the interference between the languages used by the bilinguals. For instance in the conditions of Turkish-Bulgarian bilingual environment the examples can contain the sounds ts (ш), h (х), κ (in the end of the word), consonant clusters, etc.: летец - пилот; коридор – антре, etc (Georgieva 1995: 30). Basically the lexical work with bilingual students is oriented towards the introduction of word possibilities to express relationships, feelings, etc., for the adequate realisation of the speech and communicative intention of speaker, writer.

The purposeful lexical work for text creation is provided with the complex year planning of Bulgarian language and literature. In order to provide the accumulation of the students’ vocabulary it is appropriate in the process of curriculum distribution to plan for each theme (from three to five) speech units for lexical work. The principles for their selection could be different (thematic, situational, associative, etc.), but in order to train the bilinguals’ articulation and writing habits it is important to focus on words that contain peculiarities
in relation to the languages that students use in the class room. Besides, when planning the themes for oral and written texts, we should have in mind that every next text should be related to the previous one (thematically related, functional and notional load, etc.). After retelling the fairy tale *The Sick Cares the Healthy One*, it is good to work on a microstory, a description of an animal (vixen) by using the appropriate visual materials. For example:

* Probably you have received NESTLE ADVENTURE chocolates in which there are cards with pictures of different animals. There is some data about the vixen on the back of the card: name, class, order, family, size and weight, habitat, feeding and habits, reproduction, curious facts. Connect this data in a text to describe it?

If the theme of the next description text is *My Domestic Animal* the students will be facilitated because the model to describe an animal is already illustrated as a sample text (*The Sick Cares the Healthy One*) as well as with a student’s animal description with a preliminary detailed parameters. It is expected that some of the lexical units that have been already worked with will be suitable for the description of the domestic animal.

**The text creation work** supposes building of a system for preparation, writing and editing which is related to the basic phases of speech activity’s structure. These phases are in the base of the text building techniques that are applied in school: for text preparation (reproductive and productive), for independent text creation (writing) and text editing (Geogieva 2002: 177). The practice shows that in the work process with bilingual students these techniques have their own specificities, motivated by the more restricted life experience and scarce lexical stock and the need to have in mind the interfering influences between the first and the second languages. For example within the process of text writing and editing is provided the teacher’s instructive help – offered are options for answers like: *What should I write/speak for?; What means should I choose?*; students are provided with giving hints details on the theme. It is recommended to use additional verification sources in the text creation process, etc. A similar approach creates the danger for the productive speech to become partially productive but when teaching bilingual students similar additional supports are useful.

**Preparation for Text Creation as a Meaningful Unit**

Students are offered motives for creation of texts that are related to the real or supposed life (or school) needs. For example before St George’s Day or before Hederles (from the Muslim Calendar) it is suitable to work on a composition-description of this holiday, because the information about the theme is useful for
rationalisation of the ethnocultural diversity of the mixed regions’ population. When preparing the theme the focus is on the figuring out of the future texts, as it is suggested that the text could vary. The teacher offers as much as possible information on the theme and attracts the attention to the fact that everybody must decide what aim will be pursued in his/her text – either he/she will tell what is happening at home on St George’s Day (Hederlez) or will describe the very holiday. It is recommended for students to choose by themselves the text’s addressee as they answer the questions: *Whom will I tell how we celebrate the holiday? Is the whole information or part of it new for him?*, etc.

If we are preparing to create a story retold, the student’s motivation is most often related with satisfying their information needs, their spiritual range of interests, to provoke their interests and curiosity. For example the base text *Since When Bulgarians Celebrate 1st March* gives additional and curious information about how the celebration of 1-st March started and what the *Martenitsa* symbolize, and the text a *Bird of Peace (written by Angel Karaliichev)* – why the pigeon is symbol of peace. The focus is on the introduction of content of the story retold and, as a result, parts of it could be used as texts for receptive exercises in Bulgarian language classes that are precedent to the retelling of the story. (Geogieva 2005: 146). It is how work is provided which enables thinking over the content for a longer time – students aim at the text theme, plot line, the logic and the continuity in which the events and the participants are presented, the markers of the space and time boarders in which is implemented the plot action.

An essential element of the preparation is the **planning** of the school text. Bilingual students are expected to give answers to actual questions for the text. *How we do that? How to render correctly and successfully the text contents of the retold story?* In relation to the future text’s planning the skill to separate the basic text in parts and give them titles is refreshed. This is in order to have diversity in the linguistic utterance when retell it is appropriate to activate the vocabulary work (write down synonyms of some of the key words, the dictionary meaning of some words is specified, etc.). This plan is necessary in the work on an essay. For example in the preparation of a descriptive essay, in order to avoid unnecessary jumps from one group of features that characterise a certain subject from different sides, first the aspects in which the object will be described should be carefully thought over, in order to plan the sequence of their setting down. So in work with theme *My Domestic Animal*, first is described the general experience of the animal, then its habits, preferences, occupation, foods, etc, and finally – the peoples’ attitude (respectfully the one to the author) towards it.
In the process of plan preparation the suitable words are written down, as well as their synonyms which are available for the students during the process of writing the text, because most often bilingual students see and understand what they should describe, but they lack the necessary word stock to convey the subject-matter. The final stage of the preparation is an independent creation (most often orally) of text parts. To facilitate students the teacher could direct their attention to some characteristic features of this type of text, specific requirements for its linguistic presentation, and sometimes, as a prevention, to the type of mistakes that are made. For instance before starting to retell a story in detail, its necessary requirements should be recalled: correctly, precisely and consecutively to reproduce the text contents; to use non witness verb forms (-λ-forms) or indicative forms of the present tense; to retell with your own words, the direct speech to be presented as indirect, etc. It is better if more students try on their own to complete the task to produce a text excerpt, whose theme is proposed, because the aim is to create an independent thinking, and skill of the students to express their own and not other peoples’ communicative intention.

**Independent Text Creation (Writing)**

The independent text creation is most often connected to the writing down the flow of thoughts based on the preliminary, already developed in the preparatory class, plan. The text is constructed in accordance with the functional, and meaningful and genre specifications, and with the use of the student’s own word stock. This is how the first text variation is formed. In technological aspect, this text drafting is related to draft work, which is why the teacher pays special attention to the building of written notes on the text draft. A less freedom is common for free writing of the draft of a retold story, because its contents are defined by the base text. The accent there is on the text continuity and logics, in order not to allow changing the position of some episodes or to miss some of them. The work on a retold story gives an opportunity for bilingual students to focus on the search for, and selection of, new words to convey a content which they should not invent by themselves. This enables them to lower down the barriers which they have to overcome, i.e. for two tasks – students should decide what to say and how to say it to be reduced to one task.

