Culture, Languages, History: Integration and Border-Crossing
Culture, Languages, History: Integration and Border-Crossing
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The present volume is the fifth in the series “Studia humaniora et paedagogica collegii Narovensis“, founded in 2004. We publish here materials from two international scientific conferences «Crossing Borders: History, Dialogue of Languages and Cultures» (May 17–19, 2012) and «Teaching English and Teaching in English» (November 1–2, 2012), which took place in Narva College of the University of Tartu, Estonia.

What makes this issue different from the previous ones is its thematic division into two parts which comprise contributions of the authors who participated in the two conferences correspondingly. The first part (Crossing Borders: Dialogue of Languages and Cultures) consists of articles which are united under three topics: History of Evolvement of Border Regions; Identity Issues of the Population of Border Regions; and Multicultural Education and Practices of Educational Institutions of Border Regions. The second part (Teaching English and Teaching in English) includes articles which discuss problems and issues of content and language integrated learning, teacher education in the multilingual world and English language teaching and learning. This structure of the collection of articles will allow us to reach a wider scientific audience to acquaint it with good practices and interdisciplinary researches on border issues in various areas from the historical, cultural, educational and linguistic perspectives.

The topical issues of the development of border regions and their influence on social, educational and cultural aspects of communities’ life have united in this collection of articles the efforts of researchers from Hungary, Taiwan, Finland, Russia, and Estonia. The collection of articles places a particular focus on ways as to how multilingual and multicultural education supports diversity and identity; it continues Narva College's tradition to publish post-conference collections of articles, by which it brings together researchers and practitioners from different countries who are eager to share their researches and experiences in the field of English language studies, foreign language teaching and learning, content language and integrated learning and interdisciplinary researches into border region studies.
We are assisted in the publication of the series «Studia humaniora et paedagogica collegii Narovensis» by the international editorial board consisting of prominent scholars from Russia, the UK, Finland and Estonia. The publication of the present volume was accomplished with the help of an editorial advisory board formed by scholars and researchers from Estonia, the UK and Finland who specialize in the issues of the development of border regions and multilingual and multicultural education. All the articles published in this collection have undergone pre-publication (anonymous) reviewing.

By expressing our gratitude to all the authors of articles, to the reviewers, to the members of the editorial boards, and everybody who participated in the pre-publishing preparation work we would also like to acknowledge the importance of their contribution to this publication and their cooperation with the editorial board. We hope this publication will invite scholars of different countries to participate in new projects, researches and conferences.

Nina Raud
Olga Burdakova
CROSSING BORDERS:
HISTORY, DIALOGUE OF LANGUAGES
AND CULTURES
History of the Evolvement of Border Regions
Geographical Background to the History of the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa Euroregion

Ágnes Pál1 (Szeged)

Introduction
The sad historical events of the 20th century — together with the resulting fact that the borders of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe were radically redrawn — destroyed those budding new regions, which had evolved by the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries in the Carpathian Basin. These regions-in-the-making were broken up by the Trianon Dictate, later by the communist ambitions for strengthening the new borders; thus it became impossible for the regions in question to develop according to geographical logic, that is, in accordance with their natural and human resources.

In the Carpathian Basin 7 out of 11 regions were annexed by other countries; two of them were cut into two by the new borders, and only two — Central Transdanubia and Budapest — remained as intact entities within Hungary’s borders. Thus, the larger part of the southern region of Voivodina, which used to occupy a favourable position along the east-west and north-south axes, became a periphery.

At the end of the 20th century integration processes and cooperation across national borders paved the way for spatial restructuring processes. These changes created new opportunities for economic and social (infrastructural) development to make a considerable advance along the tetrahedron of natural, social, economic and infrastructural components of the Carpathian Basin. The Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza Euroregion came into being as a result of these processes in 1997, and it was soon to become the centre of academic research (see Map 1).

1 Dr. Habil. Ágnes Pál, college professor, university private professor. University of Szeged, Gyula Juhász Faculty of Education.
The research into the formation and the asymmetries of borders and border zones had always been an element in regional research. But today, the research into border zones is of primary significance [Pál], because — by generating formerly unknown problems — borders can interrupt regional development. Living in a border zone and socially, economically and culturally being on the periphery are not always synchronous, because border zones can have different spatial types.

Border zone existences had and still have different effects on the individual settlements and the various social groups of inhabitants. At the same time, it is also true, that territorial development is of uneven nature; as a result, areas representing different stages of development may come into being under the influence of various factors. General differences can be detected in the relationships between the individual settlements, in the differences of their productive activities, the dynamics of development and the formation of depression areas. In practical research relativity and environmental differences also play a role and they should be considered.
The word 'Euroregion' is a relatively new term, which was first used at the end of the 20th century in the specialist literature of spatial research. Primarily the cooperation of those administrative units (provinces, counties) of neighbouring countries which were separated by national borders was meant by the term. The term itself goes back to the Latin word 'regio,' which has been used by scientists since the 19th century, denoting an area, a sector, a zone, a province, which is part of a larger whole. 'Most often these words are interchangeable in everyday language, and in specialist terminology as well, although their hierarchical relations, as well as the minor differences in their meanings are more precisely defined by the individual sub disciplines, that use them [Győri 2007].

Research into spatial structures, using mathematical and physical modelling, revealed that regional spaces are organised into complex systems by relations between settlements. The regions represent complex structures, which can be characterised by a specific inner content (Industrial, agricultural and cultural regions). Their specific coherence cannot be explained with general rules; these relations are characterised by the dialectics of the unique, the particular and the general factors. The region represents the unity of interdependent settlements, which are connected by an optimum of spatial and temporal proximity, and can also be described by the intensity of their cooperation at economic and cultural levels. In other words, a region is the system of relationships between the centre and its zone of attraction. Regional centres attract several larger areas within a country, while a country comprises several regions which cooperate on a permanent basis [Tóth]. The system of administrative units (administrative regions), which are often created from the top along the interests of political powers, frequently conflict with the organically developing functional regions, which are created spontaneously from below.

Act XXI of 1996 on Regional Development and Regional Planning defines the region as a summarizing description of various social, economic and environmental units of an area, covering one or more counties and serving developmental and statistical purposes. In addition, it can be interpreted as a level between country and settlement (regional) level; the region can be an administrative, a non-administrative, a developmental or a statistical unit.

The remarkably underdeveloped border zone settlements, their peripheric characteristics, the dissolution of their former network of relations, the possibilities for new developments and the good examples for cooperation within the European Union necessitated the renewal of research into regional development. This kind of research is target-oriented and society-centred. Its main goal is to offer a complex analysis of geographical processes, the assessment of the quality of envi-
ronmental factors and the investigation of the complexity of spatial and temporal relationships between man and society, as well as between man and the environment. A requirement of regional investigations is to follow spatial organizations. Researchers must not disregard the fact that social phenomena correlate with their own environmental systems. Regional research cannot be limited to the analysis of effects; instead, researchers investigate from the perspective of the already existing regions and thus they offer an overview of the system of interrelations between social, economic, infrastructural and natural spheres [Pál, Nagy, Győri].

1. Antecedents of the Development of Cooperation within the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza Euroregion
In the western countries it was realized as early as the 1960s and 70s that there were many unexploited opportunities concerning the cooperation between border zone regions. At the end of the century the break-up of the communist world order in Central Europe resulted in a 'softening' of the national borders, which used to separate and isolate the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

As a result, in the mid-90s in the southern Great Plain, the largest region of the Carpathian Basin, in the geographical unit of the Bácska, Bánság and Békés-Csanád loess plain, agreements for regional cooperation were signed. It was a new development, initiated by the three cities of Szeged (Hungary), Timișoara (Romania) and Novi Sad (Serbia). The restoration of the social and economic functions of the formerly coherent geographical space ran parallel with the effort of European politics, by which the ethnically diverse regions with similar historical, cultural and economic features should make a move toward cooperation in order to utilize their resources in an optimal way.

It was also at this time that research into border zone areas, especially along Hungary’s borders, was renewed (see Map 2).

2. The Recent Features of the Cooperation within the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza Euroregion in Geographical and Historical Context
The agreement, which targeted the strengthening of economic cooperation between Szeged, Timișoara and Novi Sad, the three largest cities of the region, was issued in December, 1995. It was this document that the official formation of the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza Euroregion, covering an area of 72,000 sq. km
and with a population of 5 million inhabitants, was based on. Timis (Romania) is
the largest, while Csongrád (Hungary) is the smallest of the region’s counties.

The autonomous province of Voivodina (Serbia) consists of 7 districts. Jász-
Nagykun-Szolnok County (Hungary) left the regional organization in 2004. Due
to its geographical location the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza Euroregion occupies
a strategic position concerning the access to European, Asian and Middle-
Eastern markets [Gábrity Molnár].

The natural resources of the region include its climate, fertile soil, rivers, lakes
and minerals (hydrocarbons). Morphologically it is diverse with its sandy, alluvial
and loess plains as well as its marshlands. It was the Danube and the Tisza rivers
and their tributaries (Kris and Mures) that primarily shaped the landscape.

Following flood barrier constructions in the area, the landscape became
more homogeneous. Climatic conditions as well as the quality of soil have pro-
vided excellent conditions for agricultural work. The region is rich in minerals,
crude oil, natural gas, thermal water and building material.
Geographical conditions of the area made it suitable for the emergence of nucleated and sporadic settlements. Its most densely populated towns are asymmetrically located on both sides of the country’s border; historically they were situated at river crossings.

Due to the unbalanced demographical features, the aging of the population became a typical feature of border zones over the last few decades. In 2000, as well as in 2009 the province of Voivodina was the most populous region, while it was the County of Karas-Severin that featured the lowest population figures (see Map 3).

Migration took place in the direction of towns. In the 1990s migrants from Yugoslavia and Romania most often settled down in Hungary’s border zone villages and towns. After the Southern Slav crisis the Serbian population of Voivodina increased, due to the fact that the Serbs moved away from other areas, which were under Muslim or Croatian authority.
This is why, in Voivodina, the composition of local communities, their demographic and social characteristics changed radically in that period. On the Romanian border ethnic assimilation had virtually ended by that time.

In comparison with figures from 1992 the number of the economically active decreased on the Hungarian side of the border, while it increased on the Romanian and stagnated on the Serbian side. Employment structure underwent a major change concerning the economically active population, and, at the same time, unemployment figures rose. Today the proportion of the unemployed is the highest in Voivodina and the lowest is in Csongrád and Arad Counties (see Map 4).

Concerning the division of work force by economic branches, it can be stated that agriculture is the most traditional employer of the region. It is of special importance in the province of Voivodina and in the counties of the Vest region.
But, the number and the proportion of those who live from agriculture are — owing to the increased need for work force in the service sector — is on the decline. Animal husbandry (cattle, pig, poultry) is one of the traditional branches in the region, but horticulture is also significant (wheat, corn, vegetables, red pepper, onion, herbs and fruits).

Low-efficiency industry has lately become part of the service industry, or it has not survived the changes. The so-called sporadic industry comprises smaller local factories, which are remains of the communist industry of low productivity.

These small factories are either part of heavy industry (oil industry, the production of healthcare equipment and machinery), or light industry (textile manufacturing, tannery, carpet making, hemp processing, feather processing and shoe making) and partly they are related to the food industry. (Sugar manufacturing, milling industry and manufacturing tinned food).
Within the tertiary sector economic services play an outstanding role. Enterprises in general were first attracted by the counties of the Hungarian region, especially in the area of agriculture and trade, to a lesser extent in the area of industry. Foreign entrepreneurs and investors appeared in the region’s towns as early as the last years of the communist era. The proportion of foreign capital is generally low, but in Szeged, for example, the number of enterprises, founded by Yugoslav Hungarians is outstandingly high [Szónoky]. The number of investors may be further increased by macro-economic stability, the simplification of the legal regulation of investments and the liberalization of the foundation and operation of businesses [Pál, Takács].

The infrastructure in the various settlements of the region represents different stages of development. More recently, progress has been detected in the tertiary sector, but further development in transport is inevitable, in view of the priority of the Pan-European road network.
In the period of the fall of communism the Yugoslav-Hungarian relations in the areas of trade and tourism developed fast, but, they were destroyed by the outbreak of the Southern Slav war. The emergence of a new system of relations might assist the survival and the development of settlements in the border zone. But, concerning the establishment of new contacts, those settlements suffer drawbacks, which are not border crossing points. The two larger towns of the region, Szeged and Subotica, have been able to turn their border zone location to their advantage.

Tourism is the most influential economic branch these days, which also has outstanding social and cultural impacts as well. National parks, which are protected area, play a significant role in tourism. The number of guests is well-balanced in Hungary’s counties, it is high in Voivodina and it is proportionately low in the Romanian counties of Caras-Severin and Hunedoara. These facts can be related to the quality of accommodation, road conditions and the level of services in the given area. Health and spa tourism, conference and cultural
heritage tourism — including visits to castles, mansions and memorial places — represent new potentials in the tourism of the region (see Map 7).

Considering GDP per capita figures, which are able to express economic development in a very complex way, the County of Timis is the strongest and the province of Voivodina is the weakest chain in the region in an economic sense. The counties of the Hungarian Great Plain are better-balanced in an economic sense, than the counties on the Romanian side of the border.

In the Hungarian Great Plain and in the Romanian Vest region the GDP per capita is about 6,700 euros; with this figure the Hungarian region is the fifth in Hungary. The Romanian Vest occupies the second place in Romania. In Europe the Vest region is the 250th and the Southern Hungarian region is the 251st, considering their GDP [Végh, Belea].

The establishment of long-term cooperation is one of the long-range goals within the region. But human relationships are impossible to establish without proper communication and the appropriate exchange of goods. Beyond Hungary’s borders there are mixed-ethnicity areas, where bilingualism is a common feature.

Members of the Hungarian minority usually speak the official language of their new countries with the aim of social integration, while the Romanians and the Serbs tend to learn Hungarian for economic reasons [Dénes].

3. Szeged: A Big City in the Centre of an Emerging Region

The change of the political system brought to the surface the weaknesses of local economies, and, at the same time, it gave an impetus to post-industrial development. Only a few large companies survived the dissolution and the liquidation of communist industry. The number of industrial workers decreased nearly by 50 % within a decade. The size, the capital, together with the shrinking business relationships of successor companies, which were brought about on the ruins of industrial and building companies of the past, as well as the general economic recession of the era held development significantly back. The weakening of Szeged’s position is well illustrated by the fact that the growth rate and the productivity of its region, the Southern Great Plain was the lowest in the country between 1996 and 2000, and it was also far behind the EU average.

Considering the above, the rationalistic exploitation of comparative advantages should be of primary significance in the future. It can be assumed that in Szeged’s system of regional functions it is not the usual role, that is, the role as the centre of the Southern Great Plain region will come back, but another role
will become dominant, one, which is related to a system of relations existing and functioning between the cities of Szeged-Békéscsaba-Arad-Timişoara-Novisad. This way Szeged will on the one hand play a special role nationally and internationally on the other. Szeged has excellent transport possibilities, which can lead to the broadening of the city’s trade and logistical functions.

First it was the multinational companies that contributed to Szeged’s regional functions across the borders. Shopping centres, specialised department stores, markets with their abundance of goods made the city a virtual oasis for international trade. Although, it is thought, that returning to Szeged’s traditional role as a market town would be more effective from the point of view of economy [Krajkó]. Several new internationally delivered services, in the area of finances and the launching of new businesses, all point toward the fact that Szeged has already started to function as the natural centre of the entire South. The M5 Motorway has already reached the Serbian border and this fact has contributed to Szeged’s chances of becoming a regional logistics centre, although the stabilization on the Balkans would be an important factor, too, in this respect.

The motorway in itself is not enough for Szeged to regain its former function as the regional centre; other infrastructural developments are also needed, including the modernization of the east-west railway, the opening of double-track main railway lines, the modernization of the Budapest-Timișoara railway, the construction of bridges and the modernization of the local airport. The improvement in ways of transport would greatly contribute to the potential inherent in tourism. Szeged’s appeal, its internationally famous cultural events, its health care institutions, its water sports, thermal water, its possibilities for green and rural tourism in the town’s vicinity and its proximity to the country’s borders can all be of special attraction for potential investors.

Szeged’s educational and cultural institutions are favoured not only in the Southern Great Plain region, but they are also famous nationally and internationally. One of Szeged’s comparative advantages is its vivid intellectual life, its learned inhabitants and the innovative trends present in all spheres of local life. The University of Szeged is the city’s largest employer, and, at the same time it is the most significant consumer. Research institutes of the university and the Hungarian Academy of Sciences are internationally recognised centres for research, with the institutes of Laser Physics, Biology and Agriculture being the most famous of them. Szeged’s renowned secondary schools represent very high standard and their most talented school leavers enrol prestigious programs of the university every year. Since knowledge-accumulation represents an excep-
tionally high level in Szeged, it could become the basis for a more developed economic incubation. In order to achieve this aim new investments are needed, too. Knowledge-based industrial branches have to be supported by local traditions and background knowledge. In the European Union only those cities can be successful which fulfil special development strategies; which do projects and plans, based on the consensus of all players in the economy, that is, investors, local governments, business leaders, knowledge transfer institutions and development agencies. Unfortunately, we are still a long way from a real market economy, from the recognition of, and paying attention to, local politics-free economic interests.

It is also important to note that Szeged’s inhabitants have always been involved with agriculture. Today, when the so-called ‘safe’ food products have an unrestricted market within the European Union, organic farming, based on excellent local conditions and traditions, could be the point for a breakout. Assisted by subsidiary food processing enterprises, small and medium-size businesses could be revived.

The administrative and legal systems, the political culture and the different mentality of the people of the three countries, making up the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa Euroregion, as well as the lack of proper language skills of its inhabitants, make it difficult for the social and economic relationships to unfold. In the region still it is the tendencies, typical of peripheries, that dominate. The borders obstruct the development of poles of growth, and also for the growth of Szeged. The systems of relationships are one-sided; after the fall of communism the asymmetrical features did not disappear, they even deepened. In order to decrease isolation, it would be important to allow the free movement of knowledge, innovation and work force between the countries. The ‘freedom’ of human resources might attract capital to the region.

Szeged received large numbers of immigrants as early as the end of the 20th century. Families, and individuals, belonging to different ethnicities have since formed ethno-cultural communities; the old, traditional and the new relationships could strengthen the cohesion within the region. There is a possibility that openness and tolerance would become the most important feature of Szeged, meaning, that in addition to cherishing the local traditions the city would be able to integrate and efficiently mediate different cultures and intellectual trends.
Conclusions

Despite the fact that there are some positive tendencies, the cooperation concerning the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa Euroregion, having emerged in the area of Hungary’s historical South, can still be characterized by developmental tendencies of the peripheries. The most important obstacle is the incompatibility of competences and the threats posed by the centralised governments of the three countries in question. The asymmetrical features of spatial development occasionally deepened, occasionally disappeared, but if so, these changes had nothing to do with regional cooperation [Gulyás, Nagy]. Despite the negative tendencies there is a possibility for improvement, but it does not lie in the exploitation of ‘hard’ resources (industry and agriculture), but in using the so-called ‘soft’ resources (culture, customs, trade and education).

The neoclassical model of growth theory relates economic growth to the accumulation of capital, the growth of the labour market and an externally defined technological development. Regional growth should be based on investments in innovation. In our economies, at this stage of modernization, human resources play a more significant role than capital, consequently, free movement of labour force would be essential for development. University towns — together with the educational and research areas that surround them — have an enormous advantage in this respect. The growth of intellectual sphere is capable of attracting significant capital to the local economy. Investments in education, especially in higher education, research and development, as well as increased student numbers, can serve as bases for future growth [Győri 2003]. The human capital of the region is suitable for the introduction of knowledge-based economic branches, but it can be done only if local traditions and background knowledge are also considered. The endogenous theory of growth relates growth and development to players in the economy. In this respect infrastructural development is an indispensable factor, and only the efforts of the governments, aided by the outcomes of EU projects can result in the desirable changes.
REFERENCES


The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga Area in 1940–1941 as a Kind of «Frontier»?

Grigory Suzi (Saint-Petersburg)

This article is devoted to the history of the border territories which changed their state allegiance several times over the last century — the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area. The last change happened in 1940s, when these territories were annexed to the USSR. The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area are considered together because of a similar status and fate of these territories under the Soviet authorities. The time frames are restricted, with the period between the Winter War and the Great Patriotic War.

On March 12 of 1940 the Winter War between the Soviet Union and Finland was ended with the Moscow peace treaty. Some southeast and northeast territories of Finland were annexed to the USSR. The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area were the most important, and its annexing can be thought the only positive outcome of the Winter War for the Soviet Union. In July of 1941, at the beginning of the new war, these territories became Finnish once more, Soviet citizens were forced to evacuate into rear, unoccupied regions. The Karelian Isthmus, Northern Ladoga area and some other territories of Karelia were under Finnish control till 1944, when it was finally returned to the USSR with the Moscow armistice.

At first glance, the Soviet history of these territories began after the end of the Winter War in 1940. Although, there was a difference between the hopes and plans of Soviet authorities to convert quickly this region to the part of the Soviet Union and its realization in practice. The wide and hopeful declarations about the progress in its development, within the Soviet Press and at Party meetings, are, in reality, not enough to suppose that territories became truly Soviet. In my view, in 1940–1941, the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area de jure became part of the Soviet Union, but these territories did not become immediately de facto Soviet. The real Soviet period of its history began only in 1944 or even later. Therefore, 1940–1941 can be thought as the first transition period of its Soviet development, which differs from the later time and was
unsuccessful for the USSR. Certainly, it is easy for us to observe the past from the modern time, and to divide the continuous past into the definite stages, when we know about the results of the events. Although, it seems reasonable to mark 1940–1941 as the distinct period and to contrast this time to the later periods of its history.

I will try to present the history of this region in reference to the concept of the frontier which was introduced by one of the most significant American historians, Frederick Jackson Turner. This concept was introduced by him in the 1890s and is known as the Frontier Thesis [Turner]. This scholar attempted to convey his message of the whole American history within this ambiguous and equivocal term. I am aware of the fact that this concept was made for the research of a distinct country and time period, and that now this approach is out-of-date. Notwithstanding, I presume that the Turnerian approach can be relevant for the research if we use it partly and with this proviso.

There is a problem with a clear comprehension of «a frontier», so that Turner did not present the clear definition of this term [Faragher: 33]. Therefore we have to interpret this concept on the assumption of our own comprehension. I agree with the Russian scholars Nadezhda Zamjatina and Alexander Hromih, who think that the main point of the frontier is not only a geographical border, but in the first place it is a “…zone of developing lands with a specific social conditions and relations” [Замятина: 77; Хромых]. In this case the term ‘a frontier’ has a wider meaning than term ‘a border’ or ‘a boundary’. It doesn't mean a line between territories and countries, but a boundary territory with a specific status, population, power, economy which differs from the main territory of country. At the same time an official status of the territory is not fundamentally important — a territory can be associated, but only nominally.

The main goal of using this approach is to demonstrate that in 1940–1941 the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area had some features of a frontier, therefore it cannot be though the “normal” Soviet territories. I am not going to compare directly the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area with the American frontier, but I will attempt to find some evident parallels. There is no comparative method, but less strict and exact “comparative perspective, that is, viewing historical problems in a context broader than their particular social, geographical, and temporal setting” [Sewell: 218].

The features of the frontier are not clear defined by scholars. The most common characteristics are:
1. The boundary, remote location of the territory in relation to “the centre”.
2. The colonial status of the territory de facto, extensive character of the economy developing.
3. Weakness and inefficiency of the central and local governmental authorities.
4. The unstable social structure, heterogeneous population.

Certainly, these features are very common and can be related to many territories. However, it is hard to imagine the primordial territories of the state with such characteristics.

On the other hand, in my view, the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area had to have some points for becoming a Soviet region: stable and powerful Soviet and party institutes, which are supervised by the central authorities; economy based on socialistic principles; it must be populated with Soviet citizens; it must be protected by the Red Army and Navy. Otherwise, it could be thought of as the former Finnish region, which became Soviet only nominally and temporarily, especially in conditions of the Second World War.

The central authorities in Moscow and officials in Karelia were aware of this threat. The converting of the territory to the Soviet area was the immediate task [Куприянов: 107]. The first measures were taken immediately after the end of the Winter War.

This associated territory was divided into 10 districts: Karelia associated 7 districts with towns: Viipuri (Vyborg), Sortavala, Suojarvi, Keksgolm and therefore was converted into the twelfth Union republic of the USSR [Закон: 227–228]. Three districts on the Karelian Isthmus near Leningrad were associated to the Leningrad region. Later I discuss the “new districts” of Karelia more generally.

In April of 1940 the first provisional power institutes were made there. These Temporal Administrations were organized in each district, and had a function of public authorities which consisted of several departments, by analogy with People’s commissariats in “the old districts” of Karelia and other Soviet territories. The Temporal Administration consisted of financial, commercial, transport, department of education and public health etc. These Temporal Administrations were the main institutes of power in “new districts” before December of 1940 when elections to the Soviets of workers deputies — the permanent institute of state power on these territories, occurred. The party committees were organized in each district in the summer of 1940. All the state
and party institutes were staffed with officials from Leningrad and “old districts” of Karelia. People’s commissariats of the USSR were ordered to send workers to the “new districts” [Смирнова: 38]. The structure of authorities on new territories included all necessary institutes by the end of 1940. However, the efficiency of it was very low. New local authorities were weak and sometimes did not keep the situation under control. It happened for many reasons. On the one hand, there was an objective reason — the shortage of suitable and qualified officials for managing. For instance, the head of the Resettlement Department, Stepanov complained that he could not manage and cope with problems in resettlement of newcomers so as the Department needed more workers. On the other hand, there were less evident reasons for failures. Despite the fact that new territories were very important for the authorities of the USSR and Karelia, the shortage of control from Moscow and Petrozavodsk (the capital of Karelia) was observed in all spheres. Different departments and institutes did not carry out their functions and shifted the responsibility for failure onto others. It partly could be explained by them not clear sharing the functions. For instance, some part of the border between the districts of Karelia and Leningrad region on the Karelian Isthmus was not finally drawn, even in July of 1940 [Письмо: 8]. Therefore the responsibilities and spheres of power and control were not shared; it caused lawlessness and disorder. Inspections found numerous violations and abuses. There were severe punishments for it, but punishments were sporadic and could not change the situation.

The task of settlement in the new territories caused even more difficulties. The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area were depopulated after the Winter War. There were approximately 450 thousand Finns in 1939, but all of them were evacuated from the border on the eve of War, throughout the War or immediately after its ending [Килин: 228]. Thus, the Soviet Union had to settle territories anew. There was a plan to reach a pre-war level of population for several years. All concerns about the resettlement were carried out by the Resettlement Department which was set up in 1939 and was a part of the government [Сборник: 14–15]. The resettlement was nominally voluntary but was under State control. Each person who was going to settle in the new territories had to receive permission. The authorities attempted to restrict free access to the boundary zone. According to the plan of resettlement of peasants, by the end of 1941, 40 thousand families of peasants from the Belorussia, Ukraine, many regions of the Russia and even Tatary would live on the new territories [Смирнова: 38]. Although, this amount was initially overrated. The government
did not take into account the spaciousness of “the new districts”. The conservative psychology of the peasants was not taken into account either. Peasants had no desire to leave their native places and resettle to the unknown territories. The government tried to awaken the peasants’ interest in the resettlement with privileges and wide agitation. On the other hand, workers and clerks arrived to the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area from Leningrad more willingly since the salary was higher. As a result there were approximately 200 thousand citizens and peasants by 1941 [Список. Л. 5]. However, this was a maximum achievement, and in 1941 the migration to new areas were decreasing. On the eve of the Great Patriotic War the resettlement was stopped. The leader of Karelian communists, Genady Kuprijanov, remembered later that the solution, to quarter the additional Army division instead of civilians, was made unofficially [Куприянов: 7]. In reality, by the June of 1941, only 18 thousand families of peasants of the planned 40 thousand, lived there. Even the authorities of Karelia admitted that the plan of resettlement was broken. Statistics show that each seventh family of peasants left a kolkhoz and moved to towns, because the situation there was more favourable, or finally went back to home.

Newcomers lived densely in uncomfortable rooms. Sometimes they were in need of essentials so they had to solve problems without assistance, for example to collect the harvest, which was left by Finns without permission, or to sell their things or clothes. Newcomers were in need of adequate conditions for work and life, not only propaganda and promises from the authorities. In 1940–1941 they always feared the return of the former owners, the Finns. It is prevalent in their reminiscences. And nowadays we know that their fears and expectations were not fictional. These feelings had been increasing and reached a maximum at the end of June in 1941 after the beginning of the Great Patriotic War. The situation in the world, which evoked depression and lack of desire to develop strange territories, was a consequence of it. Many of settlers remembered later that they had felt themselves like at a railway station waiting for the departure to home [Граница].

Within the difference between Finnish and Soviet styles of management, economy was the most important obstacle for any development. The Finnish material heritage way of life had to be completely changed and adapted to the Soviet system. Before the Winter War the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area were one of the most developed regions of Finland. According to the report of Finnish minister of Defense Juho Niukkanen Finland lost 1/3 of hydroelectric power plant, 15 % of industry and 10 % of agriculture [Килин: 228]. The
most significant field of industry was the timber industry. There was a pulp and paper factory “Enso”, which was one of the biggest in Europe at that time. For the Soviet Union these territories were very important so as its industry and husbandry could be allowed to solve economic problems in “the old districts” of Karelia. Leningrad needed electricity from new power plants. There were many troubles with the economic recovery which was destroyed during the Winter War. Vyborg, the biggest town in the region and other towns: Sortavala, Keksgolm, Lahdenpohja were damaged because of hostilities. 300 million roubles — the large amount, were assigned from the budget of the USSR for restoring the industry. It is evidence of the importance of the industrial potential of the new territories for the whole USSR. But the financial support was not the only condition for the quick restoring this. Often the qualifications of Soviet engineers and workers were not high enough for working with updated equipment. Some factories started to manufacture partially, but the pre-war level of production was reached nowhere.

The farms and cottages were the basic of husbandry in this region. Perhaps, it was the best option for this country and climate, where hard work and personal interest were needed for agriculture on infertile soils. The Soviet model of agriculture demanded collective work on state land (“kolkhoz”, collective farm). One of weak points of this system was universalism for the whole territory of the USSR. It did not take into account local features; therefore a destruction of any former system, and transformation to the new model of agriculture, took the power but was not successful. The most evident indicator of it was a desire of kolkhoz members to leave the kolkhoz and move to the towns at all opportunities. A habitual style of the husbandry was broken but it did not provide the benefit.

A. Butvilo has casually named Karelia a pseudo-frontier for the Russian and Soviet Emperies because Karelia was a border zone for Russia for several centuries, but there was not the active colonization [Бутвило: 248]. I can agree with this statement in relation to Karelia totally, but not to the Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area in 1940–1941. As I tried to demonstrate, there was an active attempt to convert the former Finnish territories to the Soviet zone with all necessaries attributes: the strong party and Soviet authorities, socialistic economy and society. Although, the real situation and results differed from the initial plans and wishes. Such a great transformation could not be carried out for such a short period in the conditions of the Second World War. And the future proved it in the summer of 1940, when the Finnish Army occupied the
Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area for a relatively short period of time. Therefore 1940–1941 can be thought as the first attempt of sovetization these territories but it was not successful. The first negative experience was taken into account later when these territories were annexed to the USSR finally after the Great Patriotic War. Since 1944 the features of the frontier were becoming less obvious in the course of further sovetization of the region.

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The Soviet-Finnish Forestry Cooperation in the Soviet Near-Border Area and Technology Transfer between 1953–1964

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After the Second World War the Soviet Union achieved great success in physics and cosmic engineering, at the same time having many outdated industries. Although there were huge forest resources, the Soviet forestry was not highly advanced and the State sold raw timber material and had to purchase paper and cardboard abroad. The Soviet industry was incapable of producing the required amount of paper products because there was deficiency of specialists and facilities. Industrial backwardness was recognized by Nikita Khrushchev, who proclaimed an economic modernization in 1956 arguing that it was vital to renew “facilities, improve technologies, mechanize and modernize industries” and put a focus on “significant increasing of forestry production” [XX съезд: Т. 2, 482].

It is well known that Khrushchev proclaimed “a peaceful coexistence” of countries with different political and economic systems as a principle of foreign policy within the Cold War [Внеочередной съезд: 21]. This new concept did not mean that the Soviet Union aimed at friendship with other countries but was directly connected with the modernization policy. “Coexistence” was expected to provide a time gain for industrial improvements and technology modernization, as Khrushchev argued that an economic level implied political superiority [Whelan: 132].

Thus, a temporal peace between us and them seemed necessary for positive changes in the country in order “to overtake and surpass the West” to make machines and facilities that “met the latest technical requirements” [XX съезд: Т. 1, 482]. A term “scientific-technical revolution”, firstly used by Khrushchev, became an official notion in his close associates’ speeches who emphasized coexistence and cooperation between different states. My starting point is, that after the war, the Soviet Union could not develop in isolation and compete with the rapidly developing West without changes. It had to apply for an aid from other countries, and had to cooperate with countries which were more developed economically and technologically.
The main question set in this paper is: was the Soviet Union successful in technology transfer for forestry modernization within the cooperation with the West? How did transfer practically occur and what forms did it take?