**Text Editing**

Text editing has its own algorithm which includes: improvement of the notional and thematic text completeness; of its compositional wholeness, of the appro-
appropriate use of lexical units and spelling (punctuation) mistakes. The guidance of students towards meaningful and thematic text completeness is the first thing with which the improvement of any text starts. For this purpose students must learn how to read through the eyes of the addressee, i.e. to improve the text contents until it is understandable for the reader and until the authors decides that it is satisfactory from its own communicative point of view.

The text editing is most motivated when it is related to private speech product, though the draft of the student’s text should be based on editing. The editing of the lexical, grammatical, spelling and punctuation mistakes is organised in a different way depending on whether the text has been corrected by the teacher or not. If a checked draft is edited the students are facilitated because the mistakes are marked and should only be removed. The option, when the teacher only defines the mistakes in a certain text volume (line, paragraph) and students find them by themselves and correct them (this is how mistakes are longer remembered), should not be neglected. During the editing process some, already learned, rules could be reminded (for example the definite article or the use of comma), because in texts like this these are the most common mistakes. Special attention should be paid with mistakes typical for bilingual students (irregular concord between gender and number, and the lack or replacement of one letter with other, word order disturbances, etc.).

The final activity in each text editing is its whole reading. If the author decides that the text is understandable, the contents and the structure are in accordance with the aim it has defined, and the technical formation (its reading, clarity, title in accordance with the theme, paragraph distinction, margin forming, etc.) is suitable, the draft could be rewritten as a clean copy, and the text could be given to its receiver (teacher).
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Nowadays no one doubts that using video materials in foreign language lessons is extremely important for creating the foreign language atmosphere within the classroom. It is difficult to overestimate the role of video materials, and teachers frequently enliven their classes with off-air material or disks produced for language learning, because they help raise students’ motivation and achieve goals of teaching.

One of the crucial aims of teaching foreign languages is in developing foreign language communicative competence as a whole, and its structural components – linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, discourse/speech, strategic, and social competences. Enhancing lessons with video materials cultivates all above mentioned competencies as the main feature of video materials is their multi-functionalism. Firstly, a situation-based approach, which is provided by applying video in the lessons, facilitates subconscious language acquisition while presenting, practicing, and producing the language material, creating the effect of participation and involvement.

Secondly, video facilitates information interpretation as the information perception is carried out through two sources – auditory and visual ones. Engaged visual senses clarify and correct deduction, which reinforces comprehension, adequate interpretation of grammar and vocabulary items, and their correct application for speaking and writing.

Additionally, using video is an effective means of managing students’ self-study. The necessity to thoroughly select assignments for each stage of viewing (preview, viewing, and follow-up) fosters developing students’ autonomy, which is one of the most important competencies, as it presupposes the capability of the student to independently choose appropriate strategies for solving communicative tasks, not only in the classroom but also in the situations of real intercultural communication.
One of the most important advantages of using video in the educational process is its different aspects of cognitive function. Students do not just hear language, they see it too. They can observe how intonation can match facial expression, which gestures are used for different verbal signs, how emotions are expressed etc. (Scrivener, 2009). All such paralinguistic features give valuable meaning clues and help viewers to see beyond what they are listening to. Moreover, video materials contribute to cross-cultural awareness. Video allows students a look at situations far beyond their classrooms. For example, students can see such things as what kind of food people eat in other countries, what they wear, what is their typical ‘body language’ in different real life situations etc. (Harmer, 2010). In its turn cognitive activities cannot but affect feelings and emotions determining our attitude to what we see. The complex character of video impact on results for creating emotional atmosphere in the classroom, and implies its great personality development potential.

Foreign language learning plays a great role in developing student’s personality as its content and methods of teaching presuppose constant cognizing of the Other in the process of becoming aware of the target culture and communicating with speech partners in the lesson and in real life situations. Acceptance and understanding of the other personality and the other culture is unfeasible without tolerance. It is tolerance that is a constituent part of empathic capability, which provides achieving the aim of language learning – molding a personality that is willing and capable of participating in intercultural communication (Гальскова, Гез, 2004).

The educational process can be committed to tolerance development when three conditions are followed: firstly, the content of education is focused on multiculturalism and common interests and problems in the modern world; secondly, classroom management is aimed at applying efficient interactive and reflective technologies; thirdly, students’ tolerance development can be fostered only by a tolerant teacher (Маслова, 2003). As for the educational content in teaching English as a foreign language, quite a few English textbooks published in the Russian Federation contain such themes and situations whereby discussions of the tolerance issue are able to cultivate this quality: “Culture Shock”, “School Bullying”, “Teenage Subcultures”, “Identity” and various others.

Realising a great significance of tolerance as a value, the English teacher of Pskov Humanities-Oriented Lyceum, Elena Klenevskaya annually conducts a series of lessons within the topic “School Bullying” before and during Tolerance Day, which is marked on November 16, when the Declaration of Tolerance
Principles was signed in 1995. These lessons are aimed at developing the students’ tolerance and are of great importance for personality molding. Moreover, experimental teaching has proved that the speech stimulating content and interactive teaching methods lead to the effective results both in terms of the pedagogical aspect of teaching objectives and in pragmatic and cognitive ones.

The key issue of one of the lessons is an animated cartoon by Harry Bardin “The Adagio” with Albioni’s music. The preview, with the objectives to motivate students to watch the film and to set a communicative task before watching starts with introducing new vocabulary items. These words and phrases will be used by the students before and after viewing but not while watching the film, because there is no single word in the film and the action is only backed up by the miraculous, full of different emotions Albioni’s music. During the preview students try to guess the story line of the film using the introduced words, which develops their vocabulary and speaking skills and motivates them to watch the film.

While viewing the film students are concentrated on the plot in order to be able to retell the events that happened to the flock of black birds and one white bird and comprehend the main idea of the film after watching it. After the film students briefly describe the plot in pairs or in mini-groups, then answer reflective questions that help them deeply comprehend the film deeply: who can be called a leader, why the Bird is not accepted as a leader, why other birds start to despise and slight him, why they want to make him look alike, plus others. All these questions bring students to interpreting the main idea of the film and discussing the role of music in it. After the discussion students participate in making up and acting out dialogues and conversations that could be present in the film using the active vocabulary of the lesson. As a home assignment students are asked to write a reflective composition on the film describing its events and interpreting the message.

The film’s strong emotional impact creates a special atmosphere in the classroom whereby nobody is left indifferent and all the students are involved in discussion. Watching such films in the group favours the emotional outcomes, as one cannot but feel willing to discuss what was seen with partners. This way the emotions of one person are multiplied by the emotions of others producing a synergetic effect in the classroom and reinforcing the upbringing potential of the film.

In terms of developing foreign language communicative competence the film is ultimately efficient, although we understand that such works are not to be analysed from the point of pragmatism. Nevertheless, focusing on raising
students’ motivation we should notice that such lessons are in fact communication-oriented. The strong emotional effect of the film, and communicative approach to arranging classroom activities, get students to submerge in the topic so deeply that the foreign language is regarded not as a target but as a real means of communication, and the linguistic material is acquired mostly subconsciously. Thus, we can conclude that the film plays a significant role for stimulating students’ speech activity. Some doubts that were caused by the absence of linguistic material in the film disappeared due to achieved outcomes. Undoubtedly such lessons demand time-consuming preparatory work on the part of the teacher, but all the efforts are justified by the results.

Analysing the outcomes we can assure that students’ speech activity is effectively being developed not only in the process of just viewing films that contain verbal elements – target language linguistic material. Numerous videos evoke students’ active involvement due to emotions aroused by it. As an additional case we consider it worthy to mention an excerpt from the cartoon “Ice Age”. The animals come to the cave and see the inscriptions and pictures that are related to the Mammoth’s life. They see all the tragic events he had to overcome and although they do not comment on their feelings these feelings are quite clear and can be sounded by the students who also experience the same while watching the excerpt. Thus, one more important function of video materials is sparking students’ creativity by encouraging interpretation and provoking thought.

The proven efficiency of videos that do not contain linguistic material brought it home to us to offer students a video excerpt in the Russian language. This excerpt also addresses the issue of tolerance and possesses a high personality development potential. This fact was crucial in making a decision to show it to students, although its instructive effect previously seemed doubtful.

Thus, the series of three lessons on the topic “Stereotypes. Assumptions. Diversity. Tolerance” was centred on the Russian animated cartoon “Must the Hedgehog Be Spiny?” The preview starts with a discussion on what a “stereotype” is. Students answer the question what it means and what stereotypes can lead to. After the discussion students do the exercise where they are asked to match the animals (fox, wolf, owl, ant, hedgehog, hare and others) with the adjectives that can characterize them (wise, sly, cowardly, spiny, hardworking, mean and others). Despite the fact that during the preview discussion students are sure to demolish the adherence to stereotypes and emphasize the necessity to eradicate them, matching proves that students’ images of animals are strictly stereotyped as they were formed through Russian folklore acquisition.
Having confirmed that stereotypes are deeply rooted in their minds, using a spider gram students choose lexical items that can be referred to the hedgehog and characterise its behaviour and outlook. On the basis of the chosen words students give a definition for the hedgehog, taking into consideration the order of the adjectives in the English sentence. As a result students get an utterance that wholly coincides with the definition given in the monolingual dictionary. The work with the dictionary precedes introducing new vocabulary that is essential for further tasks. Students acquire the lexical items and do some follow-up activities.

Before viewing, students are instructed to watch the film and think over its main idea. The first lesson usually ends at this stage, and after it the students share their ideas and they can be asked to express their thoughts in written form, and to match the words that they got acquainted during the lesson, and with the plot making up sentences on the film content as a home assignment.

The main body of the next lesson is aimed at a second viewing. The teacher divides the film into 4 episodes and entitles each episode with the main idea it conveys. The students are offered a table with empty squares which they are to fill in with the lexical items that correspond to every episode according to the plot (the column “What is the episode about?”) and according to the phrases necessary for translating while the film is dubbed (the column “Words and phrases for acting out”). To do the task successfully the teacher offers grouped lists of the relevant lexical items on eight cards: four cards for the plot and four cards for acting out (the number of the cards is determined by the number of the episodes). Students are to define the episode each card refers to and to fill them in the table. After the task is finished correctly students briefly retell the plot of each episode, which appears a reproductive speech activity, with the table as a resource.

The next step in post-viewing follow-up is film-dubbing. This assignment can be done in different forms of interaction: in groups and pairs; it can be performed as half-sound viewing with lagging behind translation of the characters’ phrases into English or silent viewing with full translation and commenting on what is on the screen. These two tasks can be performed consecutively and between them a discussion can be organised. The teacher offers to discuss sayings and proverbs that can illustrate the message of the film. For example, students comment on the phrase “Harmony is diversity”. The cartoon ends up with a song that is sung by all the characters. As a home assignment the teacher asks students to translate the song and to give a written comment on one of
the sayings discussed at the lesson. Summing everything up, in the next lesson students present their variants of the translated song, share their own situations which are similar to the discussed one, and finally perform the complete variant of dubbing. All the activities in preview, while-viewing and follow-up are communication-oriented, and are aimed at speech skills development. Again the language is not the goal but the means of achieving communicative goals, and the final task, film-dubbing, can be regarded as a project activity with the objective to cultivate tolerance of the students.

The observed outcomes made us think that the content, which fostered tolerance development, affected the students’ motivation for language learning. Besides, using a native language did not hinder but stimulated a target language acquisition. The reason for it is, to our mind, the idea that such organisation of linguistic material develops a bilingual mechanism, which is crucial for foreign language learning (Миньяр-Белоручев, 1991). Such activities as presenting new vocabulary with an account of their paradigmatic links, working at speech technique (tongue twisters in the foreign and native languages, choosing adequate collocations, expanding sentences etc.), translating phrases from a native to a foreign language for collocating lexical items, half-sound viewing with lagging behind translation of the characters’ phrases, silent viewing with commentaries in the target language, film-dubbing, and others enhance association links of foreign and native lexical items. These form the skill of switching from one language into the other. Series of activities aim at minimising the interference effect of the Russian language, and consequently foster coordinative bilingualism, with the double concept base of a native and the foreign languages. In such activities students’ speech mechanisms are rearranged for interaction and simultaneous usage, which is crucial for achieving educational objectives.

Thus, we consider that using video in the native language for teaching EFL, due to the worked out procedure of presenting, practicing and producing linguistic material, it is not only possible but in some situations advisable as it performs one more function – developing a bilingual switch mechanism. This function is fulfilled by the following conditions: firstly, the topic in focus is an acute and burning issue for students; secondly, the teacher possesses a high level of professional competence, which means excellent foreign language skills that guarantee the adequate choice of authentic linguistic material, and the competence in teaching methods that enables them to combine instructing and upbringing in education.
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The aim of the present article is to introduce briefly the guiding principles for designing a course of Business English for secondary school students (forms 10-12) and, more narrowly, to present some activities and assignments that contribute to development of students’ general knowledge and practical skills whilst also improving learners’ language skills and multicultural awareness. At the centre of this article there are personal experiences and practical strategies acquired in the course of teaching Business English to secondary school students. Thus, the paper does not attempt to provide a theoretical basis for teaching Business English but rather aims to share the personal teaching experience, suggesting some ideas and tips to practicing teachers. It should be noted that the present article might be of interest not only to the teachers of Business English but also to those, who would like to contribute to development of their students’ professional and multicultural skills while still teaching a general course of English. For this reason the activities selected for closer consideration are the ones that, in a slightly modified form, can be easily used within the course of general English.