One of the key Soviet partners was Finland, which succeeded well in forestry and connected with it branches of economy such as sawmilling, pulp and paper producing. In post-war times it became possible to start a new kind of relations between the two countries because Finns were afraid of possible occupation, and thus chose to behave in a friendly manner in order to be more or less independent [Kuusisto: 37]. During Khrushchev’s period the country took the role of a partner which could provide Western technologies for the Soviet Union. It became “a window to Europe” for the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union expected to “study Finnish industry which would then open huge opportunities to use the latest achievements of both Finnish and American, Canadian and Swedish industries, as Finns have had relations with these countries for a long time” [Истомин: 136].

On August 15, 1955 the Soviet Union and Finland signed an agreement on scientific-technological cooperation. The main purpose of it was to share experience and achievements in industry, agriculture and science. This meant knowledge exchange between the countries, visits of specialists and scientists, discussions and cooperation of institutions. The agreement gave an opportunity for technology transfer into the Soviet forestry.

I am going to focus on a territory which became a centre of the transfer and forestry modernization. That area was annexed by the Soviet Union from Finland after the Soviet-Finnish war of 1941–1944 (which was a part of WWII) and established eventually as Soviet land in 1947. I will study a lower level focusing on individuals, small groups and institutions as those who participated in the cooperation and were using “foreign” technologies in the Soviet forestry.

The area of Karelian Peninsula and Ladoga Karelia was considered especially important for the implementation of technological transfer. Until 1940 it was called “a Finnish Ruhr” as it was highly developed industrial region with about 450 thousands inhabitants. In the end of 1930s more than 200 enterprises produced 10,7 percent of an overall amount of forestry products in Finland, including 1/10 of paper, pulp and cardboard. Among the largest enterprises were an industrial complex in Enso (Russian Svetogorsk) and pulp and paper mill in Johannes (Russian Vysotsk). New factories aided the Soviet industry to recover rapidly, and in 1950 the forestry increased by 73 percent compared with pre-war time [Большакова: 22–24, 85]. For instance, Enso produced
80 thousand tons, a mill in Keksholm gave 100 thousand tons of pulp, Suojärvi, Viipuri, Läskelä, Pitkäranta and Harlu together produced 417 thousand tons of pulp and 119,7 thousand tons of paper a year [Sutton: 186]. Despite this fact in the 1940s–1950s most enterprises were not improved and there were outdated facilities and methods which needed to be modernized. The area was one of the focuses for technology transfer and the Soviet-Finnish cooperation.

The cooperation involved a net of both Soviet and mutual Soviet-Finnish institutions which were newly created. And there were a number of institutions that existed before like enterprises, academic and research institutions. In 1957 the State Committee of new techniques (Gostechnika) was organized to develop and coordinate the Soviet science and technology. Two years later it was succeeded by the State Scientific-Technical Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR, and, finally in 1961 by the State Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the coordination of research. All these institutions had similar functions, being responsible for development of science and technology in the Soviet Union. The organizations had special advisors (in Russian sovetniki) in Soviet consulates who were engineers and technologists [Autio-Sarasmo: 69]. In case of Finland sovetnik Vitaly Solomko who worked until 1960s initiated many events and played a significant role in transfer. The agreement signed in 1955 established a mutual Soviet-Finnish Commission which included six members from each side. The Commission discussed “definite issues related to scientific-technical cooperation” as well as issues connected with exchange of industrial know-how “achievements in science and technology” [Истомин: 136]. In 1958 the Commission decided to introduce academic and industrial institutions into the cooperation [Kaukonen: 25]. The stuff involved in these institutions was mainly represented by engineers like the first heads M. P. Serduikov and N. N. Chistiakov of the Soviet part of the Commission were engineers working in forestry.

All these institutions were involved in planning and coordination of visits of specialists. The main criteria for candidates to Finland were education, expertise and position as well as ideological reliability and a feel of deep responsibility. Candidates had to be capable to “fulfil their tasks” [Резолюция: 43]. An ideological criterion with a lack of specialists was perhaps a reason of that the number of Soviet specialists who travelled to Finland was less that a number of Finns travelled to the Soviet Union (see Table 1). Vast majority of Soviet delegates did not speak Finnish, and only few were able to speak English or German that explained huge expenses needed for translating.
Table 1.
Source: Kaukonen: 27.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Specialists</th>
<th>Days of visit</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Specialists</th>
<th>Days of visit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>1614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>605</td>
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<td>1958</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1956–1968 1072 Soviets within 401 groups travelled to Finland while 1190 Finns within 357 groups travelled to the Soviet Union. The number of Soviet groups was more since groups were less, no more than two specialists, but they stayed in Finland for a longer period. The Soviet Union offered more topics for studying in Finland and it can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2.
Number of topics studied by Soviet specialists in Finland and Finnish specialists in the Soviet Union.
Source: Kaukonen: 27.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of sessions of the Soviet-Finnish Commission</th>
<th>Topics offered by Finns</th>
<th>Topics offered by Soviets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
While officially Finnish specialists came to the Soviet Union to study Soviet technologies, they actually were expected to share their experience with Soviet specialists. Thus, I assume that they transferred Western technologies to the Soviet Union. Although their activities seem to be highly significant, this paper is focused on activities of Soviet specialists who travelled to Finland to bring knowledge to factories of the area. I will present current results of my research.

Until the late 1960s there was neither any special instruction nor program for trips of Soviet forestry specialists. Issues proposed for research, and called “technical assignments”, to some extent were made spontaneously although they were recognized as being of importance. Soviet specialists were interested in visiting Finnish firms and mills, plots, forest roads construction, educational institutions and exhibitions. They made presentations not as frequently as Finns did in the Soviet Union, but were highly interested in private communication with Finnish specialists, often retelling their talks in their reports. Soviet specialist made photos which they used in their reports, were to behave correctly, asked different questions, and took all available materials, in particular advertisements and trade prospects [Отчет: 36]. In general Soviet specialists told that Finns were friendly and open-minded but sometimes they were reluctant to answer questions, hide information or refused to welcome them to some firms or mills. Soviets travelled to many places covering almost all large Finnish enterprises and cities.

Each part of the Soviet-Finnish Commission offered issues for visits, discussed them together with the other side and made a final list of topics then began calling candidates for trips. The procedure of choosing candidates could be both top-down and bottom-up procedures. As a rule the Soviet part of the Commission sent calls into Soviet enterprises and other institutions with information stating that that there was a place within a topic. Sometimes Gostechnika (and similar Committees which were established later) obliged institutions to choose specialists while in other cases enterprises applied for Gostechnika to receive places giving a special explanation of reasons and recommendations for their specialist. Explanations included information about benefits that could be drawn from trips into Finnish institutions and described issues that were to be improved in Soviet enterprises [Баженов: 1]. The main source of information about Finnish forestry was represented by foreign journals and evidence by those specialists who had travelled before. The most expert explanations described well possible ways of implementation of technologies used in Finland which could increase productivity in the Soviet forestry [Дискуссия: 91].
Until October 1963 the application procedures could take a year as applications had to be considered by many institutions. In 1963 it was decided to consider application as soon as possible. In-coordination and disagreement were common for the Soviet net of institutions as they did not have clear responsibilities.

Within one month every Soviet specialist had to prepare a report on a trip, some of which were published in main forestry journals like “Lesnaya promyshlennost” (Forestry) and others. For instance, one of specialists published a report in “Lesnoe Khozyaistvo” (Forest Management) in 1964 where he gave a detailed description of Finnish forests, basing on his own observations and interviews with Finnish workers. The author used statistics but gave no hint on the source of data, and this uncertainty and even unreliability of sources is very typical for reports [Бочарев: 88–93]. I can guess that until the late 1960s there were no definite requirements for reports and the quality of them depended on a program of a trip and to a large extent on a delegate’s scrupulousness. In their reports specialists were to analyse all they saw, make recommendations on what technologies could be useful to implement or what machines could be purchased.

Technologies brought by Soviet specialists were not copies of Western ones as data were received mainly orally via interpreters. Sometimes photos taken during trips told not about techniques but rather gave a culture shock as for instance in a report most of 20 photographs show flower stalls, windows of buildings, gardens and monuments. Only in the late 1960s did visits become more goal-oriented.

Summing up these trips, they evolved from being chaotic in the mid-1950s to a certain organization in the mid-1960s. In 1956 the Presidium of the Soviet Academy of Science issued a resolution which told that Soviet delegates often had no definite tasks, their reports were not discussed, materials they brought were not used [Резолюция: 37]. The resolution had a positive influence as in 1959 the State Scientific-Technical Committee of the Council of Ministers of the USSR obliged institutions to discuss reports, while in the late 1950s implementation of recommendations made in reports were controlled more thoroughly. Thus, Finnish methods of automatisation of pulp cooking in Enso, utilization of liquors in Harlu, new Finnish diffusers in Pitkäranta were introduced [Рекомендации: 103]. Reports by specialists were sent to other enterprises and libraries.
While working in Swedish archive in Sigtuna I came across publications in Swedish newspapers from the early 1960s which told about the apparent success of the Soviet forestry and forest management. The articles showed worries that “in a couple of decades we will have to meet the Soviet Union as a serious competitor” or that Sweden had to expect a strong competition from the East [Sigtunastiftelsen]. These publications made me think over results of technology transfer into the Soviet forestry. It is still unclear for me why the Swedish, being leaders in forestry technologies, were so “scared”. Russian archival materials I studied do not enable me to agree with the Swedish articles but rather make me think that technology transfer failed.

The Western and Finnish technological level was seen by the Soviet leadership, and institutions, as fixed and unchangeable but that could be gained and surpassed in some years. In 1950s–1960s Finland was introducing new facilities, technologies and methods, developed its industries, cooperating with the West. In 1960s Finns purchased more than 70 percent of facilities from Western Germany, Britain, Sweden and the USA, and just one percent from the Soviet Union [Androsova: 41]. Soviets implemented transferred technologies spontaneously. In early 1957 Gostechnika studied new foreign technologies introduced to the Soviet Union. It concluded that Western technologies were not often used [Autio-Sarasmo: 68]. In a report made by the head of the Soviet part of the Soviet-Finnish Commission N. N. Chistiakov it was said that Soviet specialists did not study the Finnish industry properly, there was no thorough control of them and they did not follow their schedules and deadlines for reports, while some members of the Commission were not active. Besides, often new techniques bought in Finland were not used and stayed in warehouses [Дискуссия: 90]. Nevertheless the cooperation was seen as positive in terms of politics.

Summing up, the transfer within forestry cooperation was spontaneous despite of it being organized in different forms and covering many issues. Although some technologies were introduced into the area, incentives to modernize enterprises of the area were not realized.
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Identity Issues of the Population of Border Regions
Galician-Russian Society and the Formation of a Russian Identity in Galicia, 1902–1916

Giovanni Savino (Naples)

Why Galicia? The Eastern part of this region, now comprised in the oblasts of Western Ukraine, today is a traditional stronghold of Ukrainian Nationalism, with outspoken Anti-Russian feelings. But this identity was a product of internal and exogenous conflicts, with other orientations and communities who were present until 1945 in Galicia. The most important case is the Polish community, who had a strong influence here, and majority in some important urban centers like Lwow, a symbol of szlachta cultural hegemony in the Eastern Borderland of Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

But the cultural and social field was divided not only between Poles and Ukrainians. Another identity, which has its roots in Romanticism and Russian Panslavism, was for some aspects contemporary and important for formation of the public sphere in Galician society. The Russophile movement, smaller than Ukrainophile, but present in cities and towns, had the support of Petersburg nationalists circles, and tried to build up a Russian education on the basis of his ties with Panslavist intellectuals from Russia. The aim of this paper is to underline the effects of a “civic Russification” before WWI, and the role of Galician-Russian Society during the tsarist occupation of Galicia. Within it will be discussed ideas and positions of Galician “russophiles”, their cultural ties with Petersburg, and how they developed a conscious national orientation.

When in the autumn of 1902 a handful of academics, priests and journalists (52) founded the Galician-Russian Benevolent Society in St. Petersburg [Отчет 1904: 13], this historical region inside Austrian borders did not attract attention in the Russian press and public opinion. The Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria was a province of Wien since 1772, after four centuries inside the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. Her national and confessional identity was signed by Polish domination on society, and the Eastern Slavic-speaking élite, heritage of the ancient Galician-Rus’ principality, was ‘polonized’ almost at all. The Greek-Catholic Church was build up in 1595 with Union of Brest, under
pressure of Polish authority, as a means to obtain the legitimization and consensus from the population, eradicating Orthodoxy. But it was inside the Greek-Catholic (also known as Uniate) Church that a Ruthenian identity, autonomous from Polish culture, developed it. With the annexation of Galicia by the Austria Habsburg authorities, during the first decades of their rule, they played a key role in promoting a Ruthenian educated class. The Stauropegion Institute was founded by initiative of Joseph II, and was important in the developments of the Ruthenian movement, defending the oriental rite from attempts to latinize ceremonies, and printing in the Church Slavonic alphabet.

As pointed out by Hroch and Anderson, education and folklore had a great role in starting national discourse. It was from a group of students of the Theological Seminary in Lviv, the Ruthenian Triad, who went out the first publication in the local vernacular, Rusalka Dnistrovaya, in 1836, a stone mill in the cultural revival of Ruthenian community. It’s interesting to point out how the members of the Ruthenian Triad, Yakov Holovatsky, Markiyan Shashkevych and Ivan Vahylevich, the most important, at that time, representatives of Galician culture, developed different paths and loyalty for Ruthenian community [Savino: 209].

1848 was a year of revolutions in Europe, but in Galicia Polish attempts to organize an insurrection were stopped with a remarkable political choice by the Governor Franz Stadion. At a personal initiative of the viceroy, on April 18th the emancipation of serfs was decreed, dividing Ruthenian peasants from Polish pany [Василевский: 10–14]. At the same time, the organization of the Ruthenian Supreme Council (Rus’ka Golovna Rada) was alternative to Polish revolutionaries and loyal to Habsburgs. But after the repression of the Hungarian revolution, with the aid of Russian troops and support of Ruthenians for emperor, Austrian authorities played down this national awakening, and with the era of Count Agenor Gołuchowski, governor of Galicia and Lodomeria for three terms (1849–59, 1866–68, 1871–75), the Polish elite conquered all the upper echelons of society in the region. So, from the end of the 1850s an important part of Ruthenian intelligentsia switched on a more consciously pro-Moscow position. Ivan Naumovich, priest, leader of “purification movement” inside the Uniate Church and deputy at the Galician Diet, was one of the most active propagandists of Russophilism. In an article published on “Slovo”, A glimpse into the future, the priest claimed the existence of a one and only Russian people in Galicia and Tsarist Empire, and called for cultural union with other Russians to maintain and develop the Ruthenian culture, with the adoption of the
Standard Russian language [Белиловский: 31]. These positions were enforced by Austrian defeats in 1859 and 1866, and the beginning of Dual Monarchy: concessions made by Wien on behalf of Polish szlachta, with a greater control on land and education, at the expense of Ruthenians. The Ruthenians began to divide about the self-identification issue: if they were Naumovich and Holovatsky (dismissed from the post of rector of Lviv University in 1867, after he moved to Vilno) who waited freedom from Russia [Василевский: 191], another wing claimed the specificity of Ruthenian people, culture and language, and, inspired by Populists ideas and intellectuals who came from Dnieper Ukraine, began to organize cultural and political work, founding Prosvita (1868) and the Shevchenko Society (1873). The Ukrainophiles emerged as a third force between Polish and Russophile élites, growing steadily in the countryside, with a remarkable success in conquest at the end of XIX century the majority of Ruthenian population.

In an attempt to recuperate an influence, Naumovich founded in 1874 the Kachkovsky Society, which aimed to promote reading rooms, libraries, also publishing books and reviews in the Russian language. The Kachkovsky Society was the principal referent of Galician-Russian Society in the cultural battle to promote a Russian identity in the region. The new generation of Russophiles worked in 1890s to counterbalance the Ukrainian success, and emerged as a powerful educational force with the Austrian decision to recognize the vernacular as the standard language for institutional and educational purposes (by 1914 there were 2500 elementary schools, 6 state gymnasia, separate classes for Ukrainian students at 2 Polish gymnasia, 15 private gymnasia, 10 teacher’s colleges and 10 departments at Lviv University). Young Russophiles took over the National Home and the Stauropegion Institute, enforcing ties with Russian conservatives.

Inside Russian conservative academic circles, Anton Budilovich was a key figure. As rector of Dorpat University from 1892 to 1901, he was the promoter of complete Russification, in what became the Yurev athenaeum. A brilliant academician, he wrote more than 100 works on Slavistics Studies: he was also a member of the Slavic Benevolent Society, and after his appointment in the Council of National Education Minister in 1901, was active in Russkoe Sobranie, the first Russian Nationalist organization. The aim of Galician-Russian society was point out at the opening meeting of 9th February 1903, in a quasi-mystical manner: Father Grigori Petrov said, celebrating mass, that love of the Nation is sacred as Christ’s love, and efforts to unite Slavs from Carpathians, Balkans and
Alps is the mission for Russians. After the religious service, Budilovich opened the meeting with a speech on the cultural and ethnic relations of Galicia (Chervonnaya Rus’) and, after other speeches, there were read telegrams and addresses; the most important were a letter by Vladimir Sabler from the Holy Sinod, and an address by Osip Markov, the editor of “Galichanin” [Очет 1904: 5–6].

A significant sector of the clergy and governmental élite was made honorary member of the society, like Konstantin Pobedonostsev or bishops Antonii of Volhynia and Markell (native of Galicia). Ivan Filevich, professor of Russian History at Imperial University of Warsaw and staunch opponent of Ukrainianism, was too an honorary member, and participated at activities of the society. The cultural battle was the principal objective of the Galician-Russian Society, who devolved in his first year of activities 317,65 roubles in books, reliefs and publishing. In this first period, the societies’ activities were confined to help the spread of Galician question in Petersburg, with the blessing of Nicholas II and his court: in a telegram he thanked the Society for his support to the war effort against Japan. This is only a little proof how Tsarist court and reactionaries inside Russian government and institutions viewed the Galician cause as a patriotic duty.

The educational effort started with a contribution to publishing books in Lviv (Lvov for Russians), with an estimate of 1400 copies sold in 1903. Annual quotes from ordinaries members (3 roubles) and donations from honorary members went to fund scholarships and to subsidise the Kachkovsky Society and other organizations. Subsiding Galician Russians was a kind of duty for Petersburg’s Nationalist intelligentsia: they saw the battle against Uniates and Poles as the same they sponsored in Kholm and in the Western Borderlands [Будилович: 46]. Acts like the funding of Russian courses, Russian libraries, and benevolent aid were political. We could describe the process of organizing Russian education in Galicia with Bourdieu’s theory on cultural reproduction. The French sociologist saw in that field how authority can create its power on society and reproduce his values, or, to cite Antonio Gramsci, how to build hegemony. It seems atypical how a tiny group of old Russian academicians could help to develop a Russian identity in Galicia, but this process was tied with governmental circles. Budilovich’s activity inside the National Education Council was to spread Panslavists ideas in academic circles; but his tenure as president of the Galician-Russian Society was aimed to promote the educational model of the Council in Galicia.
Most of the important Russophiles organizations in Galicia, as Lviv’s Society of Russian Dames and Chernivtsi’s Russian Female Society, received subsidies from Budilovich’s group. They acted as a *trait-d-union* to distribute grants to study in the Russian Empire and also recommending to Petersburg which students were eligible. For example, in 1903 Vera Toshchus, a Galician girl who studied in a Kiev *gymnasia*, received a grant to continue her studies, on behalf of her family’s Russophile activism. This is an important point: Galician Russians were at odds with an educational system that gave only instruction in Polish or Ukrainian, and preferred to send their children to German *gymnasia* or to Russia. Education in the Russian Empire was seen as prestigious and a tool to strengthen ties with “Mighty Rus”. A young seminarist, Vasilij Sirotuyk, after his enrolling at the Theological Faculty of Chernivtsi University, asked to continue his studies at the Theological Academy in Kiev. The application was supported not only by *curriculum studiorum* and school and university certificates, but with a letter in which he affirmed his allegiance to the Russian Students’ Union of Carpathians and Bukovina. Another young student, Sviatoslav Diakov, received a grant on behalf of social activities of his father, Nikita Diakov, a Uniate priest supporter of the “purification” movement [Savino: 245–248]. But, with the growth of membership and influence, and the role of the powerful Nationalist Duma deputy Count Vladimir Bobrinskii, grants and economic aid were enhanced and enlarged.

In a memorandum written in 1908, a study for settling Galicians inside Russian regions was set up to answer the closure of US-borders to immigration from Europe. This plan had some successes, with addresses from Galician villagers to obtain emigration to Russia and incentives gave by Tsarist government to some communities, established in Kuban and Novorossiya. Those who wanted to have Russian citizenship or permission to live there, frequently asked the Galician-Russian Society for help and to be intermediate with authorities. A Russian identity and the idea of a united Russian people, stretched “from Carpathians to Kamchatka”, against the Ukrainian idea of an independent State “from Carpathians to Caucasus”, were items of “Prikarpatskaya Rus”, a journal supported by Bobrinskii. Austrian authorities, after a first repressive wave in 1880s, were on alert. They deeply disliked the noisy propaganda of Bobrinskii, who wrote a book where he denounced the oppression of the “Russian people”, and who was invited by local representatives to inaugurate new organizations, as was for the Female Society *Zhizn* in 1909 [Бобринский: 43]. But how successful was the promotion of a Russian identity? Seeing the results of the Austrian
elections in 1907, we could say not so much. Of 22 deputies elected in Galicia, 17 were Ukrainians and only 5 Russians, with a temporary but deep crisis for moskvofilstvo [Бахтурина 2000: 24]. But it was after this defeat that the Russian Embassy in Wien started to support the local Russian National Party, because, as L. P. Urusov (chief of Embassy) pointed out, “the Ukrainian Party had his co-thinkers in our State Duma, with a common program” [Клопова: 98]. But there were some successes, if Austrian rule was more engaged with repression and administrative measures. In 1910, the Galician Educational Council prohibited Russian courses and grants, where “polemical” and “hate” pamphlets and books were available. The promotion of a “Russian (rosyiskij) nation” was seen as “artificial” by Council [Протест: 3].

Count Bobrinskii was active inside and outside Galicia. He worked tirelessly to support Russophilia, and his actions were on different plans. As president of the Galician-Russian Society, he promoted more grants; as Nationalist deputy from Tula, he denounced the “oppression” of Russians under the Polish yoke in Galicia; his cries were published in a letter in “Times” in 1912, where he bitterly attacked the Uniate Church and her metropolitan Sheptytskyi, Austrian rule and Polish hegemony.

Russian occupation of the region started in August 1914 and Austrian defeats in Galicia were accompanied by civilian massacres, the majority of them organized by Hungarians honvedy. The Russian press, excited by patriotic support for the war effort, gave a great space to these reports, sometimes exaggerated. They described Galicia as a liberated country after centuries of oppression, and the war as the beginning of a new era for Russian brethren united under the Tsarist crown [Отчет 1913–1914: 7]. Galician-Russian Society had a prominent position in reorganizing local education and relief. Vladimir Bobrinskii was appointed aid-de-camp in Brusilov’s 8th Army, and his relative Georgii Bobrinski was the Galician general-governor [Бахтурина 2004: 127–128]. If the latter promised religious tolerance to Uniates, and was privately against excesses, the former worked hardly to promote his old associates inside the new Russian administration. In Petersburg Dmitrii Vergun organized relief support for Galicia, with the help of the Women’s circle of society, under Maria Bobrinskii and Vera Vergun. They had an influential role in organizing a net of hospices, curses and recovers for refugees, Vera Vergun travelled from L’vov to Petersburg with a special train of children and young refugees. Refugees were dislocated in Petersburg, Kiev, Odessa, Rostov and in Tver gubernia [Отчет 1914–1915: 56–57]. Galician-Russian Society promoted the integration of youth inside the Imperial
war effort, sending boys to conscription and girls to work on Miloserdie sisters. Bobrinskii’s associates organized courses too, and political agitation with POWs, trying to enlist them in the Russian army, with some success, as reflected from archival documents [Savino: 319–320]. Inside Galicia, Ukrainians schools were closed, and the Russian administration tried to substitute them with its educational form [Отчет 1914–1915: 20]. In villages, Uniate priests escaped or were jailed by the conquerors, and the Orthodox clergy was “imported” from Russia [Отчет 1914–1915: 22], growing diffidence and hate by villagers, as noted by one of the staunchest Russifiers of Galicia, Evlogi, appointed by Nicholas’ will metropolitan [Евлогий: 237–238]. Russian authorities deported Sheptitsky to the Caucasus, and forbade all Ukrainian newspapers and societies. It was the zenith for Russophiles educational institutes: the Kachkovsky Society opened new reading rooms, the Stauropegian Institute was in contact with other universities, and Russian scholars went to L’vov, aiding the promotion of Russian identity and loyalty [Von Hagen: 23]. Peter Struve went there to visit the terra irredenta, and participated to Christmas celebrations organized by Evlogi and Bobrinskii [Отчет 1914–1915: 34]. Maria Lokhvistskaya-Skalon used her experience in organizing courses for women to build up education for refugees inside Galicia and outside, in Petersburg. 112 young people were admitted by request of the Galician-Russian Society to Skalon’s courses, with a prominence for teaching, to prepare a new stratum of Russian Galician-born educators. Formation of administrative staff, belonging to the Kachkovsky Society and the National Party, was also under Bobrinskii control, and developed a large number of conflicts with the Army staff, who saw, in ‘Russification’ measures, a danger to order and stability. In the spring of 1915 critical comments on the Russian administration in Galicia were expressed also within the State Duma, with a vehement speech made by Kerensky against Sheptitsky deportation [Von Hagen: 40]. Outside Russia, Lenin denounced the “Great-Russian shame” in Galicia, seeing in the occupation policy an imperialist crime [Savino: 310].
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1. Background to the Topic
Taiwan, an island covering an area of 35,750 square kilometres, is known as the Republic of China (ROC) and has been governed as a separated territory since 1949. It is separated from the south-eastern coast of the mainland of China or the People’s Republic of China (PRC) by 160 kilometres of the Taiwan Strait, together with several smaller neighbouring islands, such as the Pescadores (Peng-Hu) group of islands off the southeast Taiwan coast, the Jinmen and Mazu island groups a few miles off the mainland, as well as Green island, and Orchid island. Shaped like a tobacco leaf, the subtropical island has a population of about 23,000,000 (as of September 2004 [GIO], see Map 1. for the geographical location of Taiwan).

The population of Taiwan is made up of four main ethnic groups, each of which has its own language [Huang: 21]: the number of speakers of Hakka is about 12% of the population and the number of speakers of the aboriginal languages is about 1.7%, the number of speakers of the Mainlanders is 13%, and the Southern-Min, actually a majority language, is about 73.3%.

Like many colonies in Asia, Taiwan experienced decolonization in the 20th century. It started with the termination of Japanese occupation when Taiwan was returned to the Chinese Nationalist government (namely, KMT party) in 1945, based on the Cairo Declaration of December 1943. On October 25, 1945 Japan transferred the island to China’s ownership. Taiwan officially became a part of the ROC [Cheng: 218–9; Gate; Gold: 49–50].

Seen in this light, at that time, there existed a ruling class of Mainlanders, most of whom could speak some form of Mandarin and a lower class of people comprising Southern Min, Hakka and Austro-Polynesian speakers in the Taiwanese society, and there was no way for these groups to communicate
with each other except through translation. Hence, the sociolinguistic situation of the island at that time can be roughly characterized as “a diglossia without societal bilingualism” [Fishman; Tsao]. The diglossia of the Japanese period was replaced by a new kind of diglossia. Thus, the researcher asserts that in so far as the language problem was concerned, the takeover administration had a great
challenge, the job was highly demanding. Therefore, in a multi-ethnic and multilingual society like Taiwan the linguistic situation was extremely delicate and needed to be handled with care [Gold: 49–50].

Thus, there is the conflict of ethnic consciousness between these two major ethnic groups: the majority “native Taiwanese” or the “non-Mainlanders”, and the minority “Chinese” or the “Mainlanders”. And the clash between the so-called “Chinese consciousness (represented by Chinese nationalism)” and the “Taiwanese consciousness (represented by Taiwanese nationalism)” will play one of the primary roles in this research analysis. To be specific, the politics of national identity will be used as one of the analytical concepts.

Within this context, it was not surprising that the national educational system was highly subjected to KMT government control [Tsao], because language and education have always been regarded as the important pillar in group identity maintenance, and Young et al. [Young] point out that the national language plays an instrumental role in unifying the peoples of Taiwan, especially KMT’s Mandarin-only language movement.

Therefore, in addition to raising the above-mentioned theme—the recognition politics of nationalism / national identity — the tension of identity politics in language education between these two major ethnic groups in Taiwan: the majority “native Taiwanese” or the “non-Mainlanders”, and the minority “Chinese” or the “Mainlanders” is an on-going phenomenon and remains a complex issue and will also be used as an analytical concept in this study.

2. Theoretical Framework: The Interplay among Hegemony, Nationalism / National Identity and Language Education

As mentioned earlier, the central argument of this study, in a case study of post-colonial Taiwan, will be the struggles of the nation-state to construct its nationalism and to control the instrumental role of language identity in education in order to fulfil the policy of homogenisation and assimilation. Therefore, the researcher proposes that theories of nationalism / national identity and language education will be better understood if the concept of hegemony is delineated further, which is another key analytic tool, and its connections with the above two concepts of nationalism and language education is clarified.

The concept of hegemony, taken from Antonio Gramsci and Raymond Williams, is a form of domination built through incorporating and transforming the culture of the subordinated groups and then co-opting it into supporting
existing power relations. This notion implies that culture — in the sense of shared beliefs, values and behaviours — plays a significant role in the formation of social power and that domination can be formed by rearticulating and transforming the culture of the subordinate groups [Gramsci: 12].

Besides, in the words of Haddon:

Constructing a nation is a nostalgic, postmodern endeavour associated with the waning of colonialism. With decolonization, the passing of the old order of colonialism and/or neo-colonialism brought into being new national identities that present varying degrees of the accommodation of difference [Haddon: 103].

Haddon’s argument is further echoed by Fanon’s [Fanon: 170] assertion that postcolonial societies are exemplified by the rediscovery of identity, enabling them to move beyond the misery and humiliation caused by colonization. For those who embrace such a conception of identity, their collective identity comes from a shared history, culture (such as language, religion...), and ancestry and represents a sort of collective essence, or collective “true self,” that provides them with a stable frame of reference and meaning.

At this point, the problems of identity and hegemonic power relation within community organization are significant, because, if the social structures of the past, of the collective memories, are reflected on at a deeper level, the past is formulated as an ideological weapon to differentiate one’s in-group from the other groups and individuals [Hobsbawm: 7–12], and creating a link with the past is therefore a common device and part of the theory of nation building.

Thus, it is very clear that nationalism requires “an impossible homogeneous unity and a singular linear history or master narrative”, and all politics of identity tend toward “exclusionism and a singular homogeneity” and then in turn, some social categories are mobilized into power of resistance [Kedourie: 112].

Such homogeneity presupposes an opposition between exteriority and interiority [Grillo: 29, 37], and national identity is a ‘complicated discourse where materiality, history, ideology and symbology interact in diverse and complex ways’ [Anderson: 31]. To be specific, the creation of homogeneity is crucial to national identity. But in fact in Taiwan, there is the opposite case from the classic situation, that is, there is no homogeneity. The historical complexity in the political change in Taiwan, such as Dutch and Spanish colonization in the seventeenth centuries, Japanese colonization (from 1895 to 1945), Chinese KMT Nationalist’s rule, has produced Taiwanese people’s confusion in national identity.
Furthermore, language is one of the most important markers of differences or “boundaries” between groups [Barth]. Also, language is one of the principal means by which a minority defines itself and marks its identity in contrast to other groups around it [Edwards] and it is difficult for groups / individuals to escape other people’s categorization of them in terms of their linguistic (national) identity.

This view is echoed by Woolard et al.’s [Woolard] arguments that language is testimony of its cultural heritage, and often language is used as a process of assimilation to construct a single cultural identity to fit the new political identity as will be shown later to be the case in Taiwan.

Seen in this light, it is clear that post-colonial countries then inherit the complex mix of ethnicities and a belief in the nation state, and try to resolve the problems of identity by the ideological politics of language education [Romaine]. As Apple [Apple: xiv] points out, this means that language is partly a site of resistance and struggle, but also that for schooling to make a difference it must connect to language education. So, the cultural politics of education devotes much of its attention to matters specifically related to the politics of curriculum and language teaching.

As a consequence, the concept of language identity in education is a useful variable for analysing political change in post-war Taiwan.