Business English at Tartu Secondary School of Business
At Tartu Secondary School of Business (Tartu Kommertsgümnaasium) Business English is an elective course taught for three years, to forms 10-12, and, all in all, there are five 35-hour courses (TKoG öppekava 2008). Despite its name, the course does not only narrowly focus on business-related topics (e.g. management, entrepreneurship, marketing, advertising etc.) but also deals with numerous general issues, such as environment, global problems, the EU, current events etc. The main aim of the course is to assist students in mastering English at the level necessary for professional communication, but it is also important that students are aware of the norms and traditions of other countries and that they respect them and follow when necessary.

Taking into account the national and school’s curricula as well as the future needs of students, within the course of Business English our teachers have decided
to focus both on the language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking) and vocabulary as well as on development of students’ general knowledge and practical skills for life. Thus, the following aspects are at the centre of the course:

- oral communication skills (face to face, over the telephone; cultural differences in norms);
- making travelling arrangements and language for travelling;
- letter writing (formal and semi-formal);
- business writing (letters, minutes, reports, business plan);
- finding and working with information in English, assessing the credibility of sources;
- organising and conducting meetings and conferences;
- making a presentation;
- representing a company (e.g. at a trade fair);
- analysing advertisements and advertising one’s own company;
- multicultural awareness and tolerance (similarities and differences between cultures).

Most of the above-mentioned skills are also necessary in an academic and professional career, not exclusively in business. Moreover, while working on assignments, students are expected to develop learning skills which are mentioned in the school’s curriculum (TKoG öppekava 2008: 11.2), such as an ability to plan and organise individual and group work; to differentiate between a fact, evaluation and interpretation; to create different types of texts, and to use a computer as an effective tool for completing their work.

Within the three years of learning Business English, students use a number of different textbooks, handouts and worksheets provided by the teacher and, what is important, various authentic materials in the form of newspaper and magazine articles, advertisements etc. Some of the authentic texts are provided by the teacher, some are selected by students themselves. It has been seen over years that students like to feel independent and choose for themselves the texts that seem interesting to them. The task of the teacher is to provide a list of quality sources, from which students should choose the suitable text (e.g. possible sources for home reading at Zagura 2010a).

The major assignments that students are supposed to complete over the three years, with the help of all the abovementioned materials and teacher’s guidance, are the following:

- applying for a job (application form, CV, job interview);
business letters;
organising a conference, composing a schedule;
report about an English-speaking country (written, plus oral presentation) in form 10;
report about an existing company (written, plus oral presentation) in form 11;
Business plan (written, plus oral presentation; business card, advertisement for the company) in form 12;
home reading (class presentation).

These assignments have been chosen because they seem to contribute to the acquisition of the knowledge and skills listed among the aims of the course. The present article focuses on two types of assignments — a business plan (report) and home reading. These two are discussed in more detail, because, in a slightly modified form they can be easily used within the course of general English when teaching research paper writing and giving presentations. Moreover, these are relatively extensive projects that require much effort from students and I would like to suggest some strategies that would increase students’ motivation and would help them learn as much as possible when completing these assignments.

Business Plan
A business plan is a piece of writing where students are expected to provide a brief description of a company they would like to establish and their plans for initial running of this company. The business plan assigned to the school students is certainly considerably shorter than that which the actual business plan usually is, but nevertheless it contains all the sections that are usually expected to be there. The students are provided with a detailed description of the piece of writing expected from them (see Zagura, 2010b) and, most importantly, additionally it is also discussed what they can learn from this assignment and why it is useful for them to complete it. The main benefits of having gone through the process of writing a business plan, according to students, are the following:

• learning to find and assess sources of information;
• reading in English for finding the necessary information, selecting the relevant information;
• interpreting and analysing information;
• organising information, writing an academic/formal text;
• learning to quote, paraphrase and summarise correctly;
• acquiring relevant vocabulary, practice in using formal style while writing in English
- applying the knowledge received within other courses, like geography and economics
- developing oral presentation skills.

It can thus be seen that, although the assignment itself is closely related to the field of business, having completed it students develop numerous skills that will be essential in their further professional career, even if they will not be dealing with business. Moreover, as with planning their imaginary business students are encouraged to cooperate with similar companies from other countries, and, in the course of research, they also learn something new about other countries and cultures.

A business plan is quite a long paper as it is supposed to be up to 9 pages long. However, students are gradually prepared to writing such a project already in forms 10 and 11, as in form 10 they are asked to write a report about some English-speaking country and in form 11 a report about an already-existing company. As a result, by form 12, the students already know how to look for relevant information, select the suitable texts and refer to the sources, organise work on a longer project, use the correct format and register. However, in order to guarantee that students are certain about what is expected from them in terms of the format, structure and content of the business plan, detailed guidelines and several models are provided to them (see Zagura, 2010b). All these documents are available online, so while working on the business plan students have an opportunity to familiarise themselves with materials in such detail, and at such pace, as it is suitable and necessary for them. Having taken a look at a sample business plans students are more likely to use the appropriate layout, style and language in the business plan of their own.

Another problem in writing a business plan is sometimes the inability to find relevant information. For this reason, a teacher should certainly dedicate some time to discussing with students the options for obtaining necessary information and ways of assessing the reliability of sources. A more serious problem, however, is plagiarism. Students are used to just copying text from the Internet, including neither quotation marks nor references to the sources. They do not even think that this is something illegal and completely unacceptable in academic and professional circles. Again, this is the task of the teacher to explain what the benefits of referring to the sources are. For instance, a large number of references indicates that a student has done extensive research prior to writing and thus the discussion is more likely to be informed, objective and realistic. Furthermore, if there is some mistake or a problematic statement in the quoted
data, it is not the student who will be held responsible for that but the original source. Thus, a teacher should emphasise that references are good and are in no way a sign of the lack of student’s own ideas and knowledge.

One of the most common problems in writing such a long paper as a business plan is certainly students’ failure to meet the deadline. Knowing that much work needs to be done, students, like most of adults, keep postponing the work on the assignment, start far too late and eventually run out of time before having completed the work or complete it, but the quality of the text is far too poor. In relation to this problem it is the task of the teacher to explain that an extensive project can be divided into several smaller stages or parts and thus it will be easier to plan and complete work. For example, to make students start early, they can be asked to suggest their topic early enough and after it has been approved of by the teacher, write an outline of the business plan (see Zagura, 2010c), which would include the preliminary structure of the business plan, a list of the major sources and the rough working schedule. As a result, the students will have to start working on their project (which is always the most difficult thing to do) and having a preliminary outline it will be easier to write the business plan step by step.