3. Method and Design
The researcher agrees with the argument of McCulloch and Richardson [McCulloch, Richardson] that the rise in the growth of qualitative approaches in historical research from the historical and sociological perspectives can provide insight into understanding educational issues, and thus the researcher will work on this historical qualitative approach for understanding the language educational issues in nationalism in the study.

Besides this, two major sources of data were selected to collect information needed to answer the research purposes. They are analysis of historical documentary sources and the first-hand accounts of seven key informants collected during in-depth interviews.

The research interview as a tool for constructing knowledge [Kvale] implied that there is no fixed meaning but a creative interaction between two active parts. The interview is a continuous process of meaning. During the interviews the researcher kept turning back all the time asking questions like: “You said at
the beginning of our talk that ... how does that rhyme with what you are just saying” etc. All interviews were recorded and fully transcribed. After the first occasion the informants were sent “their text” and asked to comment upon and clarify certain issues (respondent validation). The interviews followed a semi-structured interview guide and the researcher tried to cover the various aspects in the interview guide.

4. Findings and Discussion
Here the findings will provide an historical analysis of how the nationalism / national identity is built / is not built through the hegemony of language education ideology, which is further evidenced by the interpretation of the themes analysed from key informants’ interviews, in addition to the evidence from the analysis of the historical primary and secondary sources. In other words, the conclusion is summarized as positive evidence / effect that promote, versus negative evidence / effect that prevent, the identity politics in education of national language and nationalism.

4.1. Positive Evidence / Effect that Promote the Identity Politics in National Language Education and Nationalism
On the part of the KMT government, language education was a highly political agenda after it took over Taiwan from Japan; the findings can be characterized as follows:

- The monolingualism typified the “Sinicisation” ideology of the KMT’s myth, that is, the ability to use the national language of Mandarin was regarded as a primary criterion of Chinese citizenship and patriotism. Therefore, for the KMT period, there is correspondence with the theory of nationalism and nation-state (Analysis of interview with key informant IP 1, IM 5).

- The common claims of nationalism, that it comprises a distinct community with distinctive characteristics and the will to maintain and enhance the linguistic distinctiveness within an autonomous state, have successfully been shown to be the case on the part of the KMT government during the period from 1945 to the early 1980s, when the KMT government has long utilized the KMT’s political ideologies (i.e. officially articulated Chinese nationalism) to legitimise its authoritarian rule. There is cor-
respondence with the theory of nationalism (Analysis of interview with key informant IP 1, Iw 2, IF 3, IM 5, IS 6, IT 7).

- School education, a decisive role in the construction, legitimisation and imposition of an official language, was long employed by the KMT to promote the two primary aspects of assimilating the native Taiwanese, that is, the ability to use Mandarin and identification with China / Chinese nationalism. It attests that the hegemonic strategy of linguistic cultural exclusion was employed by the KMT ruling regime (Analysis of interview with key informant IP 1, Iw 2, IC 4, IM 5).

- Findings from the key informants’ interviews also demonstrate that the sinicisation of Taiwan was achieved at the expense of the status and dignity of Taiwan’s native languages, this is the evidence of theory of hegemony (Analysis of interview with the key informants IC 4 and IM 5).

Therefore, there were lots of step-by-step regulations and approaches on the promotion of Mandarin to achieve the goal of language unity during the period of de-Japanisation, sinicisation and complete Chinese nationalism ideology in Taiwan (1945–1986).

### 4.2 Negative Evidence / Effect that Prevent the Identity Politics in Education of National Language and Nationalism

On the part of the native Taiwanese opposition / nationalists, the second half of the 1980s saw the rapid development of Taiwanese nationalism with a distinct Taiwanese ethnic colour. The findings are:

- The language revivalists’ goal is not only to keep the native Taiwanese languages alive, but also to make them capable of challenging the hegemony of Mandarin Chinese as the officially defined “national language”, the notion of a nation-state is rarely realised in practice and in Taiwan (Analysis of interview with key informant IC 4, IM 5).

- This Taiwanese nationalism was especially characterized by the public use of the Southern-Min language as an important instrument to heighten the major ethnic groups’ sense of Taiwanese identity and to call up their support, and this strategy has certainly alienated the Mainlanders. The narrative of linguistic particularity serves the purpose of demarcating “us” and “them” in the recognition politics of nationalism (Analysis of interview with key informant IT 7).
• What the theorist’s paradigm case of the nation-state model (i.e. one linguistic identity or one language) per country, and of the inherent concept of homogeneous nation with one ethnolinguistic group, is challenged by the Taiwanese case. The pro-Taiwan Independence nationalists or Taiwan Independence activists have argued that there should be “two sovereignties or two nations” since there are two states by which they refer to the KMT state and the imagined Taiwan nation (Analysis of interview with key informant IS 6).

• Statements from some key informants echo the undesirable negative effects of language education under the KMT’s dominant monolingualism and the ideological Chinese-centred nationalism. These effects include the linguistic/ethnic dominance, linguistic/ethnic oppression, linguistic/ethnic hierarchy, linguistic/ethnic inequality, linguistic/ethnic discrimination, linguistic/ethnic struggle (conflict), and linguistic/ethnic exclusion. This is the failure of the state ideological dominance as hegemony (Analysis of interview with key informant IW 2, IS 6, IT 7).

In constructing a national language — Taiwanising the ethnic symbol of language as testimony to a Taiwanese nation in the second half of 1980s (from 1987 to 1990), many different kinds of activities, movement, conferences, curriculum reforms, and teaching on native language education have been promoted and there seems to have been competing legislation in national and local levels.

5. Conclusion
At the end of the study, the researcher would like to offer some additional reflections on the aim of the study in terms of a number of important implications during the research:

• This historical example of post-colonial Taiwan testifies that language education and schooling systems, themselves parts of the cultural system, can advance or hinder the nationalism/national identity building. Therefore, the connection between nationalism and language education is reciprocal and interactive.

• Because of having been shaped by the colonial rulers and cultural intellectuals, the language educational policies in Taiwan had many ingrained rules, practices, vested interests, and social relations and these deeply fixed features of the educational domination made the language
educational policies operate in ways that are bound up with ideological national-identity building. Therefore, in future, researchers could look into content analysis of the syllabuses of the language education curriculum, and textbooks, in other words, to investigate whether the nation identity-building of the nationalization plan will be affected by a particular ideology of language education in curriculums and textbooks.

- The study attests to that language functions as marker of a nation / or ethnic identities, nationalism and language education as a means of social control. In other words, languages education and identities are embedded within the relations of power. In this view, ideologies of language education are not about language and education alone, but are socially situated and tied to questions of identity and power in nation-state communities.

Finally, this study suggests that if the case of Taiwan tells us anything, it reminds us of how nationalistic, ideological and dominant the whole world has become in the close relationship between the recognition of nationalism and language identity in education, and is still becoming.

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The Formation of Civic Identity in Preschool Children by Means of Logical Tasks (based on the architecture of St. Petersburg)

Natalia Shlat, Alexander Orlov (Pskov)

At the preschool age acquaintance of children with culture of the hometown is an important means of the formation of civil identity.

In 2010 Russia began to implement new requirements for the organization of pre-school education. Firstly, “particular national, cultural, demographic and climatic conditions” are now to be taken into consideration [Об утверждении]. Secondly, education is constructed for pre-schoolers by implementing ten educational areas.

One of them is the educational area of “Socialization”. Its content involves the formation of “gender, family, citizenship, patriotism, a sense of belonging to the international community” [Об утверждении].

Also, these requirements apply to methods that can be used for training and education of preschool children [О разработке]. Methods should take into account the principles of developmental education, scientific and practical use, the unity of educational, developmental, and educational purposes, etc.

To fulfil all these requirements it is necessary to develop integrated methods. They should include some educational areas and achieve integrative purposes, such as foster civic identity and cognitive development.

Love for the motherland begins with a study of its history, because you can love only that which you know well and be proud of. The child, who was born in Sankt-Petersburg, gets to the unique multicultural environment. It is very important that it felt itself (himself) as an integral part of the city. It is therefore necessary to introduce preschoolers to the city as soon as possible. Preschool — is a unique period, it is characterized by a high level of emotion children have with their interest in everything new, the different types of individual and collective activity.
To introduce children to the culture of St. Petersburg teachers use a variety of forms, methods and means (excursions, walks, reading, literature, painting, drawing, etc.).

Activity of the preschool child of 5–6 years is a little differentiated and a little arbitrary. Therefore, the interaction of teacher with children should be carried out as an interesting game, and problem-cognitive activity aimed at solving practical and intellectual challenges.

In this regard we consider that effective formation of civil identity of preschool children will be promoted by use of logical tasks in educational activity.

Logic task — it is an indication of the need to take certain steps: compare, delete, and continue to combine objects. The task is designed in such a way that the way to solve — the ratio between the condition(s) and the requirement of (what to learn?). The logical task is an instruction on the need to carry out certain actions: to compare, exclude, continue, establish connection between objects. Logical tasks have entertaining character and are interesting to children because they are visual.

A selection logic problem is based on the following didactic principles:

1. Availability. The material used in logical problems (objects, phenomena of the world) should be well-known to children.
2. Regularity and consistency. The complexity of tasks to be increased gradually.
3. Repetition and variation. Development of mental cognitive processes going on in different ways and for a long time, so one option set is used repeatedly (with the gradual complication of the material conditions and assignments).
4. Visibility. Visual and creative thinking of the preschool child, especially the generated knowledge (ideas, basic concepts) require the use of different types of presentation: diagrams, models, drawings and other.
5. Consciousness and activity. The child must take an active part in solving logic problems; s/he should be able to explain their choice of solutions.
6. Scientific. In the process of solving logic problems children need to build a real, factual knowledge.
7. Bringing up and developing character education.
8. Accounting for age and individual characteristics of children. Need to use different forms of work (front, group, individual), different types of logic problems.
Logical tasks are based on a certain content. The architecture of the hometown which reflects city history, and the lives of citizens. It influences their consciousness, psychology.

To identify the level of knowledge of architectural terminology in preschoolers, and the ability to recognize and call the architectural objects, you can use the logical task of “Reflection in the water”. The child is offered a sheet with the image of two buildings (Admiralty and St. Isaac’s Cathedral) and a monument (Monument to Peter I “The Bronze Horseman” Below these images are mixed up their “reflection in the water”. Pre-schoolers need to find the “lost” reflection and explain why it is correct. The teacher says to the child: “It was heavy rain, and our beautiful buildings and monuments are now reflected in the water on the pavement. But the residents of St. Petersburg go and do not understand what happened: they see a single building, and the reflection in the water is another. Help all the reflections return to their seats. For example, what is the reflection? (Isaac’s Cathedral). Why do you think that is a reflection of St. Isaac’s Cathedral, and not another building — the Admiralty?” (There is a large dome, gable, a lot of columns, see the bell-towers, a lot of steps leading to the building of the cathedral).

Logic task “Fourth excess” [Серова] is used to determine the skill level of children devote to architectural objects common features and the ability to generalize the object via the specified grounds.

There are four tables, each of which has four images of the various attractions of St. Petersburg. In each table, the child can combine three objects in the same group by selection of his own lines; the fourth object on this basis does not fit into that group. They are offered the following table depicting architectural objects:

- Three of the temple and a monument;
- Three churches and one public building;
- Three buildings with a spike and one with a dome;
- Three of the monument and the bridge with the sculpture.

The teacher says, “Look at the card. Here are painted four buildings. Do you think they all look alike, or something different? What is similar? What distinguishes them from each other?” (The three buildings have a spire, and the fourth — no).

Logic task “Petersburg mosaic”. Purpose: To study the development of voluntary attention, memory, ability to compare objects.
The teacher refers to the child: “Look at these pictures. What do they depict?” (Part two images depicting architectural monuments of the city.) Next, the teacher “accidentally” spilling the images on separate cut part, but not part of the mix of different images: “Look, the Pictures are crumbled like a mosaic. But you can collect all over again. And to make it easier for you to do it, look at the same, but the whole picture. First, try to build a single image, and then another”. If the child has difficulty in performing the task, the teacher can ask: “Do you think that’s shown in this part of the picture (the dome, facade, spire, windows, etc.)?” After the assignment the teacher has the child put this mosaic without the sample.

Logic task “Find your path” [Столяр]. Purpose: To study the development of voluntary attention, the ability to classify objects.

The child is shown a card with images of the architectural monuments of the city, each of them is his own path. The Pre-schooler is asked to select the chip (chips consist of three colours and four geometric shapes — square, circle, triangle and rectangle).

Based on this relative choice allow and deny the signs of the track, and on the chips of the same colour and form, so that the child is holding its shape to the landmarks and calls it out. The teacher said, “Look, what card of our city, I’m giving you. But this card is unusual. That’s the garage, and there are different machines. Choose any. Let’s go!”

Logic task “Petersburg book of problems” [Серова]. Purpose: To study the logic of children, pre-school knowledge about the city.

The teacher shows the child puzzles, in which the names of encrypted sights of St. Petersburg are presented, and says, “Look at these pictures and see which names are hidden”. If a child finds difficulty in answering, the teacher asks a question: “What is depicted here? (River) And what is the column of water rose in the river? (Fountain) Which river is called our city, where we hear the word fountain”?

Logic problem on the “removal” [Зак] — the study of the ability to reason. Material: cards with the architectural monuments of St. Petersburg (the Winter Palace, the Summer Palace, the house of Peter I).

Teacher: “The Summer Palace has no columns. The Winter Palace is decorated with stucco. A house of Peter I built from logs. Show me where is the painted Summer Palace, the Winter Palace, which is drawn, and where the house of Peter I.”
Preschool can offer a more complex version of this kind of problem without relying on the image. The child has to repeat from memory architectural objects, the place where they are, “St. Isaac’s Cathedral of Peter and Paul below, but above Kazan. What Cathedral is highest (lowest)?” Or, “Are you lost in the city. Look: in front of you the Admiralty, on the left — the General Staff, right — Palace. Stands next to a column. Where are you?”

Logic task “What confused artist?” Purpose: To study the development of attention, memory and thinking skills of analysis and synthesis, the ability to argue his response, the development of observation.

Baby pictures show the hash Summer Garden, where instead of vases depict balloons, Admiralty with an angel instead of the boat on the steeple. The teacher says, “What confused the artist? Tell me how it was really necessary to draw”.

Logic task “Little Architects” [Столяр]. Purpose: To study the features of re-creative imagination, memory, analytical and synthetic perception.

The child was asked to insert into the holes suitable for them silhouettes of architectural objects. Also silhouettes can be cut into several pieces.

Logic task “Guests”. Purpose: To study the ability to generalize, to find a cause-effect relationship.

Ask the Pre-schooler to find a suitable home for guests who came to St. Petersburg: Tin Soldier (Peter and Paul Fortress), Snow Queen (Winter Palace), etc.

Thus, the process and the result of solving logic problems allow preschoolers to explore:
1. Knowledge and understanding of pre-schooler architecture of St. Petersburg;
2. Level of connected speech for the child (including knowledge of architectural terms);
3. Level of thinking, attention, imagination, memory, etc.

You can also determine the level of development of ideas about architecture preschoolers in St. Petersburg.

High level: the child knows and calls five or more architectural monuments of the city, and parts (foundations, columns, pediment, dome, steeple, etc.). Also pre-schooler can analyse, compare, architectural objects. Child shows strong interest in solving logical tasks.
**Average level:** the child knows, calls for three to five architectural monuments of the city, but sometimes it can make mistakes. Pre-schooler sometimes need help to call a part of architectural objects.

**Low levels:** preschool calls less than three architectural objects, do not know their parts, makes a lot of mistakes. The child often distracted while on assignment, the interest in the task of weak.

Studying, by the child of preschool age, of the architecture of St. Petersburg by means of logical tasks promotes, on the one hand, formation of civil and ethnic identity of the child and her/his deep acquaintance with the hometown; on the other hand — the cognitive and personal development of the child because it increases the active dictionary, mathematical representations, and develop sensory and logic actions of the child.
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Multicultural Education and Practices of Educational Institutions of Border Regions
The Networking Organizations in Formation as a Tendency of Organizational Development in the Conditions of Globalization

Olga Chorosova (Yakutsk)

This paper focuses on one aspect of education promotion via networking organization, which is the development in a teacher continuing professional education system. It is provided at the Teacher Enhancement Institute of North-Eastern Federal University named after M. K. Ammosov. Proposing of educational community networking organizations and other decentralization modern forms disposes several common structural characteristics: bureaucratization and formalization refusal; information and career-oriented integration resources of high status as compared to technocratic and structural integration; linking affiliated forms by means of alternative markets establishment.

Resources distribution of such kind, as everybody notices, is often compared with virtualization, networking organization with virtual organization. This comparison is possible when traditional characteristics disappear. The work is provided through informative technical resource allocation across space and time. Benefits arising from the initial review include: giving all school teachers a chance to continue their professional development; engaging institutions and individuals in the networking process and raising opportunities of the school’s involvement in different projects.

Problem Actualization
Low efficiency of the standard forms of cooperation in the solution of difficult problems of various strategies causes innovative activity in the field of the organization of network, including the system of continuous education of teachers (CET). Creation of nonconventional innovative structures (so-called boundless establishments, institutions of continuing professional education) is promoted by information and communication systems and also aspiration to integrated forms of work.
“Organization is a group of people whose activity is meaningfully coordinated for the achievement of overall aims” [Ханадеева]. Thus, the organization of a network is a meaningfully coordinated social formation, with certain limits, which is permanently in operation for the achievement of overall aims.

Experience shows that actually strategic targets promote creation of educational networking organizations.

Creation of networking organizations (structures) represents “megatrend” in the global information field covering all branches and functional areas. This “megatrend” meets strategic requirements which are expressed, first of all in the necessity of a flexible and integrative service of the markets, and also amendment of competencies owing to the integrated information systems. Questions of creation of educational networking organizations are reflected in the works of D. Badarch, Т. Y. Lomakina, Y. Narantsetseg, Т. I. Platonova, В. А. Sazonov, Е. A. Hanadeeva, etc. [Бадарч, Сазонов; Ломакина, Платонова; Ханадеева].

In Article 13 of the legislation of Education Act (project) there are general requirements of realization of educational programs where it is noticed that educational programs are realized by the organization which carries out educational activity, both independently and by means of networking forms of realization of educational programs. At such realization of educational programs the use of various educational technologies is recommended, including remote educational technologies and (or) on-line learning. The Teachers Enhancement Institute of the North-Eastern Federal University (TEI NEFU) created a portal which is called “Webkafedra”. Hundreds of teachers of the region underwent remote training. Thus, technological conditions make it possible to organize network education at any territorial level.

**Institutions of the Networking Organization of Continuous Professional Education of Teachers**

Institutions of the networking organization of continuous professional education of teachers: TEI NEFU, accredited establishments of higher vocational education (HVE) and continuing professional education (CPE) of regional, district, federal, international level, reference points of NEFU, public organizations, associations, centres and others, including authorial, personified establishments with licences for educational activity. The importance of such a presence of institution at an international level in the educational networking organization actualizes the necessity of international harmonization in up-to-date education under the Bologna process conditions [Бадарч, Сазонов].
Conditions of Efficiency of the Networking Organization of Continuous Education of Teachers

Conditions of efficiency of development of the networking organization of continuous education of teachers (Continuing Professional Education programs) in the Far East of the Russian Federation include, besides the standard conditions: communicative conditions (functioning of flexible and democratic structures and projects of management of system of improvement of professional level of teachers); contribution to advancing development of education systems; support of sociocultural and educational enterprises; development of partner communications at regional, district, federal and international levels, etc. [Чоросова].

TEI, being a structure of NEFU, creates system of dynamic stabilization by development and strengthening of relations, first of all at federal level. So, conventions between NEFU and Academy of Enhancement and Professional Retraining of Educators (AEPRE); the Russian State Teacher Training University (RSTTU) after A. I. Herzen; the Moscow Psychology-Social University (MPSU) of Russian Academy of Education (RAE); the Kazan (Privolzhsky) Federal University (KFU); the St. Petersburg Academy of Post degree Teacher Training Education (SPAPTTE); the Moscow State Teacher Training University (MSTTU), the Moscow State Technical University after N. E. Bauman (MSTU); the Moscow Teacher Training State University (МГПУ); the Moscow Institute of Open Education (MIOE) of RAE; Laboratory of didactics of the Institute of the Theory and Pedagogics History (ITPH) of RAE; the Institute of Matter and Methods of Teaching (IMMT) of RAE; Interregional Tutors Association; Publishing houses “Drofa”, “Mnemozina”, “Prosvesheniye”; the Institute of Practical Psychology “Imaton”, etc., are signed.

The international level of networking organization of continuous education of teachers of the North East will be provided with joint activity with Narva College of the University of Tartu, based on the signed Agreement on the cooperation of the North-Eastern Federal University (rector Mikhaylova E. I.) and Tartu University (Alar Karis), presented by Narva College (director Katri Raik).

General agreements also make it possible to develop an integrative system of continuous professional education.

Of particular value is the creation of information-substantial conditions (timeliness of creation of program-target diversification products, conformity of offered educational programs to requirements of teachers, etc.).
The Networking Organizations as the Tendency of Organizational Development

The networking formations, transcending the limits of one establishment, give big possibilities in formation of effective market organizational structures. Organizational networks demand both weakening of traditional profile structures, and creation of market communications with the help of management of relations or general agreements.

The agreement between two universities, Tartu University and the North-Eastern Federal University, is a basis for general agreements for functioning of the network educational organization. Thus, the Program of joint activity is made according to which development of a common Master’s program on educational innovations and its realization for employed teachers, who already have a teacher’s profession, are employed. Also development and realization of courses of professional retraining (a qualifying course) on a profile “andragogic education” with pedagogical direction is planned. The given curriculums, on intentions of the parties, can be realized by the teachers of the two universities on a network basis, technology presented in the legislation of Education Act of the Russian Federation. Within the limits of the Agreement of Narva College of Tartu University and TEI NEFU, an international seminar “Modernization of model of continuous education: experts training, career making, andragogic education” was held. Over the long term there is the organization of international conferences, seminars, with the training providing the academic mobility of the subjects of the network.

The regional experience formed by NEFU shows that, as a result of breaking down of borders between the establishments, the organizations carrying out continuing professional education, traditional differentiations between internal and external members of the organization, own and other’s resources, large and small formations disappear. The whole sequence of creation of educational activity changes into a set of services. There is a replacement of traditional relations in the employment sphere. The last will be transformed to present labour relations with the high share of indemnifications depending on the success of work carried out, and can be established on the basis of urgent employment contracts, a partial employment, contracts on mutual granting of the personnel by establishments and organizations — subjects of the network, and contracts with experts of liberal professions.

As all note, such distribution of resources is often compared with virtualization, and network organization with virtual organization [Ханадеева]. This
comparison is legitimate when, during replacement of an old structure, known physical and legal characteristics are lost. Work is provided by its allocation of information technical facilities in space and time. By this principle of the organization of educational activity Departments of Andragogy and Social Computer Science are created at TEI NEFU.

**Networking Organization Risks and Growth Prospects**

The networking organization breaks a number of the developed principles of management; secondly, administrative principles for new organizational structures are not specified yet and not tested sufficiently and consequently cannot serve as the strong base to development of the given organizational form.

Meanwhile, of course, networking organizations and other modern forms of decentralization coincide on a number of the general structural characteristics: refusal from bureaucratization and formalizations; high status of information and personnel integration tools (for example, personnel combinations) in comparison with technocratic and structural integration; to filial forms of communication by creation of the alternative markets.

At the same time, the networking organization drops out of the basic tendency of decentralization as it differs in presence of specific weaknesses: preference of specialization and concentration on key competences, whereas many modern directions, on the contrary, support multidimensional qualification of the general profile; practical absence of material and social support of the members owing to refusal of classical long-term contractual forms and usual labour relations; turnover of staff; heterogeneity of members of the network organization, etc. Development of the network organizations is also “interfered by absence of necessary institutional autonomy for acceptance of key decisions and ... an excessive regulation of expenses for strategic reorganization and decision of new problems” [Бадарч, Сазонов: 23–24].

In conclusion it is necessary to point out that the process of formation of networking organizations CPE is characterized by a backlog of fundamental scientific researches from practical experience. Organizational practice herewith is oriented to market requirements. From the scientific point of view the network approach should be considered as a comprehensible innovative principle of the organization of educational activity.
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Russia’s Far East Continuing Professional Education Procedure New Regulations

Nadezhda Shilova (Yakutsk)

The Teacher’s Enhancement Institute (further TEI) is a Federal state autonomous educational institution of high professional education of North-Eastern Federal University named after M. K. Ammosov (further NEFU) organization department, realizing educational programs of teacher’s continuing professional education.

The Institute performs graduate pedagogic staff training applying in-service and day release training. The unitary state educational standard is working for each of this training in the frame of the concrete professional educational program. The Institute designates training courses, teaching and training methodologies, scientific research tasks and decision resources options, providing high quality educational and scientific processes under the unitary state educational standard.

Before introducing the continuous education system of integrative system development conception (2010) into Institute practice in the continuing professional education system (further CPE) we can emphasize the following CPE system positions: teacher one-time skill upgrading courses training; educational programs internal inspection presence; educational institutions activity methodological support by certain agencies, skill upgrading region institutions presence; continuing professional education technologies presence and also different level CPE system separated resources.

This is why the regulating documents provide a continuous education system integrative system development conception realization as the TEI NEFU main strategic document, oriented on following objectives achievement: regulations introduction allowing to organize the integration to federal and region scientific educational community; to provide continuing professional education availability through innovative technological decisions development; diversified further educational products spread-out for quality education raising, with following specialist demands satisfaction monitoring in a specialized labour market.
The education organization is based on education principles (education oriented on the result, accumulative credit module system using, separate modules learning consistent character, emphasis on trainers self-independence, labour investment load calculation), education new forms (focused on practical tasks decision perfection), new training modes (individual programs, study groups line-up flexibility, classroom-based lessons and tests proportionality), training material learning new control principles (module distributed monitoring, trainers and teachers ranking, training individual trajectories management etc.) and educational processes support new unified resources including Internet-technologies and ICT (unified data base).

These instruments develop advances within context of the Bologna declaration principal provisions, including “academic freedom” term definition development with labour intensity credit unit transfer within European system introduction for trainers mobility large-scale support, including continuing professional education system which also provide learning disciplines to choose correctly, based on the ECTS (European Credit Transfer System), making it the accumulative system, able to work under “lifelong education” conception, allowing a rise in education quality, to improve education schedule, education systems “friendliness” and fairness of education results.

These qualities are generally valid for the education system at whole, and so this brings us to the conclusion that, applying these qualities, conducting researches and experiments in continuous vocational education presents a high priority from the development perspectives point of view.

Given this approach allowed in the educational process new regulations in TEI NEFU, based on individual the educational way (further IEW), allowing the trainer independently to create content, time schedule and education regime taking into account personal needs. The trainer IEW in a part-time regime realizes this through individual curriculum (further — IC). IC is the educational programs modules union in compliance of the trainer choosing a course.

The educational program is based on all program modules learning results, resulting in an individual plan structure. For the IEW program successful completion it is necessary to “collect” the required credit quantity for intramural core curriculum, program distant modules, optional tests including work with e-learning package, module digital educational resources including video lectures during academic year according to individual curriculum; work with Internet technologies and ICT, webinars; social networks and network designing resources, operation with virtual libraries with e-catalogues etc.; research-
to-practice conference, seminars, practical courses participation including scientific methodical elaborations, i. e. articles, thesis, essay, projects, etc., and accepted topic graduate qualification work, having credit rating.

There are skill upgrading courses educational modules, alternative for train-ers, to provide education content interdisciplinary integration and individual curriculum construction. The course program curriculum has two parallel realizing matrix which are completed within the course arrangement plan. Educational courses’ learning is possible in distant mode under the condition of a compulsory performance review.

The program training is going on in maximum deep content sphere, and it is necessary for educational effects achievement and in illustration of new educational sphere organization for Republic school alike.

The educational sphere organized as the sphere provided “individual cur-riculum chosen topics self-researching availability and able is to satisfy the labour market and certain prospective employer specific demands” through information source wide access, continuous pedagogic support, individual support and consulting and the availability to learn successful projects related to education course topic and other contexts.

All programs are oriented on cult urological, educational and special informative communicational content integration, and so allows notice of actual multicultural education problems point awareness; to develop own humane culture, humane thinking, to form consistent integral scientific humane world-view, history, culture, society; structural interaction and cooperation with other people aspiration, aspiration to forces cooperation for common purpose achievement;

Tolerant attitude to another view, opinions, positions, spiritual (ethno-cul-tural, religious cultural etc.) traditions, other cultural (including socio-cultural) characteristics; communication, dialog, consensus reaching availability development, skill to hear and listen interlocutor, aspire to understand opponent, adapt own statements to other interaction participants perception capability; skill to use communication providing different methods (including e-methods), building up culture dialog, presenting educator preparedness to professional activity performance in multicultural sphere.

An adult person with professional background has high motivation to her/ his education continuation, has certain experience and/or professional status and capabilities for knowledge and experience realization which adults have opportunity to take during program learning.
The Integrative educational process and educator initiatives encourage
ment in Russia North East teacher continuing education sphere including
Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) put into practice, in skill upgrading programs,
competition form according to module-case technology for NEFU, supporting
(key) schools practice-oriented courses under NEFU development Program
realization. Developed regulation of project realization allows such indication,
within Russia North East educational institutions and education system specialists including Republic of Sakha (Yakutia), realizing module-case technology
teacher continuing professional education services; to learn authorial practice-
oriented programs applying modern information technologies for educational
process participants active creative potential development; to support pioneers
(mentor, Narva College experience) performing teacher continuing professional
education services, making individual educational ways and skill upgrading,
retraining services logistics fundament; to expand competitive programs cer-
tified disseminate networks services range at the “WEBKAFEDRA” portal; to
propose above-named technologies development scheme of Russia North East
(including Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) a continuing professional education effective
network. The project is broadcasting to Russia North East, in participation
of 22 programs module of Chukotka Autonomous District in 2011, 2 program
module of Magadan region and 1 program of Kamchatka region.

Dissemination of authorial information competition, of “Education” top
national project teachers-winners, is being held for the purpose of innovative
pedagogic experience dissemination under skill upgrading courses practice module.

During the competition the best advanced educational experience examples
were selected; unit authorial information data base was established for plac-
ing on the “WEBKAFEDRA” unit information educational portal, and it allows
provision to open access to the educator’s innovative pedagogic experience.
Education” top national project teachers-winners, with authorial methodic elaborations, take a part in the competition. During selection, and deciding of
educator best authorial information topic actuality and originality, performed
methodic elaboration pedagogic practicability, used information technologies
diversity and justification and Federal state standard Conception correspond-
dence are taking into account.

Network interaction development principle in the continuing professional
education system allows carrying out of pedagogic staff skill upgrading form
content reform, which form a graduate model i.e. the educational institutions
of HVE prospective student; skill upgrading and retraining courses programs further content updating, e-learning materials (ELM), e-study guides (ESG) development in networking operation mode.

TEI NEFU in practice has the new regulations of integrated projects organization, with the participation of pedagogic experience from the best teachers Russia competition “Teacher of the Year” and Republic competition “Success Technology” winners, teacher professional retraining educational programs realization “Two Diplomas” with obtaining of State documents of international (European) and federal levels. The residential sessions, distant modules and specialist traineeships in Narva College of the University of Tartu (Tartu Ülikooli Narva Kolledž).

Monitoring data allows for making a conclusion that introduced regulations of continuous pedagogic education on federal level are up-to-date and effective.

The continuous education integrative system current state of development characterizes: social institutions role enhancement in education quality development; universities role strengthening in a continuous professional education system; State social administration component introducing; integration technologies researching to open educational field and scientific methodic developement and staff personal advancement coaching, and also network organization and marketing introduction.

Within the continuous education integrative system introduction of a new regulations perspective, it is possible to present discourse about formed social and economic effects of which legal documents are presented regulating further education system transition on open principles introduction, for joint further professional educational programs network establishment and these programs an accreditation by social organizations and by employer representatives.

From our point of view it is just small steps allowing Russia’s North East educators powered by E. I. Mikhailova, NEFU rector to open new opportunities for chance equality improvement through continuous education.
Providing Resources for 
Teacher Continuing Education

Valentin Maksimov (Yakutsk)

One of the main directions of modern conditions for education system development is: training, retraining and skill upgrading of pedagogic and other education system employees; professional skill and labour quality upgrading of pedagogic, academic and other educational institutions employees.

The present research article considers the methodological foundations and the mechanisms of financing of a new model of outrun educator skill upgrading in the Russian Federation with the region-at-region principle. The foreign experience is extremely interesting for its development and realization.

Pilot Project “The Financing New Model of Outrun Educator Skill Upgrading in the Region”: Project Topicality and Grounding

Skill upgrading can be considered as the result and the process of individual’s and the whole educational system's in-service retraining and quality improvement.

The first one suggests efficient changes of educator’s professional and valuable skills during training in the skill upgrading institutions. The second means the educator training task-oriented process which is accompanied by trainers’ recorded skill level changing. The last one is the part of continuous pedagogical education system represented by institutions at federal, regional and municipal levels (teacher’s enhancement institutions, municipal methodological offices etc.).

During the professional life of the outrun skill upgrading (OSU) is needed. It is vital. It is required for state politic priority directions realization in the education sphere. Every educator should get education in fast changing conditions. But continuous outrun subject education is the educational institution stabilization factor in return.
At the present time outrun skill upgrading should become one of the most effective instruments, allowing solving of extremely demanding up-to-date requirements and educator competence correspondence problems. Therefore modern demands to employed educators of a growing pedagogic work market is provided with a professional educational work new status which determines the educator as reformer (generator) of new pedagogic ideas; creator of intensive pedagogic methods, author of private systems.

Outrun skill upgrading directly affects the success and effectiveness of priority state tasks. It is resource-intensive and needs high skilled specialists, new resources and teaching methods. A skill upgrading typical feature is the organization in State duties of personification conditions; trainers demand carrying out monitoring; outrun content education organization is developed individually for each trainer through module selection; and self-independent period and skill upgrading from determination, with expertise in organization. Education process individualization and expanded educational services in the skill upgrading sphere suppose the new relations between educator and CPE (continuing professional education) institutions — customer and performer relations, where the OSU educator competency customized system backbone factor presents their educational assembly demands.

The result of any development in educational work is an educational product which, under the conditions of monetary relations, take the form of service (or product). It has definite value (benefit), capability to satisfy consumer demand. Economic relations in the education sphere realize through human activity provided with educational services under the conditions of scant finance, economic, labour and other resources in proportion with expenses to the achieved result and teaching work (relations). On the basis of this postulate, under the conditions of scant budget funds, economic mechanism organization logic is required to be built up for effective functioning. Due to this fact it raises the questions related to effectiveness achievement and educational product quality.

On April 10th 2010, there was established the Federal state autonomous educational institute of high professional education “North Eastern Federal University named after M. K. Ammosov” by the order № 499-p of the government of the Russian Federation. The Ministry of Education and Science is the establisher of this autonomous educational institute.

The Federal state autonomous educational institute of high professional education “North Eastern Federal University named after M. K. Ammosov” the 2010–2019 development program was accepted (welcomed) by Russian Prime Minister Putin V. V. order № 1694-p. October 7th 2010.
NEFU Program Development

The program is aimed to state strategic geopolitical decision tasks, first of all to Russia’s North East innovative program and the Far East Federal district at whole. University activity should promote settling down and national attraction into this strategic important region.

The University development directions include 18 projects (98 events) particularly 1.2 event “Continuing pedagogical education system adoption” in the project 1 “Education process modernization”. It is the only resource providing educator continuing professional education.

The Teacher’s Enhancement Institute of NEFU (further TEI NEFU) is responsible for event performance. The Institute through the NEFU development program puts into practice personal trainings with professional trainings, with day release and off-work hours.

Program resources provide organizational activity and continuing professional education system management in Russia’s Far East.

The Institute, within the frame of the given article, cooperates with NEFU organization department and scientific educational space of local, federal and international level departments for extra professional educational programs and realization of services; certificates, performs logistics and marketing of extra professional educational programs and services; creates projects of local statutory acts providing system operation of continuous vocational education.

The short-term creative team of TEI NEFU offers to establish the personal educational cheque as the contract form between State and educational system employee. This cheque will provide the right to financial guaranteed elective outrun skill upgrading.

The personal educational cheque (PEC) — is the document providing to the educator the right to guaranteed elective skill upgrading in institutions, agencies, centres, etc. which have complied legal documents for the right of maintaining educational activity. A task-oriented activity of interrelated forms system is carried out for PEC realization: the information component organization of internal and external marketing is focused on educational observation demands, capability satisfaction assessment and individual educational choice; informative component working-out in the form of setting up complex academic aims, skill upgrading content and technologies and organizing on the basis of standard models of educator competency and adult education principles; evaluative (monitoring) component working-up (input and output diagnostic and a delayed effect skill upgrading self-evaluation). Educator skill upgrading
customized system effectiveness monitoring, its correction and development, performing by means of internal and external expertise and building up on several levels including through internal diagnostics, allows a steady record of trainers demands.

Continuing professional programs and academic complexes should provide for every trainer the capability to build an individual professional dependency outrun path. Skill upgrading content module construction promotes it. Most of further program modules last not more than 24 hours. Educator starting education in the FVE institution has an opportunity to choose several program-modules which are more satisfied to his or her interests, demands and requests. The program-module structure includes the informative theoretic content, diagnostic, practical and control estimate sections.

Educators choose an educational program in institutions, agencies, centres, etc. which have complied legal documents for the right to educational activity, maintaining selection on a competitive base by the local agency of education administration for pilot project realization. PEC also gives educators the opportunity to take outrun skill upgrading not only in the local institutions but also in other Russian Federation region and abroad.

Local agency of education administration provides, according to educational cheque quantity, pay to the institution for work performed. Educational institutions divide PEC between educators according to the educational cheque regulation (which is accepted at the Republic level) and institution basic educational program requirements.

The demands to participants of pilot project “The financing new model of outrun educator skill upgrading in the region”:


Educational program requires:

- program module structure provided skill upgrading of all categories of pedagogic work and managing personnel;
- skill upgrading content development with orientation on a competence-pragmatist-based approach;
- informative communication technologies and electronic resources application during the skill upgrading organization process;
• state and private interests correspondence during the trainer professional competence development process;
• program development oriented on every educator skill level of professional enhancement.

Modes of study:
• intramural;
• extra-mural;
• extra-mural with the application of remote storage (credit) system.

Implementation scheme:
• to work out the regulatory groundwork for Pilot project “The financing new model of outrun teacher’s enhancement in the region” implementation;
• to work out the realization program Pilot project “The financing new model of outrun educator skill upgrading in the region” implementation;
• to work out “The personal educational cheque for educator outrun skill upgrading resolution”.

**Financing of the Project**
The amount of finance for the project is calculated for budget year by formula:

\[ F = (Q_1 + Q_2 + \ldots + Q_i) \times C_t, \]

Where:
\( F \) — model method gross expenditures for budget year;
\( i \) — model method skill upgrading courses directions quantity;
\( Q \) — trainers number in \( i \) — direction;
\( C_t \) — one trainer apprenticeship costs.

The educational program certification system establishment necessity appears with PEC realization. The certificate is the document that justifies the educational program and corresponds to specified requirements. At the same time there is the establishment of an educator certification system allowing their access to the new content, methods and work types necessary for realization. Educator certification — is the process by force of which the managed personal staff justifies employee competence level for correspondence to the new type of work realization and professional tasks decision methods.
In our opinion the professional standard establishment question is seen as a demand system to subject activity qualities (competence), which determines the concrete job position awareness possibility, and is relevant to the success in educational work in general. That is why the logistics and certification for a department based on TEI NEFU having FVE educational work right provides a licensed establishment and is becoming now meaningful.

And finally, it reveals that it is necessary to develop legal regulation in the FVE financing sphere. An outrun skill upgrading finance support, providing a well-defined structure is demanded. All educational crediting subjects should take part in its establishment.

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The Role of Public Administration Curriculum in University Community Service within a Geographical Periphery

Aet Kiisla (Narva)

Introduction
The aspects of the role of the higher education institution are teaching, research and community service [Chatterton, Goddard; OECD: 21; Bass and Silverstein]. Although research is historically considered to be the first priority of the university, teaching comes second and community service is called the ‘third task’; community service is tightly linked to the teaching and research and the understanding of its importance has grown in the recent years. The ‘third task’ is especially important and highly valued in young democracies [Chatterton, Goddard].

The aim of this article is to analyse if and how successfully it would be possible to serve the community through teaching Public Administration and developing the corresponding curriculum.

The research questions for achieving this goal are:
Why should the university be engaged in regional development? What are the reasons for the university and the society? To what degree can the university be engaged in regional development?

What can be done to enhance the university’s local engagement role through curriculum development? What are the advantages of the Public Administration curriculum in this context?

As the basis I take the definition and explanations of community service from OECD [Higher education and regions. Globally competitive, locally engaged. OECD], and I complement and compare them with examples from the speciality of Local Government’s Administration in Narva College of the University of Tartu.
The article provides an overview of the ways in which regional engagement and community service have been performed in universities of different countries; what the results of earlier research on the topic are and which of those methods could be applied to Public Administration (PA) curriculum development.

The article analyses the possibilities of the Public Administration curriculum to support universities’ community service function based on the dimensions of regional engagement of higher education formulated by OECD: knowledge creation in the region; human capital formation and knowledge transfer; cultural and community development.

The imposed task enables being able to study, as a whole, such components as the curriculum design, the content of subjects, teaching and assessment methods, extracurricular activities, topics and supervising of students’ research, cooperation with local governments and other stakeholders. Functioning as a whole is a precondition for a high-quality curriculum, and the ‘glue’ for these components in the context of this article is community service.

Some of the results of the research are applicable to all Public Administration curricula, especially to those that act in regional units. Other results are more specific and they are meant to be applied in the development of the Local Government’s Administration curriculum in Narva College, Estonia. In this case regional peculiarities are taken into account — the high percentage of the Russian-speaking population, a relatively high unemployment and others.

Regional Contribution of Higher Education Institutions
The topic of regional contribution of universities is widely acknowledged and the approach to analysing of the matter is very versatile: universities’ roles in innovation [Charles; Westnes et al; Allison, Eversole]; role of university managers [Gunasekara]; the perspectives of individual academics [Bond, Paterson]; involvement as a regional policy instrument [Hudson]. I introduce the latter two more closely because of their stronger relevance to the current article.

The quality of a curriculum and the ability to serve the community depend among other factors on academic staff. Bond and Paterson (2005) questioned over 800 and interviewed 80 academics in England and Scotland. Most of them admitted that for their prestige it is more important to be published and recognised internationally. Many negotiate a balance between, and attempt to, reconcile national and more universal demands and interests. Nonetheless Bond and Paterson (2005) conclude that academics exhibit a strong commitment
to engagement and interaction with their communities both in principle and practice; that such interaction often takes place at a variety of geographical levels; and that it is often accomplished under less than propitious circumstances. The authors examine engagement in the two principal dimensions: civic and economic (these dimensions are often called soft and hard respectively). The vast majority of the respondents believe it is important that higher education institutions (HEIs) engage in public debate beyond the walls of the institution. A high proportion (88%) also believed it was important to provide advice to policy makers [Bond, Paterson: 338]. The reasons for such activities were mainly related to the sense of duty or responsibility but not practical gain or prestige.

Establishing a regional college of the University of Tartu in Narva was partly justified by the regional policy. For that reason it would be useful to study the article by Hudson (2006). It describes the development of legislative and financial framework for HEIs’ third mission in Sweden during a half of century. Despite the fact that the legislation in the field was quite vague, the majority of HEIs proved to be central actors in the regional growth partnerships [Hudson: 398]. The author illustrates the process on the example of Umeå University which is similar with Narva College because it is also peripheral. Their regional involvement was not only answering to the needs of the region by conducting research, teaching and offering cooperation but also by widening recruitment to higher education and supplying the labour market with qualified personnel [Hudson: 402]. One of the biggest obstacles was that decision-making processes in a big university were often cumbersome and slow moving [Hudson: 404].

Regional networking can be thought of as an institutional survival or strengthening strategy for universities [Chatterton, Goddard: 481]. Higher education institutions provide education, conduct research and play an active role in the development of their economic, social and cultural surroundings. “Within the individual institution, the challenge is to link the teaching, research and community service roles by internal mechanisms (funding, staff development, incentives and rewards, communications, etc.) that make these activities more responsive to regional needs” [Chatterton, Goddard: 482]. Regional contribution to civil society is conducted through extra-mural activities of individual staff, as we also read in Bond and Paterson (2005), or through providing liberal adult education, through public lectures, etc. [Chatterton, Goddard: 489]. From a regional perspective, higher education institutions can be the key local agencies that are able to bring together within the territory different national interests [OECD: 30].
One of the most extensive researches in the field has been the OECD thematic review project ‘Supporting the contribution of HEIs to regional development’ which embraced 14 regions across 12 countries [Arbo, Benneworth; OECD]. Charles and Benneworth (2002) have developed a tool that benchmarks regional contributions of HEIs, which includes seven themes that are paraphrased in the OECD review. Very importantly, Charles and Benneworth (2002) draw attention to ‘promoting sustainability’. According to [OECD: 22], regional engagement of higher education refers to a number of dimensions:

- knowledge creation in the region through research and its exploitation via technology transfer (spin out companies, intellectual property rights and consultancy). Usually, by knowledge creation, we mean ‘hard’ contributions and innovation. In the ‘soft’ fields we mean creating different forms of knowledge – data, skills, networking and experience [Chatterton, Goddard: 480]. In the context of this article ‘soft’ fields are more relevant.

- human capital formation and knowledge transfer (localisation of learning process by work-based learning, graduate employment in the region, continuing education, professional development and lifelong learning activities). The main question of knowledge transfer is how to get the right knowledge to the right people. The knowledge itself could be either explicit or tacit [Calo].

- cultural and community development contributing to the milieu, social cohesion and sustainable development on which innovation in the region depends. Universities have had a great role in nation-building; promoting sustainable development; people’s awareness [Arbo, Benneworth: 52; Zilahy, Huisingh]. This dimension is particularly important in peripheral and less-developed regions such as the Narva region in Estonia.

**Higher Education in Estonia**

Estonia is a former Soviet republic which regained its independence in 1991 and joined the European Union and NATO in 2004. Estonia has a population of 1.3 million, its area is 45 227 km², the closest neighbours are Finland, Russia and Latvia; it is a parliamentary democracy.

Narva is situated in North-East Estonia, in Ida-Viru County, on the border between the European Union and Russia. The population of Narva is 66 600. The region is special due to the fact that 24 % of the County’s and only 4 % of Narva City’s population are Estonians — the national majority of the country.
There are 33 HEIs in Estonia. There are three types of educational institutions that provide higher education: universities, professional higher education institutions and vocational education schools. Both public and private HEIs are authorised to operate. There are six public universities. The Ministry of Education and Research plays the key role in the Estonian higher education policy (see www.hm.ee). Estonia has been a full member of the Bologna Process since 1999. The legislation for adopting the two-cycle system has been in place since 2002/03 when the new model was enforced. 91.4 % of all students are enrolled in the two cycle degree system [Aru].

The University of Tartu is the oldest university in Estonia, it was founded in 1632. It is the only classical university in Estonia. It includes nine faculties, five colleges (in different regions) and several regional development units (see www.ut.ee).

There are five HEIs operating in Narva but only one of them is public — Narva College of the University of Tartu. Therefore Narva College has the obligation to represent state’s interests in the region. On the other hand, the College was founded as an answer to the needs of the region. The University sees that there is a need for teacher training in this region. Most of the curricula are pedagogic, but there are two professional higher education programmes in addition. One of them is Local Government’s Administration (LGA) which is the core of this article.

There are about 100 students of Local Government’s Administration speciality. Estonians make up about 30 % of the students; others are native Russian speakers, mostly of the Russian nationality. Half of them are working as officials; others have just left high school. The oldest student is about 50 years old and the youngest is just 18.

**Knowledge Creation in the Region**

‘Knowledge creation’ examines the ways through which higher education institutions are involved with regional innovation systems. Its primary focus is on the ‘hard’ contributions, such as the inputs to firm-based innovation, including consultancy [OECD: 117–142]. ‘Soft’ contributions mean broader research which helps to create a common understanding of priorities for regional development amongst regional stakeholders, prepare the ground for cooperation between the academic and non-academic community. Public Administration as a discipline generally carries more soft aspects than hard ones.
In the context of lifelong learning, knowledge creation takes on different characteristics. In particular, it is important to differentiate between codifiable knowledge, i.e. know-what (data, etc.) and tacit knowledge such as know-how (skills), know-who (networking) and know-why (experience). These forms of ‘hybrid knowledge’ become the most valuable type of knowledge depending upon interpersonal relationships, trust and cooperation and are most readily developed within the region [Chatterton, Goddard: 480].

These thoughts will be closely studied in the context of the Local Government’s Administration curriculum in this section. Here we also analyse the content of the curriculum in respect to regional needs.

Knowledge creation and research in Narva College are mainly oriented to issues of multiculturalism. The results are not directly transferable into regional innovation systems. They are acting as the base for all actions in this multicultural region. This research is appreciated by the state which is continuously ordering cross-cultural communication training-courses for different target groups. This way research is connected to lifelong learning. Research in the Local Government’s Administration curriculum is practically absent because of the lack of academic personnel in the field.

There is only one public administration lecturer in the College. Other lecturers of the curriculum represent other fields of study or come from other faculties of the University of Tartu and different universities of Estonia. This might be one of the biggest problems of the curriculum. The solution seems to lie in a closer cooperation with other universities but their research interests are not clearly connected to multiculturalism (in PA) which is stated to be the College’s main interest. The compromise solution might be a closer cooperation between lecturers and the students. The students’ research papers are mainly in the form of graduation theses which are preferably on the topics with a practical outcome. Connecting the research of the lecturers and the students is an opportunity which is hardly used. Every semester lecturers offer students the topics they are interested in and the students choose the topics for their graduation thesis either from those or come up with their own topics. Somehow the students tend to choose topics that are less connected to lecturers’ research interests. In this case we have to make a decision — whether we support freedom of choice or oblige the students to select the ‘right’ topics. Both alternatives have advantages and disadvantages. In the case of in-service students it is logical that they write a thesis which has a practical value to their organisation (local government) and this is actually very valuable in terms of regional engagement. Therefore maybe
we just have to accept that there is no jointly created knowledge in such a small regional college.

Since the classical knowledge creation is so far quite weak in the field of Public Administration, let us look at the knowledge creation in the context of lifelong learning and the composition of the curriculum.

The Standard of Higher Education sets the volume and some technical criteria for curricula but it is the same for all bachelor programmes and the same for all professional higher education programmes. There is no concrete benchmark for the content of a Public Administration programme [Kalev et al]. Some standards can be found from the Public Service Act or the Language Act. According to the Public Service Act, the Government has passed an act on the evaluation criteria of the main categories of positions but these are not very specific. ‘The main regulative mechanism has been competition. This has led to rather similar developments in the programmes’ composition as well as using the already existing strengths in the institutions’ [Kalev et al: 146].

The goal of the LGA curriculum is to train local government officials, especially for the region. The curriculum does not specify preparing educational or environmental or other specific officials. Its only focus is on local government and it is a unique curriculum in Estonia in this sense. The College tries to provide the students with the tools to work in civil service, the general understanding about the public sector and society overall; and more focused knowledge about local government. Practical training makes up a big part of the curriculum (25 weeks). The content of the curriculum is being constantly developed and revised on the suggestions of the Programme Council which consists of future employers (high officials of local government), lecturers, students and graduates.

Next, we will see how the ‘hybrid knowledge’ [Chatterton, Goddard: 480] and Denhardt’s ‘big questions’ of Public Administration education are connected to each other and to the LGA curriculum.

Denhardt (2001) has formulated the big questions of Public Administration education:
- Do we seek to educate our students with respect to theory or to practice?
- Do we prepare students for their first jobs or for those to which they might aspire later?
- What are the appropriate delivery mechanisms for MPA courses and curricula?
- What personal commitments do we make as Public Administration educators?
In respect to the first question about theory and practice, one thing to consider is what graduates are doing in the future. If they wish to go to work in public service immediately as professional higher education graduates usually do, they should get as much practical guidance as possible. If they choose to continue studying at the Master’s level as Bachelor level graduates usually do, they should have more theoretical subjects. After professional higher education it is also possible to continue studies at the Master’s level and this makes finding the balance between theory and practice even more difficult. In other words, we are discovering the balance between codifiable and tacit knowledge [see Chatterton, Goddard].

How can we help all kinds of students within the same curriculum? This is similar to Denhardt’s second question. Denhardt [Denhardt: 531] has tried to answer this question but even he said: “Educators in Public Administration have frequently assumed there is one best way to construct programmes and policies and that we should take a one-size-fits-all approach to our students. /…/ Some people are simply more interested in theory than others — and that goes for faculty as well as students”.

Denhardt suggests that the differentiation between pre-service and in-service students is needed: “students require different kinds of knowledge and skills at different points in their careers” [Denhardt: 527]. Nonetheless he sees the possibility of learning from each other if these audiences are taught together. One part of the class has life-experience and broader world-view (‘know-how’, ‘know-who’ and ‘know-why’); they can link new knowledge to the existing one. The others are good learners (‘know-what’) but they do not have the context where to put the new knowledge in. These groups can support each other in acquiring the ‘hybrid knowledge’ [see Chatterton, Goddard]. The challenge for Public Administration educators (see Denhardt’s fourth question) is to choose learning methods that take advantage of this composition. In-service and pre-service students should not necessarily be separated.

So as Denhardt [Denhardt: 532] recommends, if designing different curricula is impossible due to the size of the programme, ‘a set of common core courses might be followed by different electives’. The current content of elective subjects’ module of the LGA curriculum is a little unsystematic, although every subject has a justification and reason. There is no obvious linkage between courses and it is unclear whether they are intended for in-service or pre-service students. There are many courses of different languages, including the state language, Estonian. This is an obvious linkage with the region’s needs, because students enter College with quite different levels of language skills. Estonian is
the language of instruction in the College and it is necessary to be fluent in it if one wishes to work in public service.

While wishing to respond to the needs of the society one must not forget that higher education is not a ‘weather vane’; it should help people to develop and must provide the basic knowledge that will shape students’ world-view. If future employers ask for more service training, it should not come at the expense of theory. In order to respond to the needs of society adequately and to be foresighted whenever possible, the LGA curriculum will focus on the improvement of electives. A student who wishes to continue the studies must be able to study more theory and a student who plans to enter the labour market immediately after the graduation must get even more practical knowledge.

**Human Capital Formation and Knowledge Transfer**

The core idea of human capital formation is how to transfer the right knowledge to the right people and what the role of higher education institutions in regional human capital systems / labour market is.

One of the most effective mechanisms for knowledge transfer is the knowledge which is embedded in students and graduates. This is a critical element of the regional role played by higher education institutions. Thus, ‘human capital formation’ considers the broader significance of labour market processes for the technological and organisational dynamism of regions [OECD: 143–164]. Chatterton and Goddard [Chatterton, Goddard: 489] elaborate that the most effective knowledge transfer mechanism between HEIs and the external environment is through the institutional teaching function, that is to say through staff and students.

A Universities’ role in the human capital system is performing two functions; firstly, it is supplying highest level skills for the national economies: graduates. Secondly, universities also play a role on the demand side of human capital — if universities become better at opening pathways downwards to access non-traditional higher education students, they can increase the upwards drive, within the general population, for a process of up skilling that will help to produce economic growth. In this way, universities are seen as a critical connection in the human capital pyramid that, in turn, helps to determine competitiveness and economic growth in particular places [Arbo, Benneworth: 39].

OECD [OECD: 143] states three points that explain how HEIs are involved in human capital formation: first, higher education institutions can widen access to
higher education, particularly from remote areas and / or communities with low traditions of participation in higher education e.g. through lifelong and e-learning activities. Second, they can improve the balance between labour market supply and demand through creating improved labour market intelligence, enhancing links with the employers and supporting new enterprise. Third, higher education institutions can attract talent to the region and help to retain it.

Taking that as the basis, in this chapter we analyse the questions of widening the student body (finding the right people to study Public Administration all over the country; keeping them by providing more flexible ways to study) and its connection with the local labour market.

To ensure the inflow of highly motivated students, Narva College carries out some projects that help to increase trust towards the College. With activities aimed at the general public — Children’s University, Pre-college, Teachers’ Club for high school learners, public lectures, quizzes, Olympiads, etc. — the College prepares and develops the target group (offspring) for themselves and the other HEIs. This way more people will understand the essence of higher education and, perhaps, they will take a more adequate decision whether that is appropriate for them. It can also help people to choose the right profession. The College does not necessarily win in quantity, but it surely does in the quality of entrants.

For finding the best PA students there are some additional and more specific measures. Most important is to let the public know this curriculum exists and it is in Narva. The LGA curriculum is introduced at special events for local government officials because many of them do not have PA education. In addition, there are different training programs and public debates that help introducing the speciality. To increase trust towards the curriculum, the best graduation theses are sent to well-known and respected professionals for critique and evaluation. For the same reason one weakness actually becomes an advantage — since there are few lecturers in Narva, the College can invite the best ones from different HEIs of Estonia.

Finding motivated students from all over the country is important in many ways; mostly it is useful for the region, also for the students themselves. In what ways it is useful for the students and their studies is described in the next part of the article. The region gets new talents, who first come to practical training with local governments and then, perhaps, stay to work there.

Finding good students is just the first step. It is quite a challenge to keep them in a peripheral college. Pre-service students can stay at the College’s dormitory and focus on studying, but in-service students, that the College is at least equally
interested in, do not often stay in Narva. Every time they have lectures (twice a month at weekends) they have to make a decision – to go or not to go. At the end of the second year of study, after their first practical training, pre-service students are often asked to continue their work in those organisations. Some of them do so and also become in-service students. By the time of graduation most of the students have a job. This is a good result but it also demands a proper action from the College’s side. It is very important to offer the students flexible ways to study, at the same time without compromising on the quality. One way of doing that is e-support and e-courses. An additional advantage of e-courses for PA students is that in this way students get better acquainted with different e-services which are well developed and highly appreciated in Estonia.

All lecturers can rely on different types of e-support. It is possible to communicate with the students who have signed for the course and display the study material through the Study Information System. This possibility is used in most subjects. Web-based study moves upward mainly due to the fact that many lecturers do not work in College full-time. Creating web-based courses in Estonia is supported by the European Social Fund (over 7 million Euros in 2008–2013). The combination of distance learning and contact education is comparable to the Provincial University of Lapland which is situated in the sparsely populated northern part of Finland [OECD: 150].

Human capital formation in the region can be achieved by HEIs, if they observe the (future) needs and changes of labour market and react to them. The unemployment rate in Ida-Viru County (the region in which Narva belongs) is quite high — 16 %. “Statistical research concluded that Russian-speaking minorities in Estonia and Latvia have a significantly higher probability of being unemployed compared to the titular population of these countries” [Elsuwege: 23]. For the College it means that the education it offers should not be too abstract or too theoretical. We cannot do without it if we are offering higher education. Yet in Ida-Viru County it is very important to help people to do their work better, to provide them with practical guidance; to help them to find a better job, succeed in their career. That is why the LGA speciality is a professional (applied) higher education programme and not a more academic Bachelor’s programme. Also the specialization must not be too narrow. Too narrow specialization is one of the reasons why former factory-workers are now unemployed in Narva.

The LGA curriculum is taught in Estonian. Many people simply cannot cope with it and they quit. As it has been mentioned above, the task to fulfil after recruiting good students is to keep them. Since civil service prerequisites speak-
ing Estonian at the highest level, the College is not going to change the language of instruction. Instead, different CLIL (content and language integrated learning) methods are used. By graduation time students are good specialists and speak fluent Estonian. So, even if they do not find a job in the public sector, they still have an advantage on the labour market.

We are building an environment where we want to live and work. We try to prepare our students to improve the society. This is really a twofold issue: if our graduates succeed in their career, we might attract more students and then there will be more educated people in the region; if the society is more mature and innovative, more people have a good education, HEI can operate with wiser partners, and everybody wins.

**Cultural and Community Development**

‘Cultural and community development’ looks to the wider community engagement of higher education institutions. It reviews the attitudes and practices of higher education institutions in relation to the social, cultural and environmental development of the region, not only as means to economic progress but also as ends in themselves [OECD: 165–180].

Through the third role HEIs are one of several actors involved in the governance of the local civic society. The ways to act as a community developer are, for example, providing leadership, analysis, credibility while participating in regional networks. They also provide a framework through which ideas can be shared and transmitted. A second aspect of the service role of HEIs concerns community and voluntary action in the region. Third, HEIs own a number of facilities such as libraries, sports centres, and arts and cultural venues that are often significant regional facilities offering public access [Chatterton, Goddard: 490, 493].

The keywords of regional development are social cohesion and sustainability. Next, we will see how Narva College and the LGA curriculum are supporting them. We analyse if there are any threats or shortcomings in this matter.

In Narva the biggest threats to unity have social-demographic character. One big issue is the integration of Russians into the Estonian society.

One can observe obvious differences in the cultures of Estonians and Russians in Narva. In this case it is not just cultures we are talking about, but different civilisations. ‘The countries around the Baltic Sea are in possession of two civilisations of global relevance: the Western Christian and the Orthodox’
In the last decades integration in Estonia has had many success stories and some failures. Integration should not be a task of one ministry; it should be a task for many different stakeholders. As a large portion of the Russian speaking population lives in Narva and in Ida-Viru County, it is the College’s moral obligation to support the integration process.

Social cohesion or unity in the community can be supported only if a HEI’s presence is felt by the community. In addition to academic affairs, it is sometimes good to retreat from the core competence just to remind the community of HEI’s existence and offer something else. In case of Narva College, there are different cultural and sports events organised. Since the College was established, it has acted as an ambassador of Estonian language and culture in the Russian speaking region. There is a small unit in College that organises different events (Independence Day, Citizen’s Day, Mother Tongue Day) and language and constitution courses. Estonian film nights, concerts of Estonian artists, guests from the state government, the book fair, donations to an orphanage, school break programmes for children, science fairs, sports competitions for high-school pupils, promoting a physically active lifestyle, opening a free ice-rink, etc. – these are some activities the College is involved in. It also keeps its library open to guests and organises bus-trips to the biggest concert hall in the region. Through all that the College is trying to bring two nationalities closer to each other.

Since integration and cross-cultural communication is such an important issue, it is necessary to support it outside and inside the College.

A public servant must be competent but also tolerant and have a broad world-view. Narva is a periphery. Many students who are from Narva have not travelled much in Estonia and do not know how people live elsewhere. A public servant, even in local government, should know how things are organised in other regions and learn from it. To ease the problem the College organises field trips approximately once a year for every speciality (for LGA even more often). The aim of field trips is broadening, deepening and illustrating the knowledge the students gain during lectures and other forms of classroom work. One aim of field trips is to establish networks (‘know-who’ from [Chatterton, Goddard]) with future employers. Visiting different public sector institutions broadens the students’ comprehension about the different choices they have in finding a job. The other reason is less connected to the curriculum and studying. The
more people travel, the more they feel connection with other regions and the less they feel excluded. ‘The language barrier has created a situation that the non-Estonians feel being trapped into their own world’ [Küün: 129]. It would be wrong to assume that learning the Estonian language changes the situation automatically, but it surely helps.

Recruiting some students outside Ida-Viru County would promote integration and language studies as well. Joint activities give common memories, and that unites people. Studying together is a very active joint activity. Lecturers have to acknowledge the fact that they are teaching in a multicultural environment and overcome the difficulties that sometimes occur. Giving Estonian and Russian youth the chance to study together, going to practical trainings in other parts of Estonia, studying topics that are above nationalities, learning to understand Estonian law and state governing system, learning different languages — these are the actions that help improving the integration process. It is useful to exchange the experiences between those people who have finished schools with Estonian as the language of instruction and those who have finished Russian-medium schools. The curricula of these schools are mostly the same but the teaching methods and outcomes vary significantly. There will be a real need to use Estonian as the language of group work and other conversations which is missing right now, and Russian speaking students usually speak Russian in group work. Estonians have a wonderful possibility to study Russian in Narva — language classes are supported by the environment. It is useful for officials to know the language that is spoken by a quarter of Estonia’s population. Moreover, the Constitution of the Republic of Estonia § 51 states: in localities where at least one-half of the permanent residents belong to a national minority, everyone has the right to also receive responses from state agencies, local governments, and their officials in the language of the national minority.

Obviously integration and social cohesion play a very important role in Narva College’s community service. But as it was said at the beginning of this chapter, the other important keyword is sustainability.

Sustainable development of the region can be achieved only in cooperation of many interest groups. The regional engagement of HEI most often means cooperation with local government, entrepreneurs, non-governmental organisations and volunteers.

Narva College could be more present in local and regional networks. The college has an extensive experience in writing strategic documents and reports. City and county governments should gain from this but they do not. Is it the
College's responsibility to offer itself or regional governments' responsibility to ask for help? Since it is easier to change your own behaviour, the members of academic staff and administration should be better aware of on-going developments in their field in the county and city. If the trust of being competent and interested is formed, proposals of cooperation will follow.

The PA curriculum has exceptional possibilities of supporting cooperation between sectors. Here are some examples from the LGA curriculum. The practical training is divided into four parts: the first two are in local government and some tasks involve working with partners outside the municipality. The third part of the practical training is done in a state agency — county government, ministry, etc. One of the tasks is comparing the organisation with local government — what is different, what is similar. This definitely helps to understand the partners. The final part can be carried out ether in the private sector or in a NGO. The reasons, and some tasks, are similar to the third part. There are also some subjects that promote public-private partnership (PPP) and teach students to see the society as a whole, not just their own specific job. A good example here is the subject called Third sector: in order to get a good grade in the subject, students are required to do some voluntary work.