The groups of students are very rarely homogeneous and almost always there are “stronger” and “weaker” students. That is why requirements could be flexible in the case of a longer project like a business plan. Students, for instance, can decide which materials they will use when preparing to work on the business plan – there are links to possible basic sources provided and students choose what materials and how much of them they will use. It has proved useful to allow students to work on a business plan in pairs, and not alone if they wish to. To guarantee fairness, the students working in pairs have to produce a slightly longer business plan and the assessment criteria are a bit stricter. Both the students also need to write who has done what when completing the work. As for the oral part, depending on the group, a teacher can decide whether all the students will have to prepare a class presentation, all the students will answer the plan just to the teacher, or all the students will be allowed to decide which option they prefer. In any case, the oral part consists of three stages: first, a student briefly introduces the business plan, then the teacher (in the case of class presentation also other students) asks questions about it and finally, a student is asked to read and translate some extracts from their business plan to the teacher. The latter is done to guarantee that the students understand the terminology they have used in the text.
Such an extensive assignment as composing and presenting a business plan certainly requires much time and effort from students. To guarantee that students are motivated to work, and can learn as much as possible from this assignment, teacher’s support and assistance are vital. To help students understand what they are expected to do the teacher needs to provide detailed guidelines both orally and in writing and be ready to answer the questions the students might have. To make it easier for the students to start, model papers and some possible sources can be provided, as well as extra materials for those interested. Students should know that they can get the teacher’s support and assistance throughout the process of writing. To help students plan their work and finish it on time, deadlines can be set for different stages in writing. Finally, clear assessment criteria should be introduced from the outset and individual feedback on students’ work should be provided at the end. This is certainly a time-consuming task for the teacher, but to be motivated the students should see that not only they are working hard – so does their teacher.

To make it slightly easier for the teacher to provide assessment and feedback, ready-made forms can be used as the basis for assessing the work of every student. When assessing the business plan itself, the following table can be attached to the student’s work (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1.**
A form for assessing a business plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment criteria</th>
<th>Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>/ 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and layout</td>
<td>/ 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of sources</td>
<td>/ 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary and register</td>
<td>/ 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar and spelling</td>
<td>/ 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>/ 15</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mark</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen, the assessment criteria, as well as the maximum points, are already indicated. What the teacher needs to do is write the points the particular work is worth in terms of each criterion. Due to that, the student will know what the strengths and weaknesses of their work are and there will not be feeling that the assessment is subjective. Students also appreciate it if in addition to the points and the mark, there are a couple of sentences commenting the work
For assessing the oral presentation of the business plan, the teacher can also use some sort of a checklist and give a certain mark for each of the listed criteria. In Figure 2 below, for example, the form for assessing a home reading presentation is provided. This form can be slightly shortened and modified to emphasise the criteria important for this particular type of presentation.

**Home Reading**

Reading can be either intensive or extensive. In the case of intensive reading learners read in detail with specific learning aims and tasks in mind, and the texts are often relatively short in this instance. Extensive reading has the primary goal of learners reading for enjoyment and for developing general reading skills. In most cases extensive reading is implied when home reading is discussed, which is natural as the aim of the home reading assignment is to develop students’ habit of reading for pleasure and widening their horizons. In reality, however, some students do not enjoy home reading that much. One of the problems can be the fact that teachers want their students to learn as much as possible from this activity and teachers also need to check whether the students have actually read the text or not. As a result, there is often a focus on vocabulary – students are asked to produce lists of new words from the text they have read, translate these words and learn them by heart. Some teachers do not check the knowledge of the words on the list directly – they just ask to translate some extracts from the text and the student needs to be able to translate those extracts, it is a matter of luck how many new words are there in those extracts. The second, less reasonable strategy, as my experience has shown, is when the teacher takes that list and asks the student to translate some words orally from English into Estonian and vice versa, plus to explain the meaning of some words in English. When the context is not there, students learn the words by rote and remember very few of them the next day after home reading has been answered. There have even been cases in my teaching career when students copied the word lists of other students (written on the basis of a completely different text), learned them by heart and came to answer. The benefit of such kind of learning is highly questionable. It seems more productive and student-friendly to focus on the content and ask students to prepare presentations about the books they have read or to answer some questions about them (orally or in writing).

The home reading assignment used within the course of Business English indeed emphasises the content of the text read, not vocabulary (while students are still expected to know the meanings of the unfamiliar words used in their
text and they should be able to use these words appropriately). As at our school students are, anyway, expected to do home reading within the course of general English, and it has been decided to focus on intensive reading within the home reading done for Business English. This also saves students’ time as their workload is already huge. Thus, the students are asked to choose an approximately 1000 word-long article from a quality newspaper or magazine published in English, read it through and prepare a 5 minute-long class presentation on the basis of it. The article has to be relevant for the course of Business English and the student needs to explain why this information is useful for their group peers.

The presentation needs to have a clear logical structure and contain the following information:

- the source: newspaper/magazine, title of the article, author (if given), date of publication;
- the topic of the article;
- the relevance of the topic/article for the students (i.e. Why (s)he has chosen it?);
- a brief outline of the presentation (i.e. What (s)he is going to say?);
- the main points considered and information/claims of the author given;
- the summary of the opinion expressed by the author/ conclusion(s) drawn;
- student’s own conclusion(s). (Zagura, 2010a)

It is explained to the students that

the content of the presentation is most important: [they] need to present the main points of the article clearly and logically. [Their] personal opinion/ comment should be expressed at the end. Appropriate register should be used, as well as varied and suitable vocabulary. [They should] try to talk loudly enough, so that group peers would hear and follow the presentation. Attention will also be paid to pronunciation and grammar (Zagura, 2010a).

Thus, it can be assumed that, while working on the assignment, the students understand what exactly is expected from them and, in following the guidelines, they will learn how to prepare a good presentation and will avoid the most common mistakes.

After the oral presentation the audience is expected to ask questions about the content of the presentation and the teacher invites the students to relate the event/situation described to the situation in Estonia. If possible, cultural differences are pointed out and their importance discussed.
Home reading, in the form as it is used within the course of Business English, helps students develop a number of skills. While working with the article the students practice skimming (i.e. quickly identifying the main ideas of a text), scanning (i.e. looking for particular information in a text) and summarising. They also learn to distinguish between key points and details, learn to interpret and analyse text as well as express their own opinion on it. Afterwards, they practice presenting a well-structured summary of a certain text in a language appropriate for speech, rather than writing, as well as further develop their oral presentation skills. In terms of language, the students extend vocabulary, practice using a formal style while speaking in English and, in general, get more confidence in using the English language. In addition to that, the students familiarise themselves with the quality of media sources in English, see that they already understand the articles published there, and thus are more likely to consult them in the future. Moreover, students learn more about other countries and cultures and in the course of class discussion reflect on the similarities and differences between those cultures and the Estonian one.