Narva College is not like many other HEIs that struggle with community service. This is a natural part of the College's existence. Sometimes the ‘third role’ becomes so overwhelming that it seems like the most important one. Probably Narva College should be careful not to lose the focus as there are three equally important roles of HEI. The College's challenge is to connect the ‘third role’ tightly to the ‘first’ and ‘second’ roles. Every action should support the College's mission; it should not be sporadic or accidental.

Conclusions
As we have seen, the three roles of university are tightly interdependent. Even if university lecturers and researchers do not acknowledge it, they are involved in community service. Still, there are also some deeds that are less connected to research and teaching. They depend on the needs of the society and are different in different regions.

The reasons to get engaged in regional development can be different at various levels. The main reason is that university can obtain more qualified and aware partners to develop together with the region; and more aware student candidates who know what they want from university. To what degree university can be
engaged in regional development — this is a question about balance. It seems that there is no limit but the focus of the institution itself must not get lost.

The aim of this article was to examine the possibilities that can be used through curriculum development. Listen to the suggestions of the partners, train the partners, and train good employees for the partners. In curriculum development it means that some decision making rights should be left to HEIs and the programme councils of the curricula. Otherwise the decision making process would be too slow and hindered. Public Administration curricula are a good means for HEIs’ community service and regional engagement due to their really close interdependence with society. Some factors to consider are the content of the curriculum (hybrid knowledge); the methods and ways to deliver the knowledge (depends on the composition of the student body); and extra-curricular activities that help to connect the students with the community.

In this article we got acquainted with the Local Government’s Administration curriculum that is taught in Narva College of the University of Tartu, which is located in the Russian speaking region of Estonia. We examined what kind of knowledge is created within the frames of this curriculum, how the knowledge is transferred and how it contributes to the milieu, social cohesion and sustainable development.

The specific conclusions for Narva College and its Local Government’s Administration curriculum are:

- Sporadic and accidental but very strong ‘third role’ — the challenge is to make the link with College’s other activities stronger.
- Elective subjects should be more connected to the rest of the curriculum and to give a wider choice between theoretical and practical subjects.

In conclusion it can be stated with confidence — community service is carried out at various levels and much can be done with curriculum development, especially in the field of Public Administration.
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A Multidisciplinary Approach to Specialists Training in CPE System with Combined Specialities

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The global specialists training tasks are based on applying new development technologies and approaches. The modern specialists training degree, adapted to the traditional education systems, is defined by providing the demands of continuing education, with the theoretical skills required for lasting renewal and specialists skill upgrading, which is going on not through the labour inputs and the increasing education period but at the cost of improving the quality of rendered educational services. For that matter the multidisciplinary approaches, the progressive forms of the educational process organization researching and implementation, correspond to the modern world level, improve the educational process quality and effectiveness and allow for the provision of higher vocational and continuing professional education in the frame of the Bologna process.

Russia, as a European-wide higher education process formation participant, should use the Bologna process and its mechanisms for higher education system educational tasks solutions, and the Russian programs positioning in the region and develop the international educational services market more effectively. It is necessary to state the fact that, next to Estonia which joined to the Bologna declaration in 1999, Russia entered to Bologna process in the autumn of 2003.

Nowadays higher professional education, including NEFU, should correspond to society and market demands where the changing requirements of people will increase their role and value of given continuous education level in the future. The multidisciplinary approach provides a good implementation for education, promoted by the education European-wide space, which performs the combined educational programs and is allowing expansion of the educational programs content.

The Teacher’s Enhancement Institute NEFU is putting into the practice the multidisciplinary approach and carries out not only teachers’ all-around training but also for students’. Along with the basic educational program the students
start the course training on the professional retraining educational program, which they finished during the first year of professional retraining, and gain the state-recognized diploma of professional retraining, giving the right for this new activity type.

The educational program compositions, with regard to passed disciplines offsets based on analysis, comparison and joining of the basic educational program with the educational retraining courses program, allow to better study the disciplines.

The professional retraining courses program developed by TEI meet the requirements of the Russian system of continuing professional education, arising due to all levels of the Russian education modernization strategic tasks wide spectrum; takes into account long-term Russian and international experience of specialists training in the continuing professional education sphere, also the requirements of the educational services market.

The educational process development logic and the professional retraining course programs realization approach make possible:

- to plunge the trainer into the modern educational monitoring context and the researching and, thus, to promote their professional personal enrichment;
- to provide complex insight into modern Russian Republic society atmosphere as whole and particularly in education;
- to get knowledge and skills in the new type of activity necessary for adequate and their professional activity development process effective management;
- to stock mind with knowledge and skills in the pedagogic activity sphere, psychology, sphere education designing and researching taking into account social practice;
- be able to use reflexive techniques for self-education, own professional activity critical analysis, and living perspective correction;
- to present the professional retraining direction problems in the wider context of Russian education development, such as commitment to the new education results, coordination of traditional academic education trend and new approaches within practice.

After graduation from the education course of the selected professional retraining course the trainers should be well guided in education development perspectives and problems, to understand the new educational technologies place and role, including ICT, in the modern Russian education system, these
technologies provide educational potential; they have an analytic and reflexive capabilities spectrum providing the capability to activate and perform reforming projects, education system modernization and education system management at all levels — from a certain school subject educational sphere and a certain school, within the region and the Federation using information and communication technologies; get knowledge and skills in the new type of activity necessary for adequate and effective management of the development process of their professional activity; get (expand and develop) knowledge and skills in the pedagogic activity sphere; psychology, designing and researching in the education sphere taking into account social practice; demonstrate interpersonal, group and other communication experience for further self-education and teaching, for effective professional activity and management decision making; able to use reflexive techniques for self-education, critical analysis of own professional activity with life perspectives correction; have the ideas of digital educational resources production practices and to have its elementary development skills.

The professional education retraining course program should be organized in IT-filled sphere and containing what is necessary for providing extra-mural (distant) education and achievement of individual educational results. The educational process should be organized as a self-researching capability, providing self-education on individually selected professional retraining courses, through wide access to information resources, through continuous web-pedagogic support, individual support and web-consulting. So, teacher professional development is a continuous process including skills upgrading and theoretical skills renewal. In this case the emphasis is upon a continuous vocational education system which the Teacher’s Enhancement Institute provides. Adult education is growing significance i.e. andragogy education is the admitted fact. Modern society demands mobility, able to change adequately within a rapidly changing world of conditions for specialists. Training and retraining of highly professional specialists are a more important stage.

Multidisciplinary work formation supposes not only the whole education process building and taking into account individual approach to every trainer, their psychological, social characteristics, but also the various university departments’ specialists’ cooperation, who themselves promote work content, forms and in addition spread-out methods.

Such an approach provides advance specialists training in accordance with actual directions from general secondary education system development; future specialists social support, choosing their educational pathways and building
support — “education during all over life” — according to their capabilities and skills, labour market demands; this allows to put into practice system work in a continuous education integrative system with quality improvement in all education stage: school — pre-profile, profile training, HEI — professional training, continuing professional education — and skills upgrading.

The modern specialist should have an imposing special knowledge range, both within the subject field and related fields, where the main factor in such achievement of results is professional competency and teacher level upgrading.

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Informative Communication Technologies as a Teacher’s Professional Development Resource

Petr Skryabin, Julia Skryabina (Yakutsk)

Problem Updating
Wide spread informative communication technologies in all human activity spheres presents an information growing role and makes changes in modern society life. Information technologies and development of global communication devices over the period of many decades promotes significant improvement of distribution methods, information collection and processing, speeding up of information work and information work quality improvement. Every year the new kind of information interoperability appears in the world.

The Russian Federation North East great territory, with a paucity of populated places, long distances between these populated places and, as a result, an undeveloped transport infrastructure, plus high cost fare to Yakutsk city, are main problems preventing communication interoperability, continuing professional education organization, experience dissemination, and providing educator methodic support. Computer media educational resources, that correspond to the modern Russian and world education system modernization transformation, are undeveloped. A lot of Russia’s North East schools are situated in distant out-off-the-way places (in countryside). Under current conditions, especially in population low density regions and ill-developed transport infrastructure, distance education as a continuing teacher education system development is the only real mechanism.

Today pedagogic science has amassed experience for future distance education ideas development (A. A. Andreev, Y. N. Afanasyev, Y. N. Demin, A. M. Bereshadskyi, T. P. Voronina, I. G. Kraevskyi, M. V. Moiseeva, E. S. Polat, Y. L. Pervin, V. A. Sadovnichyi and other). Teacher continuing education system and system information support problems in Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) conditions were
analyzed in writings of E. A. Barahsanova, A. V. Zhozhikova, V. V. Maksimova, V. G. Syromyatnikova, S. M. Fedorova, O. M. Chorosova and others.

Information support, as one part of important education system modernization, is focused on arrangement of conditions for citizen information demands and satisfaction, with equal possibilities to guarantee getting education at all levels. Under the continuing education system of information support it is planning to realize complex updating of continuing professional education operation processes at all levels, with educational process ICT-support. The current direction main objectives are information streams account and regulation at all levels of a continuing professional education integrative system (immediate and control data change supporting among education system structures), management activity data support (conditions arrangement for quantitative and qualitative analysis of all continuous vocational education in further vocational education (FVE) part system operation aspects, perspective tendencies, ideas and reforming methods detection), information management technologies development (management effectiveness guaranteed improvement), immediate and authoritative information receiving allowing for the taking of grounded decisions, and to improve education services quality (decision support system establishment), also continuing development of professional education integrative system subjects in respect of information culture. Achievement of these objectives is solved through realisation of tasks related to automated systems implementation to educational areas of continuous vocational education and, at the same time — usage information technologies in professional activity training, retraining, skill upgrading of system organization for all employee categories.

The North-Eastern Federal University, named after the M. K. Ammosov educator continuing education informative educational Internet portal project “WEBKAFEDRA”, is developed for the purpose of establishing of an informative educational sphere of school educational process support, oriented on future University entrants preparedness for upgrading to HEI.

This Portal is the new model “School-HEI” implementation NEFU resource base, and it allows the educator to build his or her skill upgrading and distance education professional retraining personal educational trajectory and to get educator methodic support consisting of best work experience dissemination and to network interaction special virtual conditions regardless of location. The portal provides support and professional oriented social network development (teacher’s professional practice communities), it will allow putting into practice the “Education through virtual interaction and on-line cooperation” approach.
The project is realized according to common worldwide standards of SCORM 1.2 e-learning and directed to educator continuous education system development, openness securing, quality improvement availability through education new forms and methods introduction through ICT, e-learning and complied to educator training global information society demands, culture and language characteristic properties and securing of worldwide standards correspondence.

The multifunctional portal has teacher data setting opportunities (different files attachment) — video lessons, methodological information, etc. It supports open sign-in, different formats files interchange — as among teachers as with other participants, forums, with every teacher's professional activity information (portfolio and profile), allowing to control the teachers activity, knowledge and communications network interchange capabilities in various forms with evidence from Facebook and Ning social networks. It has a mailout service allowing educators to be immediately informed about all current events, innovative variations, etc. It has the capability to obtain contact among users, to create professional interests groups and education courses for skill upgrading. It has a separate system of NEFU’s educator distant skill upgrading with an educational programs depositary (educational modules). The user data collection, it analyses by a distribution system of progressive academic information and it portal distribution is carried out.

The technologies of tools and software, distant, e-, and / or composite (mixed) personified education are developed and adopted; they secure the technologic development basis of educators (working in the Russian Federation North East and beyond) and a career advancement unit methodic informative educational sphere. Wide varieties of standards services (forums, web blogs, messengers, etc.) are using as well as distant, e-learning specific software (education managing resources, e-learning resources and content managing researches, testing and competency evaluation, e-portfolio development and control, professional social networks and practice communities support, full-text e-libraries establishment and control, etc.).

During the academic year, according to the curriculum, the trainer should collect 144 credit hours or pass 4 credit units / credits for successful completion of the program of courses for skill upgrading: 2 credit units — subject intramural variative modules, 2 credits — common questions extramural module (distant/case). One hour workload value is 36 hours. The trainers take a fundamental course invariant and variant part depending on individual the educational
Informative Communication Technologies as a Teacher’s Professional Development Resource

pathway. The variant part is presented with educational modules worked out by NEFU academic teaching staff. The invariant part is worked out by the Teacher’s Enhancement Institute according to federal state requirements. From our point of view the distant course has a significant difference from intramural education in that, during the distant course, the trainer should have much self-independence, responsibility and self-discipline. As we see, motivation for distant education has not only an economic benefit and on-job training, but also teacher’s PC competency upgrading and self-education both demand an understanding. For adult trainers whose need is in self-independence, self-education plays a key role in their education process in the context of andragogy, especially in this process parameter determination. Under changing social pedagogic conditions the trainers become skills upgrading and training courses authors. The sphere of educator primary professional education system innovative simulation is realized in just such directivity. It is provided by skill upgrading and realization of the educator professional retraining storage system in the integral system frame of on-line distant education.

The course trainers note their own computer competency rising, and the convenience of a portal interface, and the portal arrangement as social network, is another advantage. The following distant course trainers’ satisfaction indicators were detected by the following questionnaire:

- All course content blocks present information at a high level
- Educational process theoretic methodical foundations — 0.12 satisfaction index; educational process psychology pedagogic foundations — 0.10 index satisfaction; general education block — 0.32;
- Educator computer competency significant rising (0.11 index) during proposed program education;
- Timetable flexibility in program course development (0.32 index);
- An Educator activity practice oriented nature (0.20 index);
- Monitoring instruments equipment (0.15 index);
- Proposed reference to supplementary books (0.23 index);
- Course creative orientation, motivating educators to their own initiative uprising (0.27 index);
- Individual approach to educators (0.27 index);
- Proposed program education financing practicability (0.41 index);
- On-job training (0.45 index);
Course practice has a significant impact on professional competencies development: motivational (0.31 influence index), professional educational (0.38 influence index), professional pragmatist (influence index 0.38), professional personal (influence index 0.31), informative communicative (influence index 0.33).

The "WEBKA:FEDRA" portal distant educational sphere is organized to make possible an individual choosing of topics for independent research — through broad access to information resources, through continuing pedagogic support, individual support and consultation, and the opportunity for a 'getting to know' in education and other contexts.

The Portal future development is network interaction and international cooperation extension; components realization and implementation and functional multilingual possibilities, mobile devices and tablet PC hardware capacities enforcement; full-featured multimedia educational resources establishment; IPTV usage capabilities realization in relation to the Russia North East communication links, communication networks systematic improvement and data-centers equipment modernization. Since process datum for work with video data is cheaper than a classical TV analog, it has wide capabilities and development perspectives so the resources actuality, oriented on work in any given sphere, is extremely high. The applied corresponding technologies will allow us to create a new generation of educational services, different with high information capacity, interactive multi-user mode work capability, which also allows us to create new generation interfaces capable to visibly speed up and automatize the education process with trainer and teacher interaction. In the near future Internet educational resources based on video data will one of the most popular.

All interactive work providing these conditions are established in our University for the setting of tasks realization. Distant education systems operation, within an international experience is also an actual network interaction for further development.
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1. Introduction
The modern Internet resources help in creation of the language environment that motivates and stimulates the development of language learning strategies. The work in such a teaching environment provides the possibility to master the material efficiently and opens new opportunities for acquaintance with important authentic information about the target language country.

The need to study the language and style of network press by foreign students is accounted for by the fact that the media-text of the network press, as a discursive phenomenon, serves as a component of formation of media culture, demonstrates the interaction of language and culture, is a set of views about the categories of national world perception and a form of storage and dissemination of cultural values. The linguistic-culturological knowledge, gained by studying the network press, is necessary for successful communication; the inclusion of such material in the educational process makes it possible to create a technological language-teaching environment for work with authentic texts, for formation of aggregate foreign-language competences [Богомолов].

Students stay in continuous contact with the changing picture of the world in Russia, with live images of the Russian language personality during the study process of network press texts within the lessons of Russian as a foreign language.

The media text of network press can be actively used at the advanced stage of education. Students are always attracted by interactive studying, opportunities for independent work and the breadth of the information field, which ultimately affects the increase of their motivational level [Трофимова].
Understanding that the text of a network press is tightly saturated by cultural information allows us to consider it as a three-dimensional multi-dimensional phenomenon, characterized by a deep and layered structure [Добросклонская].

Media texts of the network press form the information culture: skills and ways of working with the information, skills of critical attitude to the information, communication skills in an interactive mode, skills to build relationships with the surrounding social world, ability to organize the communication space [Тычкова].

Hypertextuality, interactivity, multi-media character, peculiarities of structure and language of the network press open new opportunities for mastering the culturological and country-specific material. The socio-cultural analysis of the media-text is not only an effective tool for its adequate comprehension, it is also a means of forming due stylistic competence in mastering the Russian language.

2. Stylistic Peculiarities of Mass Editions “Time Out Moscow”, “Time Out Petersburg” and “OK!”

The heading “Exhibitions. News” of the Internet-editions “Time Out Moscow” and “Time Out St. Petersburg” was chosen as a part of our research. The heading “High Life” in the magazine “OK!” corresponds to the heading “Exhibitions. News”.

We analyzed the news stories of the online versions of these magazines published within a period of six months. It was found that the number of news stories in each of the above publications is about the same. The design of news stories was completely identical. The distinctive qualities of the content of news stories of all publications are timeliness, accuracy, clarity and precision of presentation, enough textured content, the absence of inaccuracies and errors. Characteristic features of the publications are bright large print of the titles, expressive and eye-catching photos, and multimedia - the ability to view gallery of images and videos.

3. Typological Peculiarities of News Stories

In all of the analyzed journals the titles are accompanied by mandatory presentational visual signs: specially decorated materials of photo sessions; semantic plot drawings, metaphoric photo collages. This use of multimedia features in
network press is both the author's self-expression and the involvement of the recipient.

It should be noted that the choice of illustrations in Moscow and St. Petersburg “Time Out” editions varies. Illustrations of “Time Out Moscow” present news stories, serve as a kind of of “decoding” or the addition to the title.

For example, the new story “In the Moscow parks appeared three-dimensional picture” framed with the semantic image: photos of paintings painted on the pavement in 3D. The new story “Pictures will walk through the streets in the weekend” is opened with the illustration depicting “sandwich-men” from both sides stuffed with billboards. This picture illustrates the opaque headlines perfectly and supplements the lead story. The headline “The museum of Soviet gaming machines is opened” is accompanied by the photo of machines.

“OK!” is full of illustrative material, functioning only as a supplement to the article as and in the title. On the basis of the analyzed material we can conclude that almost all news stories are provided with simple pictures of the events and do not carry any semantic value. Photos are even published before the titles. The edition retains the choice of illustrations of its format — “to cover the life of stars”. For “OK!” is not so important WHAT and WHERE, the most significant is WHO. It is difficult to find a picture illustrating the event itself.

In the “Time Out St. Petersburg”, apart from being similar in the simplicity and understandability of illustrations (article “Exhibition of adverts in Russia 1900–1920”, is framed with a picture of the poster of an electric light bulb), a series of news stories (almost half of the analyzed material) is provided with metaphoric photographs and drawings, images, designed not only to attract attention, but to surprise and shock the reader. The headings, and also illustrations selected by the author, look extraordinary and sometimes shocking.

For example, in the article “The image of death in art” from the listed sculpture of ancient Mexico, medieval portrait miniatures, stained glass windows of the temples, paintings and illustrations, the author selected the photograph of a cat, on the neck of which sits a miniature of death with a scythe. The news story “Explanation Kills ART Photo Contest”, devoted to the contest of artistic photography, is equipped with a black and white photograph of a girl holding a raw fish in her mouth. The news story “The scream in the art” is accompanied by a picture of an image similar to the work of Edward Munch’s “Scream”. The news story “Michael Alexander” about his museum attraction “The horrors of St. Petersburg” is accompanied by a photo of Alexander with a wax head of Grigory Rasputin in his hands.
4. Headlines of News Stories

The causal correlation of linguistic features with typical signs of selected editions is determined by the analysis of structural components of the news stories [Лысакова]. Together with the illustrative material (as a manifestation of such typological feature of network press as a multimedia character) the headline concentrates in itself the content of the text. The title serves the appellative function: in addition to naming the theme, it provides an assessment, which programs the perception. The heading style is in the style of a news story.

The appellative function predominates in the headlines of news stories of “Time Out Moscow”: they contain an expressed assessment in colloquial speech (“cops”, on Ordynka, the people went to “culturate themselves” (in the meaning “to become civilized”, “Art Moscow” gains by selling), or expression in the form of syntactic.

The assessment appears in using the metonymy (pictures will go — not people with pictures), and in the estimation lexicon (the authorities will make them love). Such a vivid manifestation of estimation in the lexicon is compensated by the lack of appellativity and imagery in the illustrative material. The main task of the author here is just to illustrate the material correctly, to decrypt the headline, to make it attractive to the reader (the article “A new device of the “cops” — alcohol laser — will be represented at the Exhibition Centre” is accompanied by a large photograph of an alcohol laser).

The appellative function in the titles of news stories in “OK!” is less pronounced. In neutral language they are closer to the title headings of “Time Out St. Petersburg”. Colloquial lexicon is found only in 2 titles (“party”) out of 27. The assessment appears in the use of a popular foreign lexicon — pre-party, after-party. Structurally, the headlines are different syntactic structures (6 two-part extended sentences, 21 denominative sentences, one incomplete).

The headlines of “Time Out Petersburg” perform mostly a nominative function, and consist of the neutral lexicon: “Summer exhibition of ice sculptures”, “Sand sculptures festival”, “Photo exhibition”. There is no assessment. Availability of the assessment can be traced at the level of pictures as the components of the headlines.

Photos are not descriptive but embody, along with a title, an artistic image (conceived by the author). In most cases they leave the meaning of the headlines unclear for the reader (the article ”Simple Things” is accompanied by a diffuse image of girl’s feet, the article “Red — means beautiful” has a blurred image of a girl in a red dress).
In the headlines of “Time Out Petersburg” brevity and restraint of the titles appeal to the intellectual public, able to appreciate and understand the meaning of words. For someone who does not know the art center “Pushkinskaya, 10” the title “The Birthday of Pushkinskaya, 10” will remain opaque: possibly, it is a cafe, restaurant, shop, club, museum, etc. Perhaps, this is “caste” tendency of “Time Out Petersburg”: its audience — intelligent young people, who are able to identify by a single word the following content of a news story, or at least such, who have an idea which will be discussed. “Bertrand Plan in the Loft Project FLOORS” — there it is not explained who is Bertrand and the Loft Project FLOORS (see “Polytechnical will be turned into the best science museum” — full clarity of the Moscow edition’s title).

The headlines of news stories in “Time Out Moscow” contain lexicon and syntax of colloquial language and openly expressed emotional assessment. The headlines of “Time Out Petersburg” are designed in the literary style, with a higher semantic generalization. The headlines of “OK!” are characterized by the lack of clearly defined assessment in the lexicon, but the use of colloquial syntax brings the magazine “OK!” together with “Time Out Moscow”. It demonstrates the massive thrust of the edition.

5. Leads of News Stories

If we turn to the texts of news stories, mainly to their leads, it may be noted that appellativity of leads in “Time Out Petersburg” is expressed by the descriptive-ness and the author-chosen landscape of a cloudy sky and its reflection in the river in the painting by I. Levitan, “The Lake” (an example of the news story “The sky in the art”). There is no summary of the event in the text, there is no formality and neutrality in the speech. Language is colloquial, the tone is not official or neutral, and it is confidential and friendly. It is as if the author shares his thoughts and the perception of the sky, thus attracting the attention of the reader.

In contrast to the singularity of each lead in the St. Petersburg edition, the leads in “Time Out Moscow” and “OK!” are based on one pattern: explaining in spoken language WHAT (graffiti-hundred-meter map of Russia, archive pictures), WHEN (June 20, July 15) and WHERE (in Tushino tunnel, on the site in Troparevskom park, the building of the Tagansky court) will occur. For authors here, as at the level of illustrative material, it is primarily important to convey the meaning, causing the reader’s response to the concreteness of language and assessment indicated in the title of the news story.
6. Conclusions

The author, creating the news story and choosing these distinctive and memorable images, not only demonstrates an own creativity, and thus tends to join the reader into a joint dialogue, but also tries to find the response, not for a static snapshot explaining the news story, but for a specially selected or created image with the help of illustrations and made up title. But the process of perception and understanding will be different for each reader. Consequently, the recipient interprets the image, linking it with the headline, and re-creates their own text. Such an active position of the recipient becomes one of the major characteristics and provides feedback which is so necessary for the author.

Thus, at the level of analyzing genre specific features of media texts, we can make an inference about the importance of particular illustrative material in the network press. In the news stories of “Time Out Moscow” the authors cover popular topics, involve critical problems, waiting for the turbulent, sometimes aggressive reactions of the general reader. Photographs and drawings of “Time Out Moscow” and “OK!” are mostly optional and descriptive. The main task of the author is to illustrate the material correctly, to explain the title (and possibly lead) of the network news story, to make it clear and attractive to the reader. In this case, the illustration helps to explain the title. In the news stories of “Time Out St. Petersburg” the authors often refer to the illustrations as means of self-expression, dialogue with the reader and the search for the readers response. The selection of photos and drawings set the tone and nature of the discussion of the readers. Even the negative reviews are pronounced so rudely and aggressively as in the Moscow edition.

Multimedia is becoming not only the distinctive feature of the network press, but also affects other parts of the news story: title, lead, text. In “Time Out Moscow” and “OK!” the illustration is submitted to the heading (it explains it). In “Time Out of St. Petersburg” illustration is an important component of the news story — it visualizes the title. The image-bearing of the news story will not be there without the illustration.

Progressive learning will give a clear idea of genre peculiarities of the modern network press. It will form the practical skills of understanding the material, teach to understand the information and illustrative material correctly, single out the influence on the reader and author’s assessment. Therefore, it will enhance the understanding of critical situations and problems of the modern society and the whole world through the network press.
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II

TEACHING ENGLISH
AND TEACHING IN ENGLISH
Teaching English and Teaching in English: Good Practices and Conference Evidence from Narva

Nina Raud (Narva)

On November 1–2, 2012 Narva College of the University of Tartu hosted the fourth international joint CLIL and ELT scientific conference on teaching English and teaching in English. 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, 2010). The aim of the conference was to bring cultural awareness and innovation into content and language learning, and provide dissemination of research results in this field and discussion of best practices of English language teaching and learning. 110 participants from 11 countries joined the conference. The main topics of the conference were Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Foreign / English Language Teaching and Learning, Teacher Training for Multilingual and Multicultural School.

There were three plenary sessions during the conference, which introduced three topics of the conference and stimulated the discussion of issues of multilingualism and multiculturalism in a modern education environment. Plenary presenters were Fabrizio Maggi (Italy), Enn Veldi (Estonia), and Galina Maslova (Russia).

Fabrizio Maggi (University of Pavia, Italy) gave a plenary presentation “From Scaffolding to Peer Tutoring by Means of Web 2.0 Tools”. The presentation introduced different possibilities of using and exploiting Web 2.0 tools (Google Docs, Wikis, Blogs) in order to promote CLIL experiences and involve students in a very challenging and motivating task: peer to peer tutoring and teaching and peer to peer assessment. It also explored and pointed out the added value of these tools in facilitating and enhancing cooperation through scaffolding techniques.
Enn Veldi (University of Tartu, Estonia) in his presentation “Teaching how to Use Dictionaries Better” summarized his fifteen-year experience of teaching a course that focuses on skills of dictionary use. The first area that needs attention is knowledge of the existing lexicographic resources (general, learners’, and specialized dictionaries; monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual dictionaries, etc.). Also, one has to know the strengths and weaknesses of each dictionary format, such as print, CD-ROM, and online dictionaries. Expert dictionary users can be trained only through practice. Also, they need to develop expertise that enables them to assess dictionaries that they come across. Some training is devoted to solving problems when a word (or a sense) is not listed in dictionaries.

Galina Maslova (Pskov State University, Russia) discussed in her presentation “University Language Area as a Factor that Enhances the Efficiency of Students and Staff Mobility” different factors that affect academic mobility: lack of students’ motivation — which is caused by underestimating the outcomes of the mobility results, language problems — as there are not enough students and teachers with a command of English sufficient to solve professional tasks, and obstacles caused by the differences in national higher education systems. The author came to the conclusion that different structural components of the university language area, such as language classes within the formal educational setting, extra-curriculum international research and socially important projects, language courses for special purposes and informal intercultural events that enhance motivation to language learning, create a positive impact on the motivation to academic mobility. The umbrella of content and language integrated learning shelters all these components, which entail creating the university language area. This area, on the one hand, facilitates university internationalization and, on the other hand, promotes re-evaluating the university mission.

The discussion of the issues in foreign language teaching and learning, initiated during the plenary presentations, continued in three parallel sections. The section “Content and Language Integrated Learning” hosted 7 presentations by researchers from Austria, Serbia, the USA, the UK, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Bulgaria and Russia.

Vera Nesterova (Karelian Research Centre, Russian Academy of Sciences) gave a presentation “Practical Applications of CLIL: Materials selection and Lesson Planning at Post-Graduate Level”. The presentation described the difficulties in choosing the teaching programme to prepare post-graduate students of various scientific specialities for English Candidate exam (PhD), which is one of their obligatory examinations. The author considered the CLIL principles
(4 Cs) as applicable to the post-graduate level and their importance for enabling our students to learn in a foreign language, develop learner strategies and communicate effectively with their colleagues and peers, and become members of a world-wide scientific community.

Deborah Cain (USA ELF, Serbia) explored in her workshop “Environmentalism in the Classroom: Encouraging Students to Be Green” the “what’s”, “whys”, and “how’s” of environmental education as well as ways of how to set up a classroom that explores various issues related to “green learning”.

Helmut Maier (Pädagogische Hochschule Steiermark) analysed in his presentation “Can you Explain Traffic Lights? — How Children Explain their World in their First Written Texts” outcomes of the research project ("the hedgehog-stories") about the first written scientific essays in the Teacher Education College Steiermark, which are: every kind of writing comes out of oral communication; children develop their scientific writing (technical terminology) in steps; the first scientific texts are narrative stories, which refer back to individual experiences; generally valid statements derive from individual cases.

Sergey Khromov (Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics and Informatics (MESI)) introduced in his presentation “Integrated English Language E-teaching and E-learning — Blended Learning and Teaching Model (for Russian Students Studying Linguistics at the Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics and Informatics)” the blended model of teaching and learning English and other theoretical linguistic subjects (including the traditional model and e-learning model) at the Department of Linguistics and Cross-cultural Communication of the Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics and Informatics (MESI). The author considered the opportunities of the Virtual MESI-University campus — forums, blogs, tests, virtual exchange of files, presentations, e-lectures and e-books, different student written works. This model of learning and teaching is a new trend in a computer oriented didactics and some theoretical ground should be forwarded.

William B. Simons (Centre for EU-Russian Studies (CEURUS), the UK) gave a presentation “Teaching Foreign Law in English: Notes from the Field”. The author’s idea was to consider the optimal tools for teaching Foreign Law in English (including when the foreign law is not an English-language jurisdiction) — both from the point of view of the instructor and naturally, from that of the students.

Lisa Hundley’s (University of Tuzla /the USA) workshop “Seattle Writes: Using Student-Created Poetry in the Language Classroom” featured a lesson
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plan that can be conducted in a variety of settings and situations to elicit meaningful language through learner-composed poems. The session was based on the “Seattle Writes” civic poetry contest and lesson plans by 2009 Poet Populist Mike Hickey.

Erinn Struss (USA ELF / Shumen University) in her workshop “The Social Homework: A Comparison of Students’ Handwritten and Facebook ESL Compositions” shared her experience using Facebook as a writing tool in an intermediate reading and writing EAP class at an American language school. She compared handwritten texts and those written on Facebook, as well as sharing her own findings from her small, action research, study.

The section “Foreign Language Teaching and Learning (ELT)” included 8 presentations by researchers from Estonia and Russia.

Nina Nikonova (Pskov State University) concentrated in her presentation “English in the Classroom: an Overview” on current pedagogical ideas which reflect the situation of communication activity of Russian teachers of English, with a special focus being made on the quality of teaching materials and the way they are used in the class.

Ülle Türk (University of Tartu) in her presentation “Writing for Examinations and Writing for Life: is there a Contradiction?” discussed the characteristic features of the text types used in the examination (letter, essay, report), what we bear in mind when writing such texts in “real” life and how these features should be reflected in examination tasks. Typical mistakes made by students were highlighted and some advice given on how to improve the quality of student writing to ensure that students can cope not only with examination tasks but, more importantly, with real-life writing tasks.

Irina Petrova (Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology) analysed in her presentation “Strategies for Successful Organization of Independent Work” possible ways of maintaining learners’ engagement throughout a university on-line course; she reported on the finding of a recent survey conducted at Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology revealing students’ opinions about what motivates them to study independently harder and more regularly.

The presentation “Raising Students’ Motivation within the EFL Class through Multiple Intelligences Teaching Strategies” by Olga Luchka (Narva Kesklinna General Secondary School) discussed various aspects of the implementation of Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences in the English language.
class and demonstrated effectiveness of the MI strategies in raising students’ motivation for learning in the EFL classroom.

The importance of study materials to support language and content studies was discussed by Kristi Martin (Allecto Ltd) in her presentation “Dual Objectives in Every Lesson: One Linked to Language and One Related to CLIL”. The author presented the latest editions of ELT course books and analysed their content in terms of content and language support to students of English.

Margit Kirss (Viljandi Secondary School) gave a presentation on the topic “European Language Portfolio — a Possibility or a Must?”. In her presentation, the author confirmed that being a useful and creative tool ELP is a perfect companion for students and teachers.

Ene Peterson (Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology) in her presentation “How to Help Students Become Successful 21st Century Language Learners” analysed digital skills that are required by students and by teachers in the 21st century. The author demonstrated hands-on interactive learning activities that work across various levels and combine a face-to-face (F2F) classroom component with an appropriate use of technology in and outside the language classroom.

Nina Raud and Anna Golubeva (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in their joint presentation “Research in the EFL University Class: Contract Form” presented advantages of contract work in research activities to support students’ learning autonomy and interest in independent language studies.

The section “Teacher Training for Multilingual Multicultural Schools” included 5 presentations by researchers from Estonia, Finland, Hungary, and Russia.

Kristiina Jokinen (University of Tartu (Estonia-Finland)) gave a talk “Multimodal Interaction in the Context of Foreign Language Learning”. The author discussed issues related to multimodal communication in the context of foreign language learning; she focused especially on turn-taking and feedback giving processes in constructive conversational interactions, and drew examples from the corpus collected at the University of Tartu within the ETIS-project MINT.

Éva Ujlakyné Szűcs (Institute of Modern Languages, University of Kecskemét) in her presentation “Teaching and Learning to Teach English to Young Learners in Hungarian TEFL Teacher Training” introduced a primary school classroom teacher preparation programme which aimed to prepare future primary school teachers to teach English to young learners.
Ekaterina Alekseeva (Pskov Linguistic Gymnasia) suggested in her presentation “Development of Entrepreneurial Way of Thinking in the English Lessons” a new approach to devising special courses aimed at developing innovative, creative, and entrepreneurial thinking. The model to develop entrepreneurial thinking is comprised of three main components: motivation, critical thinking and creative thinking.

Tamara Gordina (Pärnu Vene Gümnnaasium) discussed in her presentation “COMENIUS Project as Means of Diversifying Teaching Practice” practical outcomes of Comenius project activities and their positive impact on improving language skills, ICT skills and social competences of both students and teachers.

Pille Lille and Olga Orehhova (Narva College of the University of Tartu) in their presentation “From Self-Reflection to Self-Perfection: Coaching CLIL Teachers to Great Work” focused on practical experience of coaching used at Narva College Coaching Centre for CLIL teachers. Such Centres (4 in total) were created in 2008 in cooperation with the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research and Estonian Integration and Migration Foundation. Since 2008 they have supported CLIL teachers all over Estonia and nowadays, due to the new National Curriculum which places great importance at using CLIL methodology, the Coaching Centres work with all interested teachers.

The international conference “Teaching English and Teaching in English” 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 English content and language teaching and learning. The conference was organised by Narva College of the University of Tartu and supported by the USA Embassy in Tallinn and the Estonian CLIL Network. The abstracts of the conference are available in the Abstract Book “Teaching English and Teaching in English (November 1–2, 2012, Narva, Estonia)” (ISBN 978-9985-4-0721-9) at www.narva.ut.ee/1152064.

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Teaching How to Use Dictionaries Better

Enn Veldi (Tartu)

The article summarizes the author’s fifteen-year experience of teaching two courses that focus on the skills of dictionary use. Most people, including students, believe that they know well enough how to use dictionaries. Unfortunately, this is far from being the case; many people tend to overestimate their expertise in this area. Dictionaries can be regarded as tools for language users that serve multiple purposes (language learning, translation, etc.). For this reason, some expert guidance and training are needed to make students appreciate dictionaries as important generalizations of language use. Regular use of high-quality dictionaries results in a good feel of Standard English; thus, dictionary-using skills are of critical importance in enhancing the quality of work for language professionals.

The past decades have witnessed several fundamental changes in the way dictionaries are compiled. These changes started with the corpus revolution of the 1980s, which meant that dictionaries started to be compiled on the basis of solid empirical evidence in the form of electronic text. Some of the major advantages of corpus analysis include a much better understanding of lexical frequency and co-text (usage patterns, collocations, idioms, and linguistic variation). The emergence of various new dictionary formats, such as CD-ROM and online dictionaries, as well as dictionaries for portable devices, has made the dictionary scene much more diverse. By now it has become apparent that the traditional paper dictionary has serious limitations, because usually more space is needed than a single-volume dictionary can offer. The on-going digital revolution is changing the dictionary scene beyond recognition. It has become apparent that printed editions of reference books will be phased out, and the digital format will prevail in future. At the end of 2012 Michael Rundell, editor-in-chief of MEDAL 2, informed the community of dictionary users about the decision at McMillan to phase out printed dictionaries [Rundell]. In fact, this decision can be regarded also as a response to reports of declining worldwide sales of printed dictionaries in recent years. On the other hand, it would be also difficult to use printed editions of large-scale dictionaries, such as the third edition of
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the ‘Oxford English Dictionary’ [OED 3] (see www.oed.com). Thus, a course in dictionary-using skills has additionally to keep a pulse on these developments.

The lexicographic aspects that call for attention can be grouped into three parts. The introductory course focuses on basic knowledge of the types, structure, and use of major dictionaries by way of analysing sample pages and entries. However, in order to be able to appreciate dictionaries, it is also useful to briefly show how dictionaries are nowadays compiled — how senses actually find their way from corpus material into a dictionary. The third set of issues deals with various aspects of dictionary research and criticism. Some training is devoted to solving problems when a word (or a sense) is not listed in dictionaries.

One of the aims of the introductory course is to provide an overview of the existing lexicographic resources and their structure. Dictionaries come in many varieties; thus students need some guidance in order to be able to pick an appropriate dictionary for a specific task. For example, students need to be made aware about major differences between dictionaries for native speakers and dictionaries for foreign learners. This can be done by analysis and comparison of sample entries and pages. For example, the treatment of ‘soap’ in a dictionary for native speakers is very different from that in a dictionary for foreign learners.

**soap**

1 a : a cleansing and emulsifying agent made usually by action of alkali on fat or fatty acids and consisting essentially of sodium or potassium salts of such acids b : a salt of a fatty acid and a metal

2 : SOAP OPERA

[MW 11]

**soap**

1 N-MASS

Soap is a substance that you use with water for washing yourself or sometimes for washing clothes.

2 VERB V pron-refl

If you soap yourself, you rub soap on your body in order to wash yourself.

3 N-COUNT

A soap is the same as a soap opera. (INFORMAL)

[COBUILD 5]

Students need to realize that the defining vocabulary of a monolingual learner’s dictionary is limited to a list of about three thousand items. However, there are several other aspects that are even more important and need to be taught. One important thing is to understand the fundamental difference between dic-
tionaries for decoding (reading) and encoding (writing). While dictionaries for native speakers are generally useful for decoding because of their extensive word list, one has to consult a monolingual dictionary for foreign learners for writing in English and translation into English. These dictionaries are intended for encoding (production); each sense is provided with grammatical information, typical collocations with example phrases and sentences, as well as synonyms and opposites. As is well known, there are five major dictionaries of this type, all of them published by British publishers: OALD 8, LDOCE 5, COBUILD 5, CALD 4, and MEDAL 2. An expert analysis of their history and development up to the 1990s can be found in Cowie [1999]. At present, all five are published on paper, CD-ROM or DVD-ROM [LDOCE 5], and online. There are also electronic editions for portable devices. Each of them has some particular strength, which makes it stand out from the rest. For example, LDOCE 5 stands out for its excellent treatment of differences in British and American English. MEDAL 2 is well known for its metaphor boxes based on the conceptual metaphor theory, and the collocations were identified by means of the ‘Word Sketch’ software. CALD 4 stands out for its ‘SMART thesaurus’ feature. COBUILD uses full-sentence definitions, etc. One has to emphasize that our students need more guidance about the electronic dictionaries with the complete range of search facilities, such as on CD-ROM. The latter usually offer more search facilities than the free-of-charge online versions; also, many CD-ROM dictionaries offer a wealth of additional material, such as additional corpus examples, exercises, etc. It is especially important to show that a modern dictionary is, in fact, a combination of an alphabetical dictionary and a thesaurus. The thesaurus function enables us to identify appropriate words from a list in cases where the precise equivalent is previously unknown.

In the case of bilingual dictionaries a different focus is needed because most of them cannot be used successfully unless one is familiar with various problems involved in their making. The same is true of many online lexicographic resources. Problematic areas include, for example, the coverage of senses and collocations, trustworthiness of the provided cross-linguistic equivalents, etc. Therefore, students need to develop the ability to evaluate bilingual lexicographic resources; also, they need to be taught how to solve their problems where bilingual dictionaries fail. A matter-of-fact introduction to bilingual dictionaries can be found in Adamska-Sałaciak [2006]. At the end of the course the students have to write a comparative review of two dictionaries; some guidance for this task is provided in Varantola [2004] and Steiner [1984]. These reviews have analysed,
for example, two different editions of the same dictionary, a one-page stretch of
the same material in two dictionaries, the treatment of collocations and idioms
in school dictionaries, specialized dictionaries, etc.

The MA level course is an in-depth advanced course in lexicology and lexi-
cography. This course begins with an introduction to electronic text analysis. The
basics of electronic text analysis are presented in a concise manner in Adolphs
[2006]. Following on from this the students will learn how to use the freeware
concordance software AntConc by Laurence Anthony (the web link is provided
in the references section) and create their own resources of electronic text. The
students will then learn how lexicographers analyse corpus material and select
dictionary senses. For this purpose, students practise corpus analysis by doing
exercises provided in Sinclair [2003]. Once students are familiar with how lexi-
cographers analyse electronic text and how the latter make generalizations about
language use, they are able to appreciate the work that lexicographers do.

The research topics for this course have varied over the years. Dictionaries
can be studied from many perspectives. However, some topics are worth point-
ing out. The discussion of under-treatment and over-treatment in bilingual
dictionaries was inspired by the ideas of Gilles-Maurice de Schryver [2005].
It appears that bilingual dictionaries often reveal instances of under- and
overtreatment. For example, Estonian bilingual dictionaries tend to focus too
much on terminology. Typically, in such cases the same dictionary reveals gaps
in the treatment of everyday language, as well as collocations. The analysis of
school dictionaries has also yielded interesting results. One of the findings is
that our school dictionaries tend to neglect important collocations but provide
large numbers of idioms, some of which are of little help to the learner. The
problem of alphabetic proportions is also related to the problem of under- and
overtreatment. Large-scale dictionaries, in particular, tend to be unbalanced
in this respect. There are dictionaries where the first part of the dictionary is
more thorough than the second part and the other way round, or some letters
have been treated more thoroughly than others. Because nowadays dictionary
proportions can be controlled with the help of dictionary-compilation software,
this problem can be rectified when new editions of dictionaries are prepared.

Another research topic is reversibility of bilingual dictionaries and how
to enhance symmetry in bilingual dictionaries. The problem of reversibility is
closely related to semantic precision of cross-linguistic equivalents. In fact, the
true value of a bilingual dictionary lies in those precise equivalents, which can
be actually used in translations. However, the search for suitable equivalents
often requires considerable research. There are interesting cases where, in the

case of ‘inconvenient’ lexemes, more research is needed but lexicographers have
instead made use of previously published dictionaries and simply copied the
erroneous equivalents.

What are the benefits of knowing more about dictionaries? First, students
will be familiar with the most important dictionaries, their advantages and dis-
advantages. They know which dictionaries are better suited for their purposes,
and they begin to realize that dictionaries are important generalizations of lan-
guage use. Second, regular dictionary use helps to develop language competence
in general, for example, collocational competence, as well as the knowledge of
synonyms and opposites, which are crucial for any language professional. Third,
the ability to assess the strengths and weaknesses of a particular dictionary is
combined with the ability to search for additional data if necessary.

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Teaching English in English
at Kecskemét College in Hungary

Éva Ujlakyné Szűcs (Kecskemét)

Introduction
Learning the first foreign language is compulsory from the age of 10 in Hungarian primary education. However, the interest on behalf of parents is so intense that many schools start teaching a foreign language earlier. This situation created a need for teachers of English who can teach the target language to young learners and they are also prepared to do so. At teacher training colleges a specialization programme started in 1995. Ten years later, at Kecskemét College, there was a research project aiming to explore the results of the course [Ujlakyné 2005a]. The means of exploration was a questionnaire about the teaching practices of foreign language teaching in lower primary vs. upper primary and secondary classes. The results of the research proved that lower primary teacher training projects provided future teachers with all the necessary knowledge, views and methods to support young learners’ target language development. There was one area both practising teachers and trainees were dissatisfied with: the language proficiency. Thus, at the end of the evaluation, the amount of target language studies was considered to be the way forward.

The National Evaluation of the First 10 Years of the Training
Ten years after the beginning of the training, in 2006, Hungarian teacher training colleges (faculties) organized a national conference to gather experiences and point out the best ways towards a more effective future training. Several speakers emphasized the importance of a training which prepares future classroom teachers to be able to integrate English language teaching into the first 4 years of children’s primary education. Some of the speakers contributed to the conference volume with articles [Bodó].
As part of the evaluation, Szilágyiné [Szilágyiné] provides a historical summary of initial primary teacher training combined with EFL to young learners. She says that the first language taught in primary classes was Russian from the age of 8, and at the beginning, subject teachers taught Russian. From the 1970s Russian and English to young learners’ specializations were introduced into primary teacher training curricula based on the need for Russian and English teachers at schools. As foreign language learning became more and more popular, German specialization also appeared, and M. Batári [Batári] explains that German specialization tried and succeeded in introducing target language methodology teaching in the college curricula to support future classroom teachers in teaching German to young learners. Their results seemed to be encouraging.

Ujlakyné [Ujlakyné 2006] examined the differences between the classroom practices of primary classroom teachers, who teach English as a foreign language in their classes, and subject teachers in upper primary or secondary education, who teach only EFL to older learners in compulsory education. Her findings show that classroom teachers integrate EFL into their teaching successfully and their methods are based on the real needs of young learners. They focus on the characteristic features of the young learners and develop their language learning skills continuously. In classroom teachers’ English classes there are more games, rhymes, songs and TPR activities than in the practice of subject teachers. Similarly, in the practice of subject teachers there are more direct language activities, translation tasks and grammar drills. Primary school teachers proved to be especially good at creating visual aids for their own classes, and presented language phenomena in games and game-like activities rather than grammar explanations in Hungarian. Teachers in both groups expressed their needs in further education. Primary school teachers wanted to develop in curriculum design, while subject teachers needed age-specific methods to improve their teaching skills. However, in both groups teachers say that they need to develop their English skills.

**Developing Foreign Language Skills by Teaching More Subjects in English**

The need for better English as a Foreign Language (EFL) skills seemed to be quite important for classroom teachers. They had altogether fewer lessons and courses in English than in Hungarian as their main field was/is classroom teaching, and teaching English was ‘only’ a specialization of their training. They do not have subjects like *Middle English Literature* or *The History of the English*
Language as in Bachelor courses of English. Children’s Literature in their English training is mostly about how they can integrate pieces of Children’s Literature into the EFL process in lower primary classes, and they do not really deal with analyses of Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland or Harry Potter. They do not do this, because they have a Children’s Literature course in Hungarian, where they do so. On the other hand, they learn how to integrate stories of Children’s Literature in EFL teaching.

During the evaluation of the training programme, at the Teacher Training Faculty of Kecskemét College, we decided to find possibilities to increase the number of lessons taught in English without increasing the overall hours of teacher training. The only way to do this was to teach certain subjects in the target language. This could be achieved by examining the overlaps in the existing curricula and change the language of teaching in all cases where it is possible. The first course was Children’s Literature that came up as an unnecessary repetition in the Hungarian and English curricula. Then, we found other subjects like Teaching mother tongue and foreign language acquisition, Comparing educational systems, Basic linguistics, Classroom research seminars, etc., which were part of the general classroom teacher training and the EFL teacher specialization as well. The task was obvious: we had to rewrite the curriculum and delete the unnecessary repetitions.

Courses in English
By examining the curricula we have discovered overlaps mainly in the above mentioned areas. However, it was not easy to make decisions about the changes. Each department insisted on their own courses, none of them agreed on giving up parts of their fields and handing it over to another department. However, the policy of the College management was that the curriculum has to be rationalized and modernized. The policy was that there is one teacher training faculty in which each department works for the benefit of our trainees. As a result of detailed discussions the following changes were introduced:

Psychology and Pedagogy as a Hungarian Course
(part of the teacher education curriculum)
Students learn the basic concepts of psychology and pedagogy, developmental psychology and also psycho-linguistics and pedagogical psychology in Hungarian. They learn about learner autonomy, mother tongue acquisition, visual and
music education, and drama pedagogy. They discuss and learn about fundamental concepts which are also necessary in teaching English as a Foreign Language, for example the characteristic features of children between 6 and 12, problems of children at this period etc. We had to examine what is taught in the general Hungarian courses and try to build on this knowledge in the English specialization instead of teaching them again. Seemingly this means less teaching material in the TEFL course, but in reality we can say that we have more time to deepen the knowledge gained in Hungarian, could focus on language teaching instead of teaching (again) in English what has already been taught in Hungarian. Our students pick up the target language terminology of English literature as soon as they start reading about teaching English as a Foreign Language in English. They understand the articles easily, because of their background knowledge in Hungarian, and they can enjoy reading about professional problems as they can use their readings in the seminars and later in their school practice.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners (Methodology) in English

The number of lessons for this basic course has not changed, but the content has been basically altered. At the beginning, we focus on the theory of teaching vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar and also briefly on pragmatics, and then we focus on young learners. Thus, we have time to discuss the differences of vocabulary learning and teaching at the age of 6 and 12 and also in adult groups, plus we can rely on students’ knowledge and experience in mother tongue vocabulary development at the same age. We can examine examples of teaching these areas in textbooks and discuss micro-teaching of course participants.

Then we deal with skills development in general and, as a second step, focus on young learners. The course compares teaching reading techniques in mother tongue literacy and in teaching English as a Foreign Language. Again, we can use the students’ background knowledge in pedagogy, plus everything they have learned about teaching reading and writing in Hungarian. This kind of discussion in English is not very difficult, but requires accuracy and fluency in the target language, and thus, it develops EFL skills and professional vocabulary of our students.

Finally, the most interesting part of the course deals with classroom management, teachers’ technical arsenal in teaching and also about planning. By this time students have been on teaching practice, observed lessons both in English and in Hungarian. They have had to teach in real primary classes in Hungarian
(Hungarian literacy, P.E., Singing). This is the term in which they also start their English-teaching practice. They have to make English lesson plans, they teach English to young learners and they can see the results of their own work. The course prepares the students for this task, but the real practice in a real classroom might bring up topics which need to be discussed in seminars at college.

**Teaching Practice in Hungarian Lessons**

Students, from the second term of their studies, spend some time regularly in the primary school. First, they observe classes and take notes in their observation diary following the given tasks. They can see different lessons such as PE, teaching reading, writing and counting in Hungarian, music and art lessons and spend whole days at school to see what happens during, between and after lessons. They help their mentor in lesson preparation, make up and correct papers, make visual aids etc. In the following term they start teaching Hungarian classes. They are responsible for the whole class, the learning process and they learn how to deal with arising problems. After two terms of general teaching practice, students can start their teaching practice in their specialization, in our case in English.

**Teaching Practice in TEFL Specialization**

As the teaching practice of our students begins two terms earlier than their English teaching practice we can, and also need to, build on the already gained experiences and on everything students have learned and experienced in the school previously. Mentors, college tutors and the whole staff have to cooperate in order to support the success of students at school. It sound obvious at first sight, but in reality, each department builds up a programme for the students as if they were not primary classroom teachers, but music teachers, teachers of mathematics, geography or drawing. Coordination of these independent ‘how to teach’ programmes has just begun and we have partial results - and a lot of discussions.

Future primary school teachers learn (at college and on school practice) how to teach singing, what are the steps of teaching a song in singing lessons to young learners. It sounds obvious that when English specialization courses we can rely on this. We can build on our students singing skills and their experience of doing so in the primary classrooms in Hungarian. However, we had problems when we tried to encourage students to integrate e.g. *London Bridge is falling down* into the English lesson. Students wanted to start with solmisation,
breathing activities and seating the children according to their voice... It took some time to realize for both tutors and students that the aim of teaching the song in the English lesson is to have fun, move around, play a game and also to say things in English and not to develop solmisation skills. This was the turning point for students who were worried about the special vocabulary of teaching singing. Once they realized that their singing voice that children can follow, and some explanation of basic words, are enough for the children to enjoy singing in English, they became braver and more enthusiastic in building songs and rhymes into the learning process.

Similar examples could be mentioned in drawing, P. E. and biology (learning about animals). It soon turned out that English lessons are sometimes biology, sometimes singing, sometimes art and craft and most of the time literacy lessons in English. Children learn a lot about their surrounding world in lessons and this knowledge can also be built into other lessons. Ujlakyné [Ujlakyné 2000] says that when trainees make lesson plans the biggest problem for them is that they do not know what children have learned, what is new and what is known for them. This is true because they do not have the experience with the textbooks the children use, and also, because they do not combine with their college courses. Their training aims to prepare them to be classroom teachers and their EFL specialization gives opportunities to put together everything they do with children, no matter whether they are in a singing or in an English lesson. This is a great chance for teaching English in English and teaching about animals etc. in English.

Different college experts in teacher training need(ed) to sit down and discuss the possibilities. All in all, the outcome of this co-operation is a greater enjoyment for students and children, better Hungarian and English language skills and an unchanged number of teaching hours.

**Children’s Literature in Hungarian**

Students have a Children’s Literature course in Hungarian. The course deals with the Hungarian folk traditions (tales, rhymes and songs) which are a relevant part of mother tongue education. They also cover basic concepts such as similes, metaphors, rhymes, etc. Finally, our trainees read and discuss classic pieces of Children’s Literature. So, they read in Hungarian, besides Hungarian children’s novels, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* by Roal Dahl and *Emil and the Detectives* by Erich Kastner. Students are required to have extended knowledge in Hungarian and international pieces of Children’s Literature and practice literary analyses of these.
Children's Literature in English

Ujlakyné [Ujlakyné 1995] published a handbook for college students on Children's Literature. In this book, and later in an article [Ujlakyné 1999], a definition of Children's Literature and several examples of how different genres and pieces of Children's Literature can be used in young learners' English lessons are provided. Further examples [Ujlakyné 2005c] on how to use stories in developing language skills in young learners' classes and how they can be integrated into the college curriculum were provided.

However, there was a need to rearrange the syllabus of Children's Literature in the TEFL specialization in order to avoid repetition of the Hungarian course, to increase target language use and, also, to improve students’ English language skills. The new Children’s Literature course became an extended methodology course, which was mostly about English songs, rhymes, poems, stories and drama activities and their use in developing young learners’ target language skills. Another aim was to motivate young learners in the lessons as much as possible. How to develop young learners’ vocabulary and how to improve their pronunciation became the main fields of discussion. Developing young learners’ listening, speaking, reading and writing skills by listening to and chanting rhymes, reading and writing poems or stories, acting out well-known tales became parts of the course. Naturally, all these activities and Children’s Literature pieces were introduced and worked upon in English. The story books are authentic books used in primary education in England.

Moreover, Children’s Literature courses became international as the ERASMUS students from different European countries were interested in the course. 5–7 students, whose mother tongue was neither Hungarian nor English, created an atmosphere in the course, in which the use of English was a ‘must’ for all the participants. The content of the course was also enriched by international folk stories which were introduced by the participants of the course. Students’ motivation and language skills are highly developed by discussions on the same story, with different episodes or endings in different countries.

Children’s Literature classes provide possibilities for practising presentation skills, developing creative writing skills, discussions of the varieties of techniques that can be used in young learners’ classes. Thus, we can say that Children’s Literature in English has become a good example for both developing skills in English as a Foreign Language and, at the same time, learning how to teach English to young learners.
British and American Civilisation in English

At the beginning of the TEFL specialization, students had two courses on target language culture (British Studies and American Studies). A textbook in two parts [Mongan, Ujlakyné 1996] was published, the first on Britain and the other on the USA. The textbooks give information on geography, culture, history, calendar of events, holidays, places of interests, famous people etc. The courses are in English and provide the learners with a lot of information and topics in English. British and American culture is a vast topic, so groups with different interests will find interesting discussion topics in the course. In British Studies we have selected history based legends and stories to talk about.

This is the course which included a great amount of information about schooling, secondary and university education, classroom techniques of the British education system. We could discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the differences between the Hungarian system and the British one. Fortunately, comparative pedagogy in Hungarian, which had similar topics, turned into an optional course, which students who are specialized in English did not have to do. Tutors turned to modern topics as well, for example common problems in the education systems such as bullying, special needs learners, parent helpers or trainees practicum tasks in different Anglo-Saxon countries. Thus, this course is a source of knowledge, provides international viewpoints and also develops language skills.

Conclusions

Nikolov [Nikolov] says that the most effective way of teaching a foreign language is to teach real content in it. When we teach a foreign language, the target language is both the aim of the teaching process and the means of our teaching. We use English to teach something interesting by the help of which we teach the language itself. This is how teaching English in English has grown into a relevant topic in language teacher preparation programmes. At Kecskemét College, the need for a change turned up, and through discussions and some research, we try to increase language competence by increasing the target language content in our courses. Turning overlaps and unnecessary repetitions into a better competence in English, making the College accept English and Hungarian courses equally was a great achievement. Although it is still not a completed process, it has had its positive results. The next field of examination is to integrate academic writing skills into the requirements. At the moment
it is optional to write the diploma work in English or in Hungarian. However, English specialization requires a classroom research report from each student, which can be developed into a final thesis. This is possible, but not obvious for every student. To achieve this will result in a greater number of diploma works in English and better professional writing skill of students, and thus it will be a great step forward.

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University Language Area as a Factor that Enhances the Efficiency of Academic Mobility

Galina Maslova (Pskov)

For about 10 years, since September 19, 2003 when the Russian Federation signed the Joint Communiqué of the participants of the Berlin conference, it has been a member of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and tries to implement the principles of the Bologna Declaration that are aimed at introducing compatible degrees and ECTS, developing academic mobility, and supporting cooperation of European universities in providing quality assurance through working out compatible criteria and methods of quality management.

A significant role in achieving the goal of the Russian Federation to integrate into the EHEA was played by Decree № 40 of February 15, 2005 of the Ministry of Education and Science “On Realization of the Bologna Declaration Principles in the System of the Russian Higher Professional Education”, which was accompanied by the detailed plan of events that would promote the realization of the Bologna Declaration principles in Russia. One of the aspects mentioned in the plan was fostering academic mobility development and the period of time from 2006 up to 2008 was marked for working out the system of providing grants of inward and outward academic mobility [О реализации].

Thus, academic mobility has become an integral part of Russian universities’ activities. Enhancing mobility efficiency is regarded by universities as a primary task as a universities’ efficiency is assessed by mobility indicators.

Pskov State University does a lot to develop academic mobility and to contribute to integrating to the European Higher Education Area, although it was organized not long ago (October 14, 2011). The University appeared as the result of merging two main higher educational institutions of the Pskov Region (Pskov State Pedagogical University and Pskov State Polytechnic Institute) and three colleges (Pskov Construction College, Pskov Industrial College and Velikie Luki Construction College). Having combined the main human and material resources in higher professional education PskovSU is entrusted to become the core of professional education development in the Pskov Region with its 15 fac-
ulties, which realized 31 bachelor degree programs, 6 master degree programs, and 19 postgraduate programs (aspirantura) in 2012. In 2013 the number of educational programs of different levels will increase by about 10%. The University has 38 Memoranda of Understanding with foreign higher educational institutions from 17 countries. Since December 2011 Pskov State University is a member of the ERANET MUNDUS Consortium of 10 European and 8 Russian universities and since March 31, 2012 PskovSU is a member of the Baltic Sea Region University Network (BSRUN).

The previous achievements of the merged educational institutions and the strategic plans of the new university made it possible to win the contest for support of strategic development programs of state higher educational institutions held by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation. Among the goals of the Development Strategy of PskovSU up to 2020 are: increase of foreign students number up to 20% by 2010; increase of education quality and attractiveness; increase of graduates’ competitiveness; increase of research quality and outputs; increase of academic and administrative staff speaking foreign languages up to 50% of 20–50-year old persons by 2020. The goals are very challenging and demanding. There is only one instrument to achieve these requirements: that is internationalization of education.

The process of internationalization of education is the process of including various international aspects in academic, research, and administrative activities of educational institutions of different levels [Рождественский 2009].

The process of internationalization covers:

- Students: foreign students enrolment, organization of educational exchange programs and individual student mobility;
- University teachers: staff exchange, cooperation in research projects, professional development in foreign universities, working out joint educational programs, organization of summer schools and intensive courses;
- International cooperation: exchange programs for administration, human resources and material resources management, consulting and information services, process of assessment, infrastructure.
Understanding now what should be implemented and developed in terms of internationalization we still have problems of how to do that. And the main adverse factors that hinder educational internationalization are different academic cultures that cause difficulties in the extent of recognition of ECTS and study-abroad periods and insufficient level of foreign language communicative competence that results in few courses being taught in English (or other foreign languages) and few students and staff that have International language certificates.

Realizing that the integration into the European educational area has so far been sluggish in the university we conducted the survey among the 89 students of the departments of Mathematics and Natural Science to find out their vision of the problems and the main obstacles. Students were offered the questionnaire that contained three questions about the academic mobility efficiency:

1. Which factors prove the necessity to participate in the programs of academic mobility?
2. What prevents you from participating in the programs of academic mobility?
3. What do you think can foster students’ participating in the programs of academic mobility?

For each question students were to choose not more than three variants of the answer among 10 options. For example, question 2 suggested the following variants to choose: a) no wish to go somewhere abroad to study; b) feeling unsure whether I need it; c) a lack of information how to apply for a program; d) poor knowledge of the foreign language; e) lack of psychological readiness to solve academic and life problems on one’s own; f) fear of being unsuccessful; g) unwillingness to fill out the application form and prepare the documents realizing that it doesn’t guarantee getting the grant; h) I will not get a grant as the selection procedure is not transparent; i) I will have to sit more additional exams in the home university after having a semester abroad; j) your variant of the answer.

The results of investigation showed that 79 % of the respondents consider their poor knowledge of foreign languages one of the main problems hindering the participation in the programs of academic mobility. The obstacle that took the second place (55 %) is insufficient information about the mobility programs and lack of skills to apply for them. The third important obstacle that was chosen by 20 % of the students is psychological problems — uncertainty and fear to be unsuccessful.
Realizing the problems students also offer solutions to them. The most popular variants that were chosen by the respondents are: seminars that inform about the programs of academic mobility (52%); courses that develop language skills and prepare for intercultural communication (47%); more active financing of academic mobility by the Russian Federation Ministry of Education and Science (29%); opportunities to participate in the joint educational program (23.5%); organizing the center of international language testing (20%); increase of contact hours in English language learning (19%).

Analyzing the results of the survey we can notice that students understand the necessity not simply to increase the number of contact hours in foreign language learning but to couple the objective to develop language skills with the goal to develop intercultural communication competence that will lead to the readiness to study abroad and to fit in the other academic culture better. On the other hand, we can say that the university Department of International Affairs regularly holds seminars to inform about the programs of academic mobility but their attendance level is not very high. The fact can be explained by the idea that information turns out to be relevant only when it falls onto the “fertilized soil”. Developing readiness to participate in the academic mobility programs and understanding its necessity will make motivation “sprout out” that will entail interest and personal sense in the information provided.

Thus, we have come up with the idea of creating a University Language Area as a sustainable area of spreading a language, either the native one and officially assigned to the certain territory, or the language of intercultural communication.

In terms of students and staff mobility one can define the University language area not only as the Russian language area, although Russian is the language of the educational programs. Using this notion we mean the area of spreading European languages, mainly English, which provides receiving and deploying information that is relevant to the content of disciplines covered by the programs of academic mobility.

We can present the University English Language Area in the following way:
As can be seen from the scheme the subjects of the English language academic area are students and teachers who firstly achieve their own goals in language learning and then collaborate together in fulfilling activities that demand a combined effort.

As for students, their English communicative competence started to be formed at school and continues to develop in English classes at the university, especially if they are CLIL-oriented. Content and Language Integrated Learning enables students to focus on the language as a tool to acquire professional competences and to deploy information that refers to the most up-to-date and acute knowledge of their spheres of interest. All students learn a foreign language as a compulsory discipline of the curriculum. However, we should use the opportunity to offer optional courses in foreign languages, especially in English, more often. The university teachers, from different educational programs, collaborate in making up joint courses where some modules are taught in Russian and some modules of the same or close content in English. Besides English
classes within the formal educational setting, students are able to attend other language courses such as advanced language courses for general or specific purposes including preparing for International foreign language testing and / or courses that prepare for the programs of academic mobility. Moreover, involving students into informal intercultural events enhances students’ motivation to language learning and broadens their intercultural outlook.