Although it can be seen that home reading has numerous benefits for students, and it is a productive assignment, several problems can be experienced when working on it. First, some students have a negative attitude towards reading, especially towards reading in a foreign language. Because of the lack of experience, they do not know what to read and where to find texts. In relation to oral presentations, they are not familiar with the expected format, structure and content of the oral presentation. Often they just retell the article, not distinguishing between main points and details, having no introduction and conclusion, providing no analysis or interpretation. It is also far too common that “written” language is used for an oral presentation, which sounds unnatural, and is difficult to follow as a result. Even worse, some students just start reading the article out loud. The latter can be a result of another common problem – starting to work on home reading far too late and selecting a random article of no personal interest. However, this is not the worst case some students just do not come to the lesson on the day when their presentation is scheduled. Last but not least, even if a student has prepared the presentation and come to the lesson, (s)he can be frustrated by the lack of interest and attention on the part of other students – the audience.

It is certainly impossible to predict and prevent all the potential problems, but there are several techniques a teacher can use in order to minimise the number of problems and make home reading a pleasant (or at least painless) experience.
for students. To start with, the aims and benefits of the task can be presented, and its relevance to the students discussed. Detailed guidelines can be provided both orally and in writing (for a very simple example of guidelines placed online see Zagura 2010a); they can also be slightly modified according to students’ suggestions, to meet their needs. Specific features of formal presentations can be discussed, useful vocabulary/expressions given and model presentations made available online. Some possible sources of articles (i.e. newspapers and magazines) can be provided as a starting point (see links at Zagura, 2010a), but of course students can be allowed to select sources of their own on condition that these are quality materials and the teacher’s approval is obtained. To support more diligent students, optional extra materials on giving presentations can be provided. What is even more important, all the students should know that they can get teacher’s support and advice throughout the process of working on the assignment, on the condition that they contact the teacher early enough, and not the last evening before the day of the presentation. To make it easier for the students to get the presentation ready on time, deadlines can be set for different stages in completing the assignment; for example, the students can be asked to send the link of the article or show the selected article to the teacher two weeks prior to the day of presentation. To avoid the student’s absence on the day of presentation, the teacher could appeal to his/her sense of responsibility, taking the student as a partner in providing content for a particular lesson. Students can also be more motivated if clear assessment criteria are introduced from the outset and individual feedback on their work is provided after the lesson, when the teacher points out the strengths and weaknesses of the presentations and gives advice for further improvement (see Figure 2 below). It is certainly a challenge to make the rest of the students listen to the presentation attentively and ask questions afterwards. The best solution is probably discussing with them why it is important that they respect their classmate and listen to her or him. However, it is also possible to ask one or some students to write down the questions about this presentation they would like to ask afterwards. One possible outcome is that not only the presenter but some other students have to answer questions about the content of the presentation – this would motivate the students to listen more attentively.

To make the process of assessment easier, more precise and objective, a ready-made form presented in Figure 2 below can be used.
Every teacher can modify this sample form according to the specifics of an assignment and the characteristics (s)he wants to see in the presentations of students. There are numerous assessment criteria listed and five numbers from 1 to 5 given next to each criterion, with “1” being the lowest and “5” the highest mark. While providing oral feedback on the presentation, after the lesson the teacher can draw circles around suitable marks and at the same time justify the choice and give advice to the student.

This form, however, can be used not exclusively for assessment but also for students’ preparation. It can be placed online (see Zagura, 2010d) and students
can use it as a checklist when practicing the presentation. It is possible just to go through the checklist to be aware of the characteristics that are important for the presentation. Students can also record their presentation at home (many mobile phones and computers have a Dictaphone function now) and try to assess it themselves or they can ask their family member or a friend to listen to them practicing and provide feedback with the help of the checklist.

**Conclusion**

The present article has looked at two assignments used within the course of Business English – the business plan and home reading. These two activities have been chosen for discussion because they can be easily modified and, at least partly, also be used within the course of general English: the recommendations made in relation to the business plan can be useful in teaching students to write a research paper and the described system for organising home reading can be of help when teaching students to make oral presentations. These two activities seem to be valuable components of an English course as they help students develop a number of skills necessary in their future academic and professional careers, but these also improve learners’ language skills, broaden their horizons, increase multicultural awareness and support creativity.

In the course of discussion, and in addition to the benefits of these two activities, the potential difficulties/problems and possible solutions to them have been suggested. There are several techniques a teacher can use in order to motivate students, facilitate work in mixed-level groups and minimise the number of problems with completing assignments properly. Some of these techniques are easy, some are more time-consuming, but it is worth trying to apply them. To summarise, the most important tips that have arisen in the course of discussion, it has to be said that the teacher needs to cooperate with students in order to achieve the goals that are clear and desirable for both the parties. It is important to provide clear requirements and guidelines, which are available to students. Suggesting models, possible sources and extra materials for those interested tends to lead to work of better quality and more impressive learning outcomes. Finally, a transparent and fair assessment procedure and individual feedback indicate that the teacher cares and wants the students to benefit from the assignments. If the teacher works hard, the students will be more motivated to work hard too.
REFERENCES


**Summaries**

**Nina Raud, Anna Džalalova, Olga Burdakova (Narva)**  
**Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education: Conference Evidence**

This paper introduces the outcomes of the international scientific conference “Innovative Methods in Multicultural Education” held on May 13 – 15, 2010 in Narva College of the University of Tartu. The conference concentrated on multicultural education and language teaching and continued the tradition of international conferences organised by Narva College (international scientific conferences on multiculturalism and identity issues 2003, 2006 & 2008 and international ELT conferences 2006 & 2008). The aim of the conference was to bring together researchers and practitioners from different countries who are eager to share their researches and experiences in the field of multicultural studies and foreign language teaching and learning. 87 participants from 15 countries joined the conference. The main topics of the conference were multicultural education and support of cultural identity, foreign language teaching and learning, working in multilingual and multicultural schools as well as content and language integrated learning (CLIL). The paper gives an overview of all conference presentations some of which have been turned into articles of the present collection of articles.

**Vera Khotinets (Izhevsk)**

**Development of High School Students’ Polycultural Competency through Project and Research Activities**

In Russia polycultural education is based on cultural values of each personality, each ethnic group and is realized as a dialogue of cultures in education. A three-component model serves as the fundamental for designing the content in Russia's polycultural education system. The core of ethnic education is considered to be an ethnic component that is oriented to study own ethnic
culture. An interethnic component encourages a personality development in Russia’s culture within interethnic cultural and educational environment. A polyethnic component promotes globalization of education that is aiming to acquire human values through the global educational space.

One of the technologies is suggested as an example of the implementation of the polycultural education. The research is aimed to study the development of polycultural competency of high school students from different ethnic backgrounds through project and research work. The polycultural competence was developed through teaching with chunks of special techniques and methods of autonomous learning, such as problem-solving tasks, projects, research activities and group work. They appear to create active learning.

As a result, the elements of polycultural competency were formed and identified through the development of tolerant conscience, positive ethnic identity, system of values, models of intercultural behaviour and intercultural communications: co-operation, co-action, and friendliness in interactions. Furthermore, it was observed that the students demonstrated an extensive reach in educational activity via the willingness to learn more about polycultural world, a desire for personal and social fulfilment, forming a socially responsible behaviour, a wider range of socially significant activities in a certain ethnocultural environment.