Teachers, for their part, improve their English language communicative skills by also attending language courses for general and specific purposes and working with assigned tutors who help them translate their discipline content into the English language.

The next steps are undertaken by cooperation with students and the main principle here is to support each other’s efforts in acquisition of a foreign language and in achieving a productive level within it. Teachers deliver lectures and conduct classes (separate topics, modules, a complete course) in English for the students of Pskov State University and, in this way, are getting ready to deliver lectures and conduct classes in English for the students of partner universities. Besides this, teachers use English for intercultural professional communication in doing research and in supervising students’ research projects. Teachers present the results of their research in articles written in English for international journals and in conference presentations made in English. Having experience of presenting results of the research in English at International Conferences students will be able to write work synopses in English and to fulfil diploma projects in English in the framework of joint competence-oriented educational programs with partner universities.

The umbrella of content and language integrated learning shelters all the components, which create the university language area. This area, on the one hand, facilitates university internationalization and, on the other hand, promotes re-evaluating the university mission, which covers providing opportunities for academic mobility and making the University an open system ready for the challenges of the modern world.
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Practical Applications of CLIL: Materials Selection and Lesson Planning at Post-graduate Level

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CLIL has currently acquired the world-wide status of a life-long approach to teaching foreign languages in all sectors of education, from primary to adult.

**CLIL in Russia: Tertiary and Post-graduate Levels**

In Russia, CLIL application depends entirely on the teachers’ “free will”, on their personal choice, because CLIL is time and effort consuming and demands deeper knowledge of specific content areas. This approach has not yet been integrated into the Russian educational system, including CLIL teacher-training.

The State standards at tertiary and post-graduate level allow teachers to design programmes as long as they satisfy the standards and help post-graduate students achieve the goals of post-graduate education.

Following the state standards, at the end of the course, post-graduate students shall be able to

- understand scientific literature (translate special text with a dictionary);
- make a short summary of scientific text in the target language (no dictionaries are allowed);
- make poster and PowerPoint presentations (written and oral communication);
- participate actively in debates (oral communication).

Here are some examples of descriptors from the State Programme for post-graduate students (subject “Foreign languages”) of what skills post-graduate students should develop to communicate actively and effectively in the scientific environment: expressing agreements / disagreements; clarifying facts and information; describing cause / effect; expressing ideas / opinions; interpreting data, scientific facts, opinions, doubts; suggesting; answering open questions; presenting own research, laboratory experiments, fieldwork, publications, etc.
Our Choice: Why CLIL is Relevant to Post-graduate Education

The post-graduate school of Karelian Research Centre of the Russian Academy of Sciences admits candidates in 29 specialisms in the following science areas:

- **earth sciences** (geology, geo-ecology, mineralogy, gold and ore prospecting, shungite studies, etc.)
- **biology** (plant and animal physiology, biochemistry, zoology, etc.)
- **forestry** (forest tree planting, forest fires, forest management, etc.)
- **environmental studies** (pollution of air, water, forests, soils, etc.)
- **economic studies** (strategic planning, statistics, management, etc.)
- **applied mathematics** (game theory, modelling, etc.)

Following the requirements, post-graduate students shall study three obligatory curricular subjects:

- **Special research subject** (biochemistry of fish, plant physiology, etc.);
- **Philosophy and history of science**;
- **Foreign language** (English, German, French, or Spanish),

and take final exams.

Curricular Subject: English

English is a “privileged” foreign language at any scientific institution as it is considered to be global for science and technology. The course of studies lasts for one academic year (100 academic hours) and ends with the final candidate examination. Post-graduate students are divided into groups of 4–6. The groups are mixed-ability and “mixed-speciality”.

Syllabus Design

Taking into account all the above prerequisites, a decision was made to develop a programme which would be suitable for learners in most varied fields of scientific research, namely: help learners integrate in the world scientific community; develop global scientific thinking; network with young researchers; participate in conferences and joint projects; publish their findings in peer-reviewed journals, etc.
In order to acquire a deeper insight into the term “Content and Language Integrated Learning”, we have thoroughly studied two books written for teachers, and numerous electronic resources devoted to CLIL historic background and its relevance to contemporary education. CLIL appeared to be most appropriate to our goal as it is an educational approach or method where attention is given both to language and the content. It develops an ability to think in a target language as well as global scientific thinking thus giving the opportunities for younger researchers to publish their papers in peer-reviewed international journals and make presentations at scientific conferences.

It is important that CLIL integrates the teaching of content from the curriculum with the teaching of a non-native language; helps learners develop skills to communicate ideas about science; involves many methodologies from subject and language teaching.

**Parts of the Syllabus**

We have divided the syllabus into 3 modules:

- **Module 1. Academic grammar and vocabulary**, duration — 30 academic hours. It is delivered at the start of the academic year. Its aim is to help the learners to reach **Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in oral and written forms (by Cummins)**. Special attention is given to modality, passive forms, conditionals, special means of hedging (epistemology), science-specific collocations, etc.

- **Module 2. Philosophy and history of science**, duration — 60 academic hours. This is part of the obligatory curricular subject syllabus taught in the target language. This means of teaching can be called a “**subject-led” approach.”

- **Module 3. Individual tutoring**, duration — 30 academic hours per learner. These are individual classes where the students can report to their tutors on the results of their individual reading of scientific articles in the field of their research. This is where they develop special skills to recognize, learn and apply content-obligatory language (terminology, phrases and grammar structures) applied in their science literature (they create glossaries of 300 special terms and phrases). These tutorials are designed to develop learner autonomy and cognitive thinking.
**Materials Selection: Module 2 as an Example**

With the method chosen and the syllabus structure designed, we approached the task of finding and selecting CLIL materials. We undertook a careful study of course books published in Russia, and discovered that there was quite a number of content-specific materials. Sadly, these books were not applicable for our needs. We continued our search for the appropriate materials on the Internet, and after a while found the source which perfectly suited our goals.

**Materials found on the Internet are:**
- **Authors:** Joseph E. Harmon and Alan G. Gross
- **Title:** “The Scientific Article: from Galileo’s New Science to the Human Genome. Fathom”
- **Address:** http://fathom.lib.uchicago.edu/2/21701730/
- **Type:** A seminar devoted to the history of scientific article, consists of 6 sessions.

**Evaluation of the Materials Found**

Before applying the materials in class, we evaluated the contents and argued that they are appropriate for the learners’ age (22 and older), the level of their knowledge (B1–B2), although some passages of the text needed simplification and clarification. The materials fit for the purpose of teaching and examination requirements and could develop instrumental motivation in learners. The contents could easily be linked to CLIL aims (the 4 Cs: content, communication, cognition and culture), were found to be supportive (contain visuals, graphs, tables and pictures). The materials could easily be adjusted to the syllabus of the curricular subject on the history of science and develop integrative motivation and wish to establish contact with peers using the target language.

**Unit Planning**

When planning a unit, six stages for reflection should be kept in mind as advised in the book “CLIL” [Coyl et al: 75].

Among them are: vision (global goals), context (constructing own CLIL model), unit planning (using the 4 Cs to guide planning a unit), preparation (plan for learner progression), monitoring and evaluating, reflection and inquiry (create opportunities for classroom).
We conceptualized our global goal (or learning outcomes) as follows: by the end of the unit learners will be able to

- build on prior knowledge of the history of scientific discoveries and scientific literature;
- use their own learning strategies to remember and apply subject-obligatory vocabulary;
- practice communication skills;
- increase awareness of cultural differences;
- work autonomously (learner-centered approach).

The planned output: presentation on the history of a specialist scientific journal; outstanding researcher in the field of own research; most recent scientific publication (the learner’s choice).

To reach the goals, we have developed the teaching aims:

- to present the content of the module;
- to introduce new content-based vocabulary;
- to discuss what students have learned new about the history of science;
- to develop academic interactive skills;
- to engage learners in higher-order thinking and understanding, problem-solving, accepting and reflecting challenges.

We linked the aims of the units to the CLIL 4 Cs:

1. **Content (subject matter).**
   - Introduction of the topic;
   - Types of scientific literature;
   - Scholars and their outstanding role in the history of science;
   - Scientific societies and their role;
   - Women-scholars.

2. **Cognition (learning and thinking processes).** We developed a series of tasks for the learners to understand the key stages in the history of science and apply them in different contexts; to encourage their knowledge about the transfer of scientific findings by using visual images and realia, vocabulary building, learning and using, creative use of language [Coyl et al: 90–91].

3. **Communication (language learning and using): language of, language for and language through learning.** This stage is the most challenging
step as we had to design specific CLIL tasks, e.g. lists of key words and phrases and how to use them in order to learn language for describing, defining, hypothesizing. (Appendix 1). The grammar structures studied are content-embedded.

Language for learning is devised for pair work, group work, debating, thinking, memorizing, describing, evaluating, drawing conclusions, etc. (Appendices 2–11).

Language through learning tasks are higher-order, directed on the development of skills to distinguish the language needed to carry out activities, make use of peer explanations, record, and learn new words which arise from activities to grasp emerging language in situ. Learners should be aware of the fact that not all the CLIL language needed could be planned for, so they should be ready to consult subject-specific dictionaries, learn new words and presentation and discussion skills “in situ” using teacher and peer support.

4. Culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship). It is of paramount importance to raise cultural and cross-cultural awareness in learners. We have included the topics below for presentations and discussions: Science belongs to the whole world: Discoveries, scholars, scientific literature, scientific theories and institutions; Examples from the history of the Russian science (e-source); Differences in scientific styles (publications and presentations).

By the end of the unit learners will be able to demonstrate the knowledge of historic facts about new science; explain and describe the facts; classify information building various kinds of graphs; interpret visuals and realia; use language creatively (find additional information, etc.); ask and respond lower-order and higher-order questions; cooperate in a pair or group; make short presentations on the topic.

There are 10 units. Every unit contains 4 lessons plus 1 test. The structure of each lesson is as follows: meeting input (what we teach), processing input — we provide different resources and tasks; and producing a response, an output (what the learners produce).

We start a lesson with visuals and realia or with a set of questions for introducing the topic, content-obligatory vocabulary and grammar structures; give students tasks stimulating output. The output is collaborative, much thinking is required (Appendices 12–13). Learner autonomy should also be established:
more capable students are given tasks to extend their knowledge by additional reading around the subject and using multi-media resources.

Visuals and multi-media tasks can help learners connect knowledge and ideas, understand and recall information, select, transfer, categorize information, produce oral and written language, think creatively, make presentations of subject content, exchange information and collaborate with group-mates, use and design databases.

**Conclusions**

Practical application of CLIL at tertiary and post-graduate levels is becoming increasingly important in Russia. The paper has shown our attempts and first steps in designing an English course suitable for the academic needs of post-graduate students in different fields of scientific research. First results at State candidate exams have shown that our students could not only reach their cognitive academic proficiency easier, but also came to understand the importance of individual, autonomous work. We plan to apply the CLIL approach further in our teaching.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

Appendix 1.
Word List 1.

- scientific article
- finding(s)
- the emergence of (scientific societies)
- endangered
- extinct
- illustrated by...
- remain important means of scientific communication
- report original research
- make a contribution to theory
- communicate (the recent, latest) findings through ...
- disseminate the information ...
- conduct experiments to determine
- report on ...

Appendix 2.
Word list 2. Comparing and Ccontrasting.

- an insignificant competitor
- a serious rival
- remain an important means of ...
- within and between countries / at home and abroad
- become more (formalized)
- remain a vital element

Appendix 3.
Input Tasks.

**Visuals and realia** (scientific journals like “Philosophical transactions”, “Nature” we borrow them from the Scientific library of the Karelian Research Centre). Students are asked to predict the content-based topic of the lesson by doing tasks, such as: answering questions looking at the visuals (pictures) and leafing through the journals.

*In pairs discuss your ideas about today’s topic. How could the pictures help you understand the text? How could you use them after you have read the text?*
Appendix 4.
Grammar and vocabulary chunks (content-based).

As the text deals with the history of science, we ask the students to pay special attention to historic facts, chronology, changes in time and to the usage of:

- prepositions and expressions of time
- past tenses
- passive forms
- comparative forms

The examples of these grammar structures and phrases are text-based:

- long before
- in the late / early / mid-17th century
- by the 18th century
- well into the 19th century
- even in the 20th century
- at times
- twentieth-century books
- after the emergence of ...
- in 1644
- at a time when ...
- in the 1672 “Phylosophical Transactions”
- during the 17th and 18th centuries
- seventeenth-century scientists
- in March 1665

Appendix 5.
Continued.

Match adjectives with nouns to form collocations. You can form several collocations with the same adjective.

1 scientific a) articles
2 brief b) theory
3 explanatory c) experiment
4 reliable d) communication
5 technical e) reports
6 qualitative f) details
7 quantitative g) observation
Appendix 6.

Pair work.

In pairs, find in the text, paraphrase or translate the following word combinations:
• without question (line 2)
• the honor roll (line 5)
• ground-breaking evolutionary biology (line 17)
• learned letters and essays (on …) (line 18)
• industrious scholars (line 31)
• interested scholars (line 34)
• society members (line 37)

Appendix 7.

Table-filling task.

Fill in Table 1 (individually) with facts and ask your group-mates questions about the scientists.

Table 1.
Noted scientists.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noted scientists</th>
<th>When and how long they lived</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Discoveries and publications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Francis Bacon</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Isaac Newton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Galileo Galilei</td>
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<tr>
<td>Johannes Kepler</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rene Descartes</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nicholas Copernicus</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8.
Mind map.
Find in the text five types of the scientific article and complete the mind map.

Appendix 9.
Tree diagram.
Fill out tree diagrams with words from the text describing the five types of the scientific article.

Appendix 10.
Time-line.
Put the appearance of first journals (by name, country) in chronological order.

1665 1676 1702 1743
Appendix 11.
Work with visuals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>4</th>
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<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gruppo I</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo II</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo III</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo IV</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo V</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo VI</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo VII</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gruppo VIII</strong></td>
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<td>K</td>
<td>Na</td>
<td>Ca</td>
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<td>Al</td>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>O</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table II.*
Appendix 12.
Work with visuals, continued

Match the pictures with the information related to them.

a. In 1665, the Royal Society published Robert Hooke’s Micrographia: or, Some Physiological Descriptions of Minute Bodies Made by Magnifying Glasses. As in the engraving of a flea, the illustrations folded out of the book to allow for large, highly detailed drawings. The text accompanying this image reads, “The strength and beauty of this small creature, had it no other relation at all to man, would deserve a description”.

b. Published in 1613, Galileo Galilei’s Istoria e dimostrazioni intorno alle macchie solari e loro accidenti (Account and demonstrations concerning sunspots and their origins), contained letters by Galileo on sunspots. By including illustrations of his observations on the same page as the text, he was able to refer to a particular spot (e.g. “La macchia A.”) and the date on which he observed it. The portrait of Galileo (above) was included at the front of the book.

c. Maria Sibylla Merian sailed from Europe to the Dutch colony of Surinam, in South America, in 1699. These images are taken from her 1705 book, Metamorphosis insectorum Surinamensium (Metamorphosis of the insects of Surinam), a beautifully illustrated work on natural history. In format, it anticipates Curtis’s Botanical Magazine with each figure accompanied by a page of explanatory text.

d. Artists and scientific researchers had perfected the art of anatomical illustration before the debut of scientific journals, but journals provided a new outlet for graphic representations of the natural world. This illustration from Jean Méry’s “Observation of two foetuses enclosed in the same membrane” appeared in Mémoires de l’Académie Royale des sciences in 1693.

e. Dimitri Mendeleev’s periodic table of elements from “The periodic conformity to the law of the chemical elements”, published in Annalen der Chemie und Pharmacie in 1871. Along with the two versions of the table, the article discussed its application.

f. Curtis’s Botanical Magazine began publication in 1787. This watercolor of “Hibiscus Rosa Sinensis. China-Rose Hibiscus” included information about its class, order and general character, as well as more descriptive text about the flower’s use: “The inhabitants of
India...are extremely partial to whatever is red, they confer it as a colour which tends to exhilarate; and hence they not only cultivate this plant universally in their gardens, but use its flowers on all occasions of festivity, and even in their sepulchral rites: [Rumphius] mentions also an economical purpose to which the flowers are applied, little consistent with their elegance and beauty, that of blacking shoes...”

Appendix 13.
Higher-order thinking tasks

I Choose a scientific journal. Make a list of key words and phrases and get prepared for a short presentation of the journal before the class. Invite your audience to ask questions at the end of your presentation. (PowerPoint Presentation)

II Briefly describe the type and structure of the article in your field of research using the list of key words and phrases. Compare your article with your group-mates’. (As a class, or in pairs / small groups)

III Answer the questions:
1. What visual forms can be found in today’s scientific journals?
2. When was the graph invented? Who invented it?
3. Find the description of the graph in the text.
4. What is the purpose of using graphs?
5. How has the graph contributed to the scientific visual representation?
6. What other visual form became an essential part of the scientific article in the 19th and 20th centuries? What remarkable example can you find in the text?
Multimodal Interaction in the Context of Foreign Language Learning

Kristiina Jokinen (Tartu)

Introduction

We communicate in many ways. Non-content words are used to provide feedback to the partner, and tone of voice, speaking rate, and intensity of speech give away our emotions and mental attitudes. Hesitations are marked by silence, prolongation of words, and repetitions, while nervousness can be accompanied by feet movement, and timidity or aggressiveness by body posture. Facial expressions (eyebrows, lips, cheek muscles) reflect our emotions, and eye-gaze signals where our focus of attention is directed and thus can be used to manage interaction. Also pupil size can be an important signal to indicate our interest. And one seldom thinks that also clothing, hair-do, makeup and jewellery, as well as smell provide indirect signals for interpreting our communication.

Most visible signals related to communication concern hand gesturing (beat gestures, pointing, iconic gestures, etc.), head movement (such as nodding, shaking, etc.), as well as body movement (e.g. leaning towards / away). In social situations also spatial orientation and arrangements tell us about the participants’ attitudes and relation to each other: touching, moving around, and speaking distance can tell about friendliness or formality of the interaction. In this paper we explore these visible signals and discuss possibilities to study and learn their use also when communicating in a foreign language. For smooth communication, it is important to distinguish the relevant multimodal signals, but it is also a challenge for a language learner to learn to recognize and produce appropriate facial expressions, gestures, and body posture signals.

The article is structured as follows. Section 2 starts with a general introduction to multimodal signals and to Constructive Dialogue Modelling (CDM), which is an approach to model human-human conversations. Also a short presentation of the Tartu MINT project is given. Section 3 surveys some of the
previous work on interactions in educational situations and especially in second language learning situations. Section 4 proposes a video-based methodology for second language learning, so as to learn to recognize communicatively important multimodal signals. Finally, Section 5 draws conclusions and discusses the results in a wider context for future research.

**Multimodality and Multimodal Interaction Management**

**Multimodal Signals**

Multimodal signals such as hand gestures, nods, frowns, eye-gaze, body movement, smiles, laughing, intonation etc. are effectively used to signal the speaker’s understanding and emotions [Feldman, Rim], and they can function on the different levels of communication. For instance, body posture often indicates the speaker’s engagement and transactional space [Kendon], while facial expressions can indicate the speaker’s state of mind (such as “I feel happy” or “What a silly thing to say”), or be used to display the speaker’s approval or disapproval of the partner’s actions. Emotional speech [Douglas et al.] and audio-visual speech [Swerts, Krahmer] are actively studied so as to bring forward suitable features, on the basis of which certain affects in the speech can be distinguished and synthesised, and e.g. specific audio-visual emotion challenges have been conducted to compare multimedia processing and machine-learning methods for automatic audio, visual and audio-visual emotion analysis. Laugh and various aspects of amusement from polite smile to genuine joy has also been a subject of much study [Glen].

Gesturing is often simultaneous to speaking and indicates rhythm and emphasis of the speech, but it is also an integral part of the imagery language and can independently signal part of the message itself [cf. Kendon]. Gestures are also used to coordinate interaction and signal such aspects as turn-taking or turn-giving [see Jokinen 2010]. Nodding is commonly used to signal feedback, but can also display certain cultural characteristics of the speaker [see e.g. Navarretta et al. for comparison of feedback strategies in Nordic interactions].

Eye gaze is a natural indication of people’s focus of attention, and can display their engagement and interest in the interaction. Interlocutors monitor their partners’ gaze direction so as to establish joint attention space: mutual gaze is e.g. used to give feedback of a shared referent, or to establish a point in the
interaction where turn-taking can occur. Cultural aspects dictate how eye-gaze may be interpreted on a social level: looking into partner’s eyes may display reliability or be intimidating. Head movements and gaze behaviour also have a crucial role in coordinating turn-taking in human-human conversations [see e. g. Kendon]. In a series of papers Jokinen and colleagues studied eye-gaze in turn-taking using an eye-tracker and video-corpus of Japanese conversations [Jokinen et al. 2012, 2010a, 2010b]. Engagement and eye-gaze is studied by [Levitski et al.], with a result that the conversational partners seem to look at a silent partner longer but less often than at the speaking one, and they look at a silent partner more often if this is passive, and shows no visual engagement in the interaction, than if this is actively involved in the interaction through visual multimodal signalling. Eye tracking information can be directly exploited in multimodal human-robot or human-animated agent interaction [Nakano et al.; Staudte, Crocker].

Correspondences between different modality levels can also occur across the interlocutors, i. e. the speech and gesturing are produced by different speakers. Such simultaneous behavior can be part of an intentional mimicry performance, but it can also be unintentional copying of the partner’s behaviour indicating the interlocutors’ tacit cooperation with each other. Pickering and Garrod [Pickering, Garrod] talk about *alignment* which can occur on the phonetic level (similar pronunciation, intonation), on the linguistic level (similar vocabulary and syntactic structures) or on the pragmatic level (similar multimodal behavior, gesturing, facial expressions). Others have used the term *synchronous* behaviour to emphasise the human activity being accurately timed and coordinated [Jokinen, Pärkson]. In the context of animated agents, *copying* or *mimicking* [Caridakis et al.] refer to multimodal and expressive synthesis of actions on virtual characters, based on human behaviour.

**Constructive Dialogue Modelling**

Figure 1 is a schematic visualisation of the interaction process. It is based on [Jokinen 2009], who regards interlocutors as rational agents, following Allwood, Traum & Jokinen [Allwood et al. 2000]. The interlocutors have their own goals, either goals related to accomplishing a task or social goals to build rapport and friendship, which they aim to achieve, and to achieve their goals, they initiate topics and react to the particular communicative situation according to their beliefs, intentions, and interpretation of the situation. The agents usually use the full repertoire of communicative means to communicate their message to the
partner, to monitor each other’s interests and emotions, and to coordinate their actions so as to build shared knowledge and mutual understanding in which to fulfil their goals. However, the basic enablements of communication, Contact, Perception, and Understanding (CPU) must hold for the interaction to proceed smoothly, and the agents’ cooperation can be said to manifest itself to the extent in which the agents can interpret the partner’s feedback, and provide their own relevant feedback on the CPU enablements.

Dialogue management can be seen as a spiral through which the participants’ shared knowledge is constructed through the cycle of Contact, Perception, Understanding, and Reaction. This view can be compared with the presentation-acceptance cycle by [Clark, Wilkes-Gibbs], but is based on more fundamental communicative enablements than interaction phases. Grounding takes place as a side effect of the process as the agents construct shared understanding of the underlying goals by exchanging and evaluating new information and it is a sign of the interlocutors’ cooperation [Allwood et al. 2000]. Feedback about grounding is often given tacitly by other modalities than speech, i.e. the participants display their affective state, their level of understanding and agreement by gesturing, facial expressions, head movement and body posture.

![Constructive Dialogue Management](image)

**Figure 1.**
Constructive Dialogue Management.
The Mint Project and Conversation Corpus

The project MINT (Multimodal Interaction — intercultural and technological aspects of video data collection, analysis, and use) at the University of Tartu is a four year project funded by the Estonian Science Foundation (ETF Project 8958). The goal of the project is to investigate multimodal communication in conversational settings, and to build computational models for multimodal behaviour in various interactive situations. The interlocutors’ communicative intentions and the manner in which meaning is expressed through words, hand gestures, gaze, facial expressions, body posture, etc. are studied through video-based corpus methodology, and the project also aims to build automatic models for the management and coordination of multimodal interactions. The goals and the description of the project are discussed in [Jokinen, Tenjes].

The Estonian First Encounters Dialogue corpus was collected within the project and it consists of 20 first encounter dialogues. The dialogue participants do not know each other in advance and their task is to make acquaintance with the partner whom they meet for the first time. They can speak whatever they find interesting, and the length of a single encounter is about 5-8 minutes. Each interaction was recorded by three cameras, one pointing to each of the two participants individually, and one central camera showing both participants sideways. Figure 2 shows two snapshots of the interactions collected in the project. The dialogues are transcribed, and also translated into English.

Figure 2.
Two snapshots of interaction (a) front camera view, (b) individual partner view.
Multimodal Classroom Interactions

Language learning is a social activity, with the aim of communicating with other people using the new language in interactive settings. The Constructivist view of learning emphasises that teaching is not just transmitting knowledge from the teacher to the student, but a two-way dynamic situation where the knowledge is constructed through interaction and communication [Jonassen]. In L2 classroom situations, the interaction is produced by a designated teacher and the learners, but it also occurs between the students themselves who observe their fellow students and provide their own viewpoint to the interactive situation. The role and impact of the other students on the learning outcome have not always been taken into account, however, resulting in a somewhat biased view of classroom interactions as mainly one-to-one pedagogical situations.

One of the early models for analysing spoken interactions is the IRF-model by [Sinclair, Coulthard]. It was developed as a tool for systematic studies on classroom interactions, and based on interactions led by the teacher. The rather rigid structure of the interactions was described with the help of hierarchical ranks, such as lesson, transaction, exchange, move, and act. A lesson consisted of transactions, which consisted of several teaching exchanges, which were made of different types of moves, which consisted of single acts (mainly various sentence-level acts). The main moves of Initiative, Response, and Feedback gave the model its name (IRF).

The IRF model describes language learning situations where the teacher initiates a question, the student provides a response, and the teacher gives feedback and closes the exchange. If the student’s response is wrong or problematic, the teacher’s feedback may function as an initiative for repair, and the repair exchange can continue as a branching initiative-response exchange until the student produces a response that the teacher accepts [cf. Macbeth]. However, although versions of the model have been successfully used e.g. in automatic analyses of interactions, the main criticism concerns its rigid structural viewpoint. The model focuses mainly on the structure of interaction and does not easily lend itself to the complexity of the transactions and exchanges, and does not explain why a certain move or act is chosen at a particular point.

Conversation Analysis [CA, Drew, Heritage; Goodwin] is an alternative method to describe interactions. It considers discourse structure being built bottom-up and jointly by the participants in the course of the dialogue, rather than being adapted to follow some pre-determined structures. Applying the CA methodology Seedhouse [2004] points out that L2 classroom interactions
are organised in a different manner from everyday conversations, and that the difference derives from the institutional goal of classroom interactions, i.e. that the teacher will teach the learners the L2. Although the actual pedagogical method and framework may vary, the main goal stays the same, and is the basis for a rather fixed interaction structure. It provides classroom interactions with a unique set of interactional practices that distinguish them from other institutional interactions and from everyday conversations, and give them their "fingerprint" [cf. Drew, Heritage].

Seedhouse [Seedhouse 2010] also emphasises that language has a dual role in L2 instructions: it is both the object and the vehicle of study. This means that the learners have to distinguish between pedagogy and interaction, and act on the basis of their analysis of the two types of interactive situations: either they repeat after the teacher and try to imitate what the teacher says (pedagogical analysis), or they try to apply the rules and produce imitations of real interactions in the L2 (interaction analysis). The other students also observe these interactions, analyse them with respect to a given pedagogical goal, and produce their own utterances which show this analysis. The L2 students thus constantly display their analyses and understanding of the relationship between pedagogy and interaction, through their own production and through observing the others.

However, L2 learners often intuitively abide by the multimodal behaviour learnt for their mother tongue, and thus easily stand out as a non-native speaker even though their verbal skills may be high. Therefore it is not enough that the students only display their verbal communicative capability, they also need to develop awareness of the differences on lexical-syntactic and pragmatic levels between their native and target languages. They should learn to distinguish multimodal functions of interaction and become aware of the relevant practices in the foreign language as well as in their mother tongue. In learning to distinguish the relevant multimodal signals and in learning to produce them, the learner needs to internalise the correlation between multimodal signalling and the verbal content, and it is argued that the learners can learn this by observation and by own practise. They can develop critical awareness of the language use by taking part in different communicative situations, and become familiar with the appropriate use of linguistic resources and multimodal signals in real interactions.

In this paper, we follow the Constructive Dialogue Model approach, which emphasises importance of the four basic enablements for communication
(see Section 2.2). Conversing participants cooperate with each other and coordinate their interaction by constant signalling if the CPU enablements are fulfilled, and often this kind of feedback is done tacitly through multimodal signalling. We assume that the same enablements apply to communication in a foreign language as well as in one's mother tongue, although the actual form-meaning relation of the communicative signs may differ in the two languages, especially in case of non-verbal signs.

**Video-Based Methodology for L2 Interaction Studies**

To help the learners to achieve meta-level knowledge of the communication practices in L2 and in one’s own mother tongue, the students’ attention should be directed towards the relevant patterns and pertinent features. We assume that systematic studies of the interactive practices, especially through video analysis and annotation, can help the L2 learner to detect the relevant patterns as the learner’s attention can be directed to the pertinent features in the interaction context and linguistic resources. In this way the student’s interaction skills can be consolidated and their ability to express themselves in a foreign language are improved.

Hall [Hall] has proposed the same method for raising the students’ awareness of the similarities and differences between the mother tongue and the target language. The appropriate pedagogical activities include analysis of videotapes according to the methodology of linguistic anthropology and discourse analysis. The analysis should focus on recurring and goal-directed interactions, since they can function as “cultural maps” of the socio-cultural environment which the language learner is to be introduced, and in which to learn to detect the necessary features. The notion of a cultural map refers to social situations which can function as a tool to help the learner to recognize appropriate multimodal signals and become familiar with the relevant socio-cultural information.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior Attribute</th>
<th>Behavior Value</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head Movement</td>
<td>Nod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up-Nod (Jerk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shake</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head Backward</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head Forward</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Side Turn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head Repetion</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repeated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face</td>
<td>Smile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scowl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Face Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyebrows</td>
<td>Frown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eyebrow Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback-Basic</td>
<td>CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (C, CP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback Direction</td>
<td>Feedback-Give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback-Elicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback-Give-Elicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback-Agreement</td>
<td>Feedback-Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback-Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3.**
Some annotation features and feature values for head movement, facial expressions, and feedback.

We have used the Anvil annotation tool [Kipp], and the Anvil annotation board is shown in Figure 4. The annotations of the MINT corpus follow the MUMIN coding scheme [Allwood et al. 2007], and some annotation features and feature values for head movement, facial expressions, and feedback are shown in Figure 3. The annotation attributes seek to capture features that are significant with respect to the functional level of the annotation, and they are thus not fine-grain with respect to their shape and dynamics. However, the
The Anvil annotation board is shown in Figure 4. It can be seen that the duration of movement or state is not indicated as an explicit attribute in the coding scheme, but can be inferred from the concrete implementations to indicate start and end point of the gesture. Thus it is possible to ensure synchronisation between the various modality tracks and visualize the simultaneous behaviours.

For further discussion on the issues in the annotation of video corpus, we refer to the article by [Jokinen, Pelachaud].

The specific hypothesis of an “actor-observer asymmetry” was first proposed by social psychologists [Jones, Nisbett]. They hypothesized that these two roles produce asymmetric explanations. “Actors tend to attribute the causes of their behavior to stimuli inherent in the situation, while observers tend to attribute behavior to stable dispositions of the actor” [Jones, Nisbett: 93]. When studying the multimodal behaviour of the agents appearing on a film, a slight discrepancy
may be caused by the actor-observer asymmetry: while the behaviour and multimodal actions are the same, in that the message is expressed through the same form, it’s the internal motivation for the behaviour that may be different: the actor or participants in the interaction may explain their behaviour in reference to a particular situation in the interaction while the observer (the learner) tends to explain the behaviour by referring to the agent’s dispositions such as being happy and hardworking or the like. We assume, however, that for the purposes of the educational classroom situations, the differences may not be significant.

**Conclusions and Future Work**

This chapter has focused on multimodal communication and especially its role in foreign language learning, arguing that multimodal communication is one of the important aspects that the learner needs to master. As a learning method to learn interaction to recognize multimodal signals in multimodal interaction, the analysis of video conversations was suggested. By the systematic study of the interactive practices, through video analysis and observations through which the learners’ attention is directed to the pertinent features in the interaction context and linguistic resources, the learners can be helped to detect relevant patterns.

Considering the goal of language learning, i.e. enabling the learner to fully communicate in the L2, it is crucial that the learners get support for their pragmatic and interactional competence, including mastery of multimodal communication, so as to learn to perceive the differences and to produce them in one’s own language use. Language mastery includes multimodal and social communication skills, and therefore, when learning a second language, not only verbal information (words, grammar) needs to be learnt, but also interactive practices and the appropriate use and interpretation of multimodal signals. These skills are learnt in interactive situations: if the speaker is repeatedly exposed to a certain kind of communicative situation and if their communicative action results in a successful goal achievement, the same action is likely to be used again. In foreign language learning, interactive practises and analysis of interaction are thus a necessary and common part of the training.
REFERENCES


Jokinen 2012 — Jokinen, K. 2012. COLING.


Classroom management and teacher-student interaction are integral to sound methodological practice. Before we can proceed with our discussion we must first understand about whom we are talking. I focus on the language which teachers use in the classroom teaching students studying English as a second language either in elementary or secondary school in Russia. We are interested here simply in the non-speaking English teacher who himself/herself learned English as a second language. The non-English-speaking teacher forms, obviously, at least in Russian schools, the larger group. It is this teacher who is involved with most of the English teaching going on today throughout the world. Since this teacher has studied English herself in the same way that his/her students are studying, s/he understands their problems. Such a teacher knows very well how difficult it is to learn a foreign language. S/he teaches slowly and well, being careful at all times to keep within the vocabulary range of the students. In this respect s/he is a good teacher.

In other respects, however, s/he may show obvious weaknesses. S/he may either speak English fluently or s/he may speak English haltingly and with great difficulty. The following chart shows what classroom language is.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is classroom language?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. The teacher’s instructions and/or praise: “Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the books, please”; “Come up to the board”; “That’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>great”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. The course-books instructions, which are very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple and typical: “Listen and read”; “Fill in”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. The questions and/or requests of the learners: “Could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you repeat the question?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Excessive use of mother tongue, when presenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the language material.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1.
And of utmost importance is that the teacher must set the good example by speaking English and making it the “official” classroom language. As Albert Schweitzer said: “There are many ways to teach, but only one works — by example”.

Considering the roles of the teacher in the classroom management we paid attention to the amount of talking they do. Indeed, whether or not it is considered a good thing for teachers to spend 70–80% of class time talking will depend on the objectives of a lesson. Normative statements appear that teacher talk is “bad” and while it can be argued that excessive teacher talk (TTTM) is to be avoided, determining what is or is not “excessive” will always be a matter of judgment. It can also be argued that in many foreign language classrooms, a teacher talk is important, and we agree that in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive.

But another issue of concern is code switching between the first and target language so typical of Russian foreign language teachers and the effect of this on pupil talk. It has been found that teachers and learners make far greater use of mother tongue than they do of the foreign language. This code switching may be affected by different factors among which: the nature of the activity, the teacher’s perceptions of how the students learn, but quite often by the use of Russian by the teacher. In the relationship between the teacher’s use of the first or target language and the pupils’ use of the first or target language it is vividly discovered that when the teacher increases the use of English, the target language rises proportionally.

A great obstacle in teacher — learner’s interaction is a mighty preparation for the state exam when the lesson becomes a ritual rather than a meaningful, enjoyable process. When this occurs students often do not see the difference between the English lesson and Maths, for instance, the teacher may be interested in training the students orally, but the course requirements and preparation for standardized examination make oral practice quite impossible.

To make teaching English more effective we investigated teacher experience matters in teacher effectiveness and student achievement and came to a certain conclusion. Those involved in learner and teaching process are fully aware of the fact that teaching is one of the oldest professions and it has established a number of principles. We are going to consider briefly the principles as regards human communication and interpersonal relations.

We put in the first place the importance of subject matter knowledge acquired by a teacher and her / his ability to convey the content to students in a way that they can remember, practice and reproduce. Our observations
have illustrated that teachers with greater subject matter knowledge tend to involve students in different activities and meaningful discussions thus making student performance better. The role of the teacher is that of a participant, not dominating, but giving the students a chance to practice English with someone who speaks it better than they do. Participation generally requires considerably more energy and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher.

Thus, to avoid excessive teacher talk and achieve high level of student involvement with work, we can suggest techniques helping the teacher in the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. High level of student involvement with work</th>
<th>Effective teacher</th>
<th>Ineffective Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students are working</td>
<td>Teacher starts class immediately. Teacher has assignments posted. Teacher knows how to praise and encourage the student.</td>
<td>Teacher says: “Read Chapter 1 and know the material. I’ll give you a test covering everything in Chapter 1.” Teacher tells but does not rehearse procedures Teacher uses generalized praise or none at all.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>2. Clear student expectations.</th>
<th>Students know that assignments are based on objectives. Students know that tests are based on objectives.</th>
<th>Teacher takes roll and dallies Students ask for assignments repeatedly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<th>3. Relatively little wasted time, confusion, or disruption.</th>
<th>Teacher has invested time in practicing procedures until they become routines Teacher knows how to praise and encourage the student.</th>
<th>Teacher tells but does not rehearse procedures Teacher uses generalized praise or none at all.</th>
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<tr>
<th>4. Work-oriented but relaxed and pleasant climate</th>
<th>Teacher has invested time in practicing procedures until they become routines Teacher knows how to praise and encourage the student.</th>
<th>Teacher tells but does not rehearse procedures Teacher uses generalized praise or none at all.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Chart 2.

Therefore, we may say that half of the teacher effectiveness is determined by deep involvement of students with their work, especially with academic, teacher-led instruction. Students know what is expected of them and are generally successful. There is relatively little wasted time and the climate of the classroom is work-oriented. To top it all, the teaching of a language should be considered more as the imparting of a skill than as the provision of information about forms of the language. A skill is an ability developed through prolonged practice. We learn to speak by speaking.

The second principle concerns code switching between the first and target language. This responds to how best to differentiate instruction, and individualize for the range of student needs and abilities in the classroom. The ability to meet the learning needs, achievements and styles of all the students is one of the signs of an effective teacher. Teachers should understand what instruction
to use for gifted learners, for those who need and must receive the help, using available and appropriate differentiation in instruction, including grouping strategies, cooperative grouping, flexing grouping and ability grouping with differentiation to support student learning.

We put in the third place the principle of organizing for instruction, as effective organizing for instruction involves going beyond planning and preparation of material, with a conscious orientation toward teaching and learning as the central focus of classroom activity. Use of time can be optimized in the classroom by pacing materials, giving students a way to constructively use their time in different activities and thus preparing for state exams.

The fourth principle states that a lot of scholars distinguish assessment (control, checking) to find out how the students have learned the material. There are a variety of means to check content and effective teachers have to employ all the tools at their disposal to make a positive impact on students, including the use of feedback and homework. A common practice with Russian teachers of English is frequent use of in-class tests. Without doubt this is thought to be a good monitoring strategy.

Unfortunately, teachers often provide feedback that is primarily corrective, they simply indicate right or wrong answers which may lead, as educators recognize, to a negative impact on student learning. So the teacher should provide specific explanations of what students are doing correctly, what they are not doing correctly and how to fix it. It will take time, of course, but without doubt, will support and encourage student learning.

Up to this point we have been considering teacher’s actions. Surely, the teacher is the guiding force in the classroom. But there is another side to the coin in teaching and learning and that’s the responsibility of students to contribute to good learning. I mean self-monitoring and control techniques. They are those in which students are taught to observe their own skills, record them in some way, compare them with some predetermined criterion and then acknowledge and reward their own success. The lack of attention paid to developing students’ responsibility for their knowledge and acquired skills is probably one of the defining factors in teaching and learning.

The fifth principle states that active methods of teaching should be made as much as possible and should be made inside and outside the classroom, where English should be naturally the principal means of communication and teachers need to use the foreign language among themselves and between themselves and their learners in and out the classroom.
I would like to conclude by citing the words of learning experience of one of the students: “I would say “teacher talk” helped me least. Looking back, I wish he had given me more opportunities to use the language in class, especially speaking it inside and outside the classroom. It would have been more fun and challenging”.

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Introduction
The question chosen as a subject for the research appears to be of great importance, because at present there is a tendency that schooling in general, in the process of English language acquisition, draws mostly on the linguistic intelligence. Students are put under conditions of a regular language class where all the process of learning is aimed at achieving good academic results, doing standardised tests or performing satisfactorily on the state examinations in order to let the school survive in the world of high competitiveness. However, the spectrum of human capabilities to be nurtured and ways to be taught is much broader. Moreover, according to the Estonian National Curriculum (2010), one of the main aims of education is to foster an individual as a successful member of the modern society, with well-developed social skills, who is aware of his or her personal strengths and weaknesses as well as being responsible for their development in future life. In other words, this narrow approach to learning focused mostly on students’ linguistic faculty ignores students’ wide range of intelligences, hence, deactivates their motivation in the process of learning English.

Basic Features of Multiple Intelligences Theory
In order to discuss the importance of motivation in the learning process, particularly, in SLA, and the ways to reach it, it is necessary to turn to the concept of Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory and its key points.

Nicholson-Nelson [Nicholson-Nelson: 9], analysing Gardner’s concept of the intelligence, points out three features, defining it as:
the ability to create an effective product,
• a set of skills that enables an individual to solve problems,
• the potential for finding or creating solutions for problems which enables a person to acquire knowledge.

Fleetham [Fleetham: 42] adds that” the heart” of the theory is the idea that everyone is clever. He also affirms that if you believe it deep in bones, the MI theory will come to you naturally.

In light of the EFL educational setting the concept of the intelligence, of the learner’s intelligence, should be taken into consideration by the teacher. According to [Gardner 1993] a person has at least eight intelligences developed to a certain extent (linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinaesthetic, intrapersonal, interpersonal and naturalistic). It is also has to be admitted that a linguistic intelligence of students, as one of the main abilities to be developed and measured while acquiring the language, must not be underestimated. But in the same way, it is a must to create different environmental conditions to let a wider range of students’ potential be fostered. Otherwise, learners who are not linguistically-gifted and whose motivation is low (there are quite a lot of them) either shut down completely or look for ways to hide their weakness.

As for the appropriate educational environmental conditions, Gardner [Gardner 1993: xvii] makes distinction between the key notions of the theory: intelligence, domains, field.

As for domains, they are “disciplines, crafts, other pursuits in which one can become enculturated and then be assessed in terms of the level of competence one has attained” Gardner [Gardner 1993: xvi]. Gardner (ibid) adheres to the view that intelligences and domains are related to each other. At the same time he feels for sure that it is important to tell one from another because practically all domains require mastery in different intelligences; in turn, any intelligence can be activated through a wide range of domains suggested by a culture.

As far as the field is concerned, Gardner (ibid) considers it to be crucial when the individual becomes competent in one of the domains. He defines the field as “a sociological construct that includes the people, institutions, award mechanisms, and so forth that render judgments about the qualities of individual performances” (ibid). And the successfulness of the individual depends on the extent to which the field can judge the competence and support its development. As soon as the field provides inappropriate judgments, one’s chance to achieve positive results fails.
In other words, the proper interaction of the individual with his or her intelligences, the access to the domains within a culture, and the judgments provided by the field is the basis for the individual to be encouraged and motivated in acquiring new knowledge.

Proceeding with another characteristic of MI theory, Gardner [Gardner 1993: xxi] in his research found out that learning styles of different individuals are content-specific, hence, intelligences are linked to informational contents "that exist in the world-numerical information, spatial information, information about people" [Gardner 1993: xxi]. For example, the child who is interested and easily gets involved in one content can become passive in another content.

To draw a parallel between this concept and the EFL class, in order to save students' interest and motivation, to foster their multitude of intelligences, it is necessary to provide them with a wide range of curriculum content meeting the needs of their different learning styles.

Emphasising the governing principles of MI theory it is possible to point out the following:

- There are at least some ways to be intelligent.
- Everyone is intelligent in their own unique way.
- Intelligences are independent of each other, however can combine and work together.
- Everyone has each intelligence developed to a certain extent.
- Intelligences can develop and grow in a supportive educational environment.

**Implementation of MI Theory in Practice**

The key point in bringing MI theory to life is creating appropriate MI educational conditions. There is not one unique formula to create them, since each educator has his or her own teaching style, different target groups of students, possibilities, and own vision and perception of MI theory. However, the conditions have one thing in common — they are all intelligence-friendly.

The distinguishing feature of a MI classroom is flexibility with an easy access to any space equipped with resources matched to each intelligence. Fleetham [Fleetham: 82] differentiates active and passive resources. The former ones include tools, materials and furniture to make things. For example, they are books, audio recording, writing equipment, computer, media, and flexible chair
and table arrangement. The latter ones he calls "more part of the scenery". Charts, background music, diagrams, posters, photographs fall into this category.

Fleetham [Fleetham: 83] also offers some more simple but effective ideas to organize a MI setting. For instance, he advises there should be labelled areas related to one or more intelligences and call them "Linguistic area", "Intrapersonal area", "Visual area" and so on. This at once features the classroom as a MI one.

The choice of appropriate classroom organization and teaching strategies directly depends on the teacher.

Nicholson-Nelson [Nicholson-Nelson: 70] also reveals a remarkable insight into the role of the teacher in a MI classroom, which is a place for active learning and where the teacher no longer simply imparts knowledge and rules to students and students are no longer empty vessels to be filled. Instead, the teacher is a facilitator or coach who oversees the students' learning process. S/he proceeds with the idea that students are active learners who play a critical role in their own learning as they create projects, which s/he considers the most motivating teaching technique, work with others and use their own learning styles to succeed.

Fleetham [Fleetham: 91] emphasises the teachers' intelligences profiles which can influence, and not always favourably, their teaching styles. In order to become a MI teacher and match students' MI profiles, it is necessary to develop oneself in different directions.

When the teacher is competent about the main foundations of MI theory and inspired by it, it is time to get started with its application to practice.

The first stage of teaching students with multiple intelligences is to assess and describe students' MI profiles. There are quite a lot of approaches to do it. The following are the most commonly used by teachers.

The first one is a computer-scored test (www.businessballs.com) which gives an overview and some clues to students' various intelligences.

The second one — observation — is considered the most effective as it provides the teacher with detailed information through note taking. According to [Armstrong 2009: 34], the observation can be based on students' behaviour (their interaction, way of talking to each other, moving around, arguing, etc.) and misbehaviour in and out the classroom environment.

After introducing students to the multiple intelligences, the next stage of implementing the MI theory in practice is lesson planning in terms of MI activities. As for concrete MI activities, Armstrong [Armstrong 2009: 58] suggests a
number of them. Teachers are able to choose from these activities and put them
to uses in ways suited to their teaching styles and learning objectives. Moreover, they can be completed by teachers on a regular basis in order to make a ready-at-hand methodological toolkit of MI teaching activities, materials and instructional strategies.

Not every lesson or unit has to or should include all of the intelligences. By including two or three intelligences in most lessons, students are given the opportunity to learn in different ways. The aim of planning MI lessons is to arrange them in such a way that all students could have their strongest intelligences addressed at least some of the time.

As far as the designing of lesson plans is concerned, Armstrong [Armstrong Armstrong 2009: 65] comes up with the idea of the seven-step procedure as an organizing framework for teachers:

1. Focus on a specific objective or topic.
2. Ask key MI questions. (For example, How I can cater for logical-mathematical intelligence? How I can cater for intrapersonal intelligence?)
3. Consider the possibilities, i.e. appropriate activities, materials, instructional strategies. (Suggested by [Armstrong 2009: 58]).
4. Brainstorm for teaching approaches to achieve the objective.
5. Select appropriate activities from the completed MI Planning Sheet which appear the most workable in your conditional setting.
6. Set up a lesson plan or unit around the specific topic, using the chosen approaches.
7. Implement the plan, gathering the materials, selecting an appropriate time frame, and carrying out the lesson plan.

In conclusion it is necessary to highlight the idea that MI theory can be interpreted and applied to practice differently by different educators. In this sense, it is very flexible, and there is not one unique way to bring it to life. This is the most advantageous point of this theory. A MI class is a place for active learning, where the teacher is aware of her/his students’ strongest intelligences and uses them as a tool to reach learning objectives. MI teaching strategies can be used to activate students’ intelligences and meet their different learning styles in order to motivate them for English language acquisition. Students like lessons where they do not struggle with standardized tests on a regular basis but acquire English in a variety of ways, being responsible for the result of learning and aware of their own diversity of talents.
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Entrepreneurial Thinking in English Lessons (Practice of Pskov Linguistic Gymnasium)

Ekaterina Alekseeva (Pskov)

Introduction

Society is going through the modernization stage where all the processes are aimed at innovation, adaptation to new reality in economic, political and socio-cultural spheres of life. That demands a new innovative class that will prepare students for transition to adulthood in this new society and in this way will improve the quality of social capital.

School has always been the main institution of youth socialization where efficient and adequate competences should be formed. So nowadays school and university face the fact that they need to prepare the students for rapidly changing reality, to teach them how effectively and successfully to fit in and integrate into socio-economic, political and cultural processes in the region. Various studies show that traditional schooling is becoming less interesting for young people, sometimes they even suffer from negative emotions when coming to school which leads to the problem of low motivation and as a result low social quality of new generation. This problem is characteristic not only of Russian schools but many European countries face the same difficulty [Барбёр]. So the teachers need to try to work out so called meta-subject blocks where they can help students to develop innovative, creative, entrepreneurial thinking. It is crucial for the teacher to create an environment that will help students to be ahead of any changes and be ready for further development and improvement after finishing school. These students then will become the foundation of a strategic human resource for regional and State development.
Entrepreneurship as a Concept

What is entrepreneurial thinking? Various dictionaries give such definitions as resourcefulness, inventiveness, readiness, ability for finding solutions very quickly. Summing all that up, we can distinguish some essential features:

- Active life perception;
- Inventive approach to routine;
- Intuition, purposefulness, ability to avoid or overcome obstacles and difficulties;
- Quality aimed at success;
- Combination of will and hard work;
- Ability to find new in everyday life, original in the traditional, achievable in the unattainable.

A significant number of studies worldwide are aimed to conceptualize the term “entrepreneurship”. There were several attempts to define this concept and now there exist various approaches [Sexton, Kasarda]. G. Stevenson, a professor in Harvard Business School, has an interesting approach to that phenomenon. He defines “entrepreneurship” as the search for opportunities beyond the controlled resources at a certain time [Stevenson: 154]. Such an approach is not limited only to the business sphere. Stevenson believes that entrepreneurship is possible in almost all spheres of human activity.

Another interesting concept is “intellectual entrepreneurship” which means the process of cultural innovations. Intellectual entrepreneurs take risks, look for opportunities, discover and create knowledge, generate innovations, cooperate and solve problems in any spheres of social reality [Johannisson].

While defining the phenomenon of “entrepreneurship”, it is also necessary to study the social entrepreneurship [Mair et al.].

In this article entrepreneurship is considered as a business activity, initiative, and ability to start and carry out the task which brings success. It is the ability to perform this activity regularly and successfully, the skill to make decisions very quickly in the situation of uncertainty.

Entrepreneurship can be defined in both a broad and narrow sense. In the first case, it is a personality trait, the ability to be creative, spontaneous and successful in any life situation. In the second meaning, it is more of the ability to carry out entrepreneurial activity.
Structure of Entrepreneurial Thinking

As teachers, we can talk about the following structure of entrepreneurial thinking:

1. Ability for critical analysis and comprehension of personal experience;
2. Ability for positive goal setting;
3. Ability to create new methods to achieve goals of different levels;
4. Motivation to achieve instead of motivation to avoid failure;
5. Active life perception, orientation to creative overcoming of difficulties.

So entrepreneurial thinking is closely connected with creative and critical ways of thinking. The model of developing entrepreneurial thinking is comprised of three main components: motivation, critical thinking and creative thinking.

The most important feature of an entrepreneurial person is a specific attitude to life as a system of opportunities to experiment, create self-development and self-realization. And motivation becomes the key notion. Motivation to avoid failure forms the reactive approach to life, while motivation for success leads to proactive life style. The Reactive approach to life means to live under the circumstances, just reacting to externals. The Proactive approach to life means constructing your life according to your desires, actively influencing events and circumstances. This approach allows a person to be the master of one’s life and be fully responsible for that. People with entrepreneurial thinking can adequately assess their abilities and possibilities.

One of the most valuable results of a proactive life style is the willingness to write the script of one’s life. Only successful, proactive people are ready to perceive their life not as a chain of events under the changing circumstances, but as their own life project. Such an approach enables people to create the life scenario, and to foresee the main directions of its development. Such a scenario should be flexible and adaptive and to make possible changes influenced by the person or surroundings. The modern school should develop the ability for a proactive life style as an important element of entrepreneurial thinking.

The English Language as a Tool to Develop Entrepreneurship

Why the English language? It plays here an essential role as it correlates with one of the features of entrepreneurial thinking — the ability to act in the situation of uncertainty. The English language serves as a model of a risk situation.
and uncertainty which stimulates the search activity and makes students look for non-standard and efficient solutions to various problems. When teenagers think in English, which is not their native language, they find themselves in a more rewarding and informing situation and many psychological barriers are removed.

English lessons can help develop subject, social and personal competences. To develop entrepreneurial thinking it is essential to realize several pedagogical conditions among them being steady motivation, attractive content, and the inter-subject communication of a teacher and students.

Motivation is critical. Teachers should always actualize achievements of their students in different spheres and motivate them to solve this or that task. Students should not fear any mistakes and they should aim at the search for opportunities to help achieve their success.

As for the content of the classes, it should appeal to teenagers and offer great opportunities for uncertainty and, in this way, create the environment for entrepreneurial thinking. Students should be able to relate to the topic and problems offered in class.

Another prerequisite for efficient development of innovative thinking is the inter-subject student-teacher communication. Students can be creative only when they aren’t given ready-made ways to solve this or that problem, when they can choose the most efficient and convenient ways of achievement. That is why, in our Gymnasium (upper secondary school) we use meta-subject modules. For example, in the English lesson students can be offered to create their own business idea in English, then make up the mind map with the help of IT tools and finally present it to their classmates. Such a situation stimulates the search activity and develops entrepreneurial thinking.

And the last but not least condition — a teacher should offer the situations for the students to use critical and creative thinking. That means that the students should have their own ideas of what goals to achieve and how, what success factors are the most important for them.

**Pedagogical Methods and Techniques to Develop Entrepreneurial Thinking**

To develop entrepreneurial thinking it is necessary to involve students in the process of co-creation and design. In Pskov Linguistic Gymnasium various methods are used for that purpose:
1. **Method of “Real Stories”**
   We use different texts, case studies, describing lives and situations of famous people, who faced some problems in any sphere. Students are offered the opportunity to read these stories in English and analyze them from the point of view of motivation patterns, active patterns, innovative ideas and ways of problem solution. Students make up the list of qualities essential for a successful career and life and try to analyze their own situations keeping those in mind. It’s necessary to mention also that we use not only “success stories” but also the “stories” of failure.

2. **Methods of Text Analysis, Folder of Stories**
   Students are taught how to work with huge masses of information using the skills of critical thinking, pointing out the relevant and irrelevant parts. Students acquire the skills of efficient usage of Internet information, structure any kind of information, learn how to systematize and visualize it.

3. **Method of “Problem Situations”**
   Students get a real problem situation in Russian. Then, in a group or individually, they find several ways to solve it.

4. **Method of Group Competition**
   Entrepreneurial thinking is competitive thinking in the situation of uncertainty. It demands not only cognitive skills but the ability to generate ideas, filter and sort out the most effective ones. We can imitate such situation giving the same task to several groups and asking them to find the solution at a certain period of time.

5. **“Personal Trail”**
   A student has the opportunity to set her / his own goal and identify her / his own success factors and ways of achievement. The teacher serves as a consultant here, helping the students to set the goals according to SMART-criteria and focusing also on Federal Educational Standards.

6. **Business Game in English**
   “Model of different business processes”;
   “Business idea development”;
   “SWOT analysis”;
“Negotiations”;
“Decision making” and others.

In our Gymnasium we also use other technologies and methods aimed at development of critical, creative and entrepreneurial thinking:
1. Mind Maps;
2. Brainstorming;
3. Group discussion;
4. Semantic and critical text analysis;
5. “Debates” program in English;
6. Project technologies;
7. Case studies, etc.

**Pedagogical Conditions to Develop Entrepreneurial Thinking:**
1. Students should be motivated to actively master the elements of entrepreneurial thinking. Students should not fear to make a mistake, their motivation should not be to avoid failure and follow the strict algorithm of a teacher, but to search for the opportunities for success which they define themselves.
2. The content of study units should be very attractive to students. All the tasks should offer many options, uncertainty, and the opportunity to use various skills to solve them. Any problem should be appealing to students, making them find various solutions to ambiguous tasks.
3. Inter-subject communication of students and teacher is also of great importance for the development of entrepreneurial thinking. In Pskov Linguistic Gymnasium meta-subject study modules are successfully used.
4. In class a teacher should create conditions for the students to develop the skills of critical and creative thinking. The opinion of students is taking into account and they are offered various methods and forms of learning, criteria of success, and given different ways of goal-setting.
5. To develop entrepreneurial thinking at school it is necessary to create and sustain the environment where entrepreneurial and resourceful values are not just stated but are accepted by teachers in their everyday communication with students.
Conclusion

Finally, I would like to emphasize that a teacher can try to use different elements and technologies, and in this way teaching will become more interesting and relatable for the students. Students won’t perceive a problem as a potential failure but as a challenge and an opportunity to make up something new. Students should feel that their resources, skills and abilities will contribute to gradual development, thus making them successful citizens of the country.

Entrepreneurial thinking is an ability to act and carry out projects using non-standard ways and resources, and is the most important competence of a modern person. More than that, the number of such people in a country provides and proves the high national potential. Accelerating competition in all spheres, growing risks and uncertainties demand entrepreneurial thinking as a main component of an educational system.

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Strategies for Successful Organization of Independent Work

Irina Petrova (Kohtla-Järve)

Introduction
The system of higher education today seems to be perfect for developing the skills of independent work as the amount of self-study has been increasing to such an extent that now there are subjects that are acquired partially or completely outside the classroom without the physical presence of the teacher.

Studies [Sitzmann et al.] show that courses conducted via the Internet can be as efficient and satisfactory for the students as traditional learning. However, in case of students with initially low levels of motivation for self-study or lack of self-discipline, additional effort and subtle method are required on the teacher’s part to “help” the students practice regularly in a language.

For example, the course English Language for Specific Purpose, conducted at Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology, grants 4 European Credit Points, which equals 104 hours of student work. This amount is made up of 3 hours of classwork for the duration of 16 weeks and independent work, which accounts for 56 hours. Thus, there is less classwork than work that has to be completed out of class. In case of the former, it is easy to calculate how much instruction a particular student has received, while with the latter we cannot guarantee that the expected amount of time was invested into studies by the course participants. Even if all home tasks have been done, another danger with independent work is that many human beings tend to leave work to the last possible moment and then complete enormous amounts of tasks within a short period of time. In case of university students it is usually the day or night before submission deadline or before the examination. Hence, it is not uncommon in teacher’s practice when a course participant manages to compress those 56 hours of presumably thorough and conscious work into a couple of days of extremely intensive activity. Such study habits are detrimental for the quality of education, especially when we think about language learning,
where memorization and constant practice are the starting points. Thus, among other important questions for educators to answer concerning organization of independent work in language teaching are the following two:

- How to encourage students to work independently allowing enough time?
- How to encourage students to work independently more regularly?

In the discussion below these two questions will be approached from two perspectives.

**The Teacher as a Language Learner**

It may be extremely insightful for the teacher to try and step into the learner’s position in order to better understand what motivates as well as what prevents them from studying in a way that is the most efficient. The easiest way for language teachers to do this is to start learning a new foreign language, reflecting on his or her personal experience. Below are the author’s reflections on her independent learning of the Spanish language.

“I started learning the language using web resources and language learning software. In the beginning the enthusiasm was immense, due to which I practiced almost every day for an average of 20–30 minutes. Sometimes I was so excited that it was hard to stop and the study sessions lasted twice longer. The other days I only managed to complete one or two small exercises because of tiredness. However, hardly ever did the lack of free time hinder my studies. At this stage the only thing that was able to put me off studies was occasional confusion about a specific task or units that were too dense in content and required too much mental effort. In such situations I needed a really strong will in order to persevere. After a while, when the initial motivation gradually started to diminish, it became more and more difficult to focus on the language learning. I still had motivation to proceed with my studies, but there always were some other things that kept me occupied.”

This personal experience of independent language study can also shed some light on the strategies that modern language learning resources on the Internet employ in order to attract more and more users and can help to assess their value from the learner’s point of view. Most websites of this kind seem to acknowledge the hectic lifestyles of today’s learners, with constantly shifting priorities and lack of time. In order to win back their changeable audience’s attention and remind about the need to devote some time to language learning, educational web services have developed special motivational systems.
First of all, many language learning sites have introduced metaphorical representations of a language as an exciting world and the language learning itself as an exciting game or an adventure. For example, the website Busuu, where each registered user has a personalized study programme called itinerary, depicts language as a garden that produces “juicy busuu-berries” if you study regularly, or it starts to “dry out” if you have not visited it for a while. Another example is LinguaLeo, an English learning platform for Russian speakers, which asks the users to look after a pet lion – Leo, who lives in the language jungle and waits for you to feed him regularly by completing one of the practice exercises. Both sites have incorporated a system of earning bonus points for doing more tasks. The number of bonuses that you have collected so far is shown on your profile enabling you to compare your achievements with others and even share your points with someone you want to motivate.

At the same time as providing study materials and practise exercises, these and other language learning websites have also become social networks offering an excellent opportunity for real communication in a foreign language. Once you create an account, you are expected to indicate your native language, or the languages you know at the level of a native speaker, and then state the language that you aim to learn. The users who are learning your native language can invite you for a chat or ask you to correct some of their written work. In turn, when you seek help, or are just keen to communicate in the target language, you address registered native speakers of that language. Again, for each feedback you leave on anybody’s writing you are awarded bonuses.

Another thing that seems extremely useful in today’s speed of life is the principle that it is not the learner who has to seek opportunities for practice, but the language itself reaches you through various channels. What you need to do is simply to subscribe for a service and, as a result, you will receive daily emails or news feeds on your wall in a social network with “bits of the language” such as jokes, quotations, grammar rules, illustrated vocabulary etc. In addition to supplying you with new information they also serve as a reminder you to do some language work.

All in all, this little investigation of the available means for learning a language can teach us the following lessons. Firstly, learners’ motivation for homework should not be taken for granted, as it may be extremely difficult to maintain high levels of motivation for a long period. Secondly, some strategies employed on the Internet could be incorporated in a university course, for example establishing a system of bonuses for learners’ achievements or providing opportunities for communication.
Students’ Perception of Independent Work

University students are supposedly more likely to possess a different type of motivation from that of their teacher, as their primary goal is probably to pass the course and obtain their credit points. That is why it was decided to elicit the answers to the questions established in the introduction directly from the students by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was conducted among 3 groups of daily students and 2 groups of distant students of Tallinn University of Technology, Virumaa College, who have just completed their second semester of English studies. The students were asked four questions, which were translated into their mother tongue:

1. How much time / how often do you think it is necessary to study English outside class to achieve your learning aims?
2. How much time / how often have you managed to study independently this semester?
3. What prevents you from studying as much as you should?
4. What could help you improve your study habits next semester?

The questionnaire was carried out in two stages. At the first stage 15 students were given the paper version with the four open-ended questions and instructed to write as much as they could. Then, at the second stage, based on these answers, the electronic version of the questionnaire with multiple-choice questions was prepared. The link to the questionnaire was sent out to 49 students, out of which 43 answered.

The figure 1 shows the answers to the first two questions. The results were placed on the same chart in order to illustrate more clearly the discrepancy between the desired and actual amount of time spent on independent work. As we can see, the majority of students view language learning quite idealistically, suggesting that to achieve their aims they are supposed to practise in small portions every day. The second most popular answer is 3–4 times a week. However there are only 5 students who managed to match the reality with the ideal and studied every day either for 20–30 minutes or for an hour. About 40% of the respondents studied once a week or even less frequently. On the bright side, about a third indeed performed independent work more or less regularly — 3–4 times a week.

The third question was aimed at revealing the reasons why learners do not devote enough time to independent work. The results, reflected in figure 2, suggest that university students often do not have enough time for improving their language skills at home. Given that first year students are unlikely to have a full time employment, this reason might seem as an excuse for setting wrong priorities.
How much time and how often should you study at home?

**Figure 1.**
Questions 1 and 2.

**Figure 2.**
Question 3.
Finally, the most important question looked into ways of solving the problem of insufficient home practice (Figure 3). Here the respondents were able to tick more than one option. The hypothesis that external motivators are predominant for the university students proved right, as the two most stimulating factors are related with the course organization. Namely, more than half of the students report that they cope with independent work better if they are given a detailed schedule of tasks’ submission times, so that they could plan their activity ahead, and their aspiration for meeting deadlines is stimulated by their eagerness to earn a positive mark automatically without having to take the examination. About a
third of the respondents appreciate a good relationship with the teacher as well as teacher’s willingness to constantly support the learners by either communicating with them or simply warning them against postponing