Jelena Nõmm (Narva)

Studying Ethnic Stereotypes in the University Classroom

Many university courses which teach intercultural communication are aimed at revealing, discussing and analysing of ethnic stereotypes. In this respect, the courses fulfill a double function. On the one hand, the knowledge of stereotype’s nature, its functions in culture and its influence on group and individual conscience helps the student perceive cultural diversity, understand particularities of his/her own and other cultures and develop skills of analysing his/her own and other people’s mind much better. On the other hand, the studies of cultural typologies and theories of intercultural communication will inevitably lead to the formation of stereotypes in students. The presentation will consider typical activities for studies of ethnic stereotypes to reveal opportunities and dangers they might present for the development of the intercultural competence.
**Galina Maslova (Pskov)**

The Role of Multicultural Education in Teaching Tolerance to Students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages

Educating students of the faculty of foreign languages implies teaching tolerance due to the disciplines they have and the technologies that are used in teaching. The main educational principle in terms of the content is multiculturalism, in the context of which the author has designed an elective course “Social Stratification and the Problems of Inequality”.

The content of the course embraces a wide range of urgent for the modern world issues: global inequality, ethnic and religious problems, age and gender differences and discrimination, problems of race and ethnicity, class differences and personal identification. The content, used teaching techniques (interactive and reflective technologies), the developed principles of study, and the algorithm of activities aimed at developing tolerance foster cultivating of this quality and transforming of tolerance as the value into the behaviour pattern.

The questionnaires conducted before and after teaching the course demonstrated the rise in the participants’ tolerance level. Moreover, after the experimental teaching there are conclusions about its effects on individualising education.

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**Sergei Džalalov (Narva)**

Experience of Educational and Psychological Counselling in the Cross-cultural Environment

This article considers the experience of performing educational and psychological counselling in a multicultural educational environment. The aim of the counselling is to provide pupils with the opportunity to obtain proper education and to help pupils to cope with problems of everyday school life. Certainly, a pedagogical psychologist requires the corresponding professional competency in psychological and pedagogical disciplines to achieve the goals. Moreover, the range of school problems is so wide that a consultant needs certain individual features and flexibility of thinking in order to switch from one problem to another. The paper raises the issue of counselling in a multicultural setting and analyses the particularities of cross-cultural counselling.
Ieva Margeviča, Ėriks Grinbergs (Riga)

Looking for New Ways to Promote the Roma Inclusion in the Vocational Education in Latvia

During the last 10 years Europe has faced a necessity to promote formation of cohesive society that would support and improve quality of life, including quality of skills and employment, social wellbeing and equal opportunities for all.

The purpose of the study is to explore the needs of the Roma regarding vocational education and develop recommendations for the promotion of successful Roma inclusion in the vocational education. One of the problems regarding the inclusion of the Roma in Latvia is the lack of education. Due to poor education and discrimination there is a high level of unemployment within the Roma community. Studies carried out in Latvia show that the Roma that are exposed to intolerance are under a particular risk. Attitude towards them among the majority of population is guided by stereotypes and prejudice. In vocational education, by implementation of an inclusive approach, it is possible to promote not only inclusion of students with special needs, but also youngsters from risk groups, particularly the Roma, in the labour market, and also to create an environment that is focused on every student providing all with an opportunity to achieve success. This way the social exclusion of the youth that are going for vocational education and qualification is reduced.

Currently the emphasis is put on the opportunity for Roma youth to maintain their ethnical identity and culture during the educational process, and on the discovering of innovative approaches in order to promote the Roma inclusion by working in partnership with the Roma community.

Irina Moissejenko, Natalia Zamkovaja, Natalia Tshuikina (Tallinn)

Language Use among Bilingual Students in Different Sociolinguistic Conditions (Russian-Estonian Bilingualism)

The article refers to the research conducted among bilingual students in November-December 2009 in Tallinn, Tartu, and Pärnu. The aim of the interview was to find out the spheres of the Russian language use and to compare them
with Estonian and other languages: in homes, with relatives and friends, in public sector, expressing emotions and for the sources of information, etc. The research shows that the areas of application of the Russian language depend on different aspects; in the public sphere it relies on the region. However, the students are highly motivated for using and supporting Russian.

Ekaterina Protassova (Helsinki)
Russian-Speaking Women Abroad: Prejudices and Achievements

In this article, both the oral and written testimonies of the Russian women who live abroad are analysed. This corpus started by the end of perestroika, when ties to the speakers of Russian who were living abroad could be activated in an official way, and this material continues to be collected till now. For this particular study, certain passages have been selected, concerning how Russian-speaking women refer to socio-cultural and linguistic problems in their life and how they plan to transmit the Russian language to their children. Some generalisations about how Russian-speaking immigrant women justify their attitudes regarding nationality and language were made.

Olga Glushchenko (Pskov)
Optimising Conditions for Motivational Considerations in Developing Socio-Cultural Competence of Students of Non-Language Departments by Means of Audio-Visual Aids

The problem deals with the aspect of developing socio-cultural competence of students of non-language departments with the help of audio-visual aids. Socio-cultural competence is formed through the effective process of incorporating audio-visual aids into the teaching/learning process.

The use of audio-visual aids provides the optimizing of the motivational considerations in foreign language learning. In our research we consider audio-visual aids to be socio-cultural since they develop socio-cultural competence in those mastering a foreign language. Audio-visual aids demonstrate socio-
cultural peculiarities of a foreign country and serve as an effective mechanism of developing motivational competence of the students as well as the mechanism of preventing the exhaustion of the stimulus to learn.

The use of audio-visual aids helps learners to notice the natural way of socialising. The strategies we suggest enable learners to achieve deep analyses of language in use which can help them to note the gaps and to achieve learning readiness.

**Natalia Malkina (St Petersburg)**

_Culture, Identity and Foreign Language Teaching: Voices from the Pre-school Language Learning Environment_

The article discusses the challenges of introducing target language culture into teaching foreign languages to young language learners. The author argues that exclusive and ample presentation of target culture and neglect of home culture in foreign language teaching can lead to misunderstandings, wrong concepts and interpretations not only about the target culture but also about local (home) culture especially in small children. Preschool age is considered extremely important as small children are active explores of the world around them, the way they conceptualize the world is constantly changing and their linguistic, social and cultural identity is developing.

The author’s view is that appropriate methodologies and balanced representation of home culture and target culture elements in preschool foreign teaching can make a difference. This position is explained and illustrated by various examples of children’s talk collected in EFL learning situations. Within the author’s theoretical framework the concept of language learning environment (LLE) is extremely important. It is argued that in EFL situation LLE becomes a place for “the dialogue between cultures” and the interplay between the “self” and “the other” when “language zones” and meaningful communication with the English-speaking puppet are used consistently.

The author describes how the suggested practices (“language zones” and meaningful communication with the English-speaking puppet) are used and how they support cultural awareness and identity development in a preschool child in EFL learning situation.
Olga Orehhova (Narva)
Using Modern Poetry in the Foreign Language Classroom

The article concentrates on various aspects of using literature and poetry in particular in the foreign language classroom. Foreign language teaching seems to have had quite complex relationship with literature: it has been rendered either useful or detrimental to language learning depending on the advocated approach and method of foreign language teaching. Despite the perceived growing support for using literature in language classes, it appears that due to various reasons literature, let alone poetry, still has not found its way into the mainstream language classroom. It may seem that the use of poetry is not really suitable or feasible in foreign language teaching and learning because of its often complex language and profound content matter. However, there are a number of sound reasons why poetry can be quite useful for language learning as it represents a useful resource and content for language learning, which can stimulate students’ learning and prompt different kinds of productive language activities. The use of poetry seems to be as valid as the use of any other kind of material for language study. Contemporary poetry, which is often connected to modern events and realia, touches upon contemporary issues and showcases modern and creative use of language, can prove quite a useful and motivating resource for foreign language learning. The present article brings together and discusses the main theoretical points concerning the use of poetry in the foreign language classroom and provides some practical ideas on how to use modern poetry in the EFL classroom.

Irina Petrova (Kohtla-Järve)
E-course as a Means of Accommodating Learners’ Needs (in English for Specific Purposes)

Learners’ differences and individual needs are widely recognised nowadays. Although students might have been at the same class with the same teacher following the same study programme for a long time, they still have different levels of subject competence; they are interested in studying different aspects; they learn best with different strategies and teaching methodology. Those differences are even more salient and difficult to ignore when it comes to
university education, where students usually take English for Specific Purposes (Academic or Professional) courses. However, traditional teaching practices usually lack the means for accommodating each student’s personal objectives and preferences. The emergence of e-learning represents an excellent opportunity to try and address this issue. The current article starts with clarifying the concept of needs analysis and mentions some problems related with conducting a needs analysis and implementing its results. It then suggests a possible solution in the form of turning to e-resources in order to satisfy learners’ needs.

Olga Burdakova (Narva), Natalya Bogdanova (Moscow)
New Possibilities in Teaching of Aspectual Pairs Formation

As it is known, one of serious difficulties in learning Russian as a foreign language is presented by the grammatical category of aspect. Moreover, if the conditions of use of forms of the Imperfect Aspect (IA) and the Perfect Aspect (PA) are described in the functional grammar as rules for foreign speakers, then the information about formation of the aspectral correlates which is presented in textbooks of Russian as a foreign language does not teach learners the skill of making the IA form of any verb in the Russian language.

The reason for that lies in the irregular character of the formation of the aspectral forms and in the absence of common clear rules of their derivation which have allowed many grammarians to speak about the lexical (rather than grammatical) character of the aspect in the modern Russian language.

Therefore, in the process of learning Russian as a foreign language a foreigner is taught to recognise forms of the IA and the PA in speech by their formal features, rather than to form them independently. The modern practice of studying Russian as a foreign language recommends learning the aspectral forms of one verb by heart (as two lexemes) rather than deriving them in speech according to a certain model. The latest researches (Burdakova 2008) demonstrate that in the modern Russian language there exist rules of derivation of the IA forms that are unperceived by native speakers.

The article is an attempt to optimise discovered (in Burdakova 2008) algorithm of formation of imperfect forms and to provide an adaptable rule-instruction for different stages in learning Russian as a foreign language.
Habil Margarita Georgieva (Shumen)
Creation of Texts by Bilingual Students

This paper interprets the problem of obtaining various text creating techniques which allow bilingual students to realize their communication intention successfully. A teaching system is proposed for preparation, writing and editing of text, related with the basic phases of the speech structure and the specifics of the bilingual situation in Bulgaria. Technological solutions for developing of text in Bulgarian are presented. The focus is not only on work with texts as a communication unit but also on enriching the bilinguals’ vocabulary through systematic lexical work. Lexical work is oriented towards introduction to the possibilities of words to realize the speech-communicative intention of the speaker / writer to express relationships, feelings, etc. An important condition is also to highlight on the tokens containing features associated with the interference between languages which students use.

Creation of student text is traditionally related to mastering of a variety of text-generating techniques for production and reproduction of a text. When working with bilingual students we need: to organize a preliminary (partial) preparation for establishment of the planned text; to provide advisory support and guidance from the teacher in the process of writing and editing text to respond to students’ questions like: What to write / speak about?; What means to choose?; to direct the students to “suggestive” details on the topic of the text; to use additional sources for consulting in the process of creation of texts. Such approach threatens the productive speech to become partially productive but when teaching bilinguals such additional supports are useful.

Elena Klenevskaya, Galina Maslova (Pskov)
Using Video Material as a Tool for Developing Bilingualism When Teaching EFL to Secondary School Students

Multi-functionalism of video materials provides both developing foreign language communicative competence and forming personal students’ attitude to the educational content, which presupposes an important role of video materials in molding personalities.
Emphasising upbringing potential of language learning we try to develop students’ tolerance as the most significant quality for multifaceted international cooperation. Within the series of lessons on the topic “Tolerance” students are asked to view films that do not contain any authentic verbal comment. Nevertheless, the observation confirmed their great value not only as a means of upbringing but as a way to achieve pragmatic and cognitive aspects of teaching goals. Besides, using a native language does not hinder but stimulates a foreign language acquisition because it develops bilingual mechanism, which is crucial for foreign language learning.

Such activities as presenting new vocabulary with an account of their paradigmatic links, translating phrases from a native to a foreign language for collocating lexical items, half-sound viewing with lagging behind translation of the characters’ phrases, silent viewing with commentaries in the target language, film-dubbing, and others foster coordinative bilingualism with a double concept base of a native and a foreign languages.

**Natalja Zagura (Tartu)**

Teaching Business English at a Secondary School

The aim of the paper is to introduce the guiding principles for designing a course of Business English for secondary school students (forms 10-12).

Having briefly outlined the topics and skills that might be relevant for the future academic and professional careers of school graduates, the presentation focuses on a number of activities and assignments that contribute to development of students’ general knowledge and practical skills while also improving learners’ language skills and multicultural awareness. The activities are analysed in terms of the skills which help students develop as well as the difficulties and problems that students often experience while working on these assignments. Furthermore, in relation to these activities recommendations are made on the ways of motivating students, facilitating work in mixed-level groups and minimising the number of problems with completing assignments properly. In the course of discussion, it is also demonstrated how it is possible to use the Internet to organise students’ individual work, thus motivating every student to
learn and develop at their own pace, selecting extra resources of the appropriate level of difficulty.

This paper might be of interest not only to the teachers of Business English but also to those who would like to contribute to development of their students’ professional and multicultural skills while still teaching the general course of English.
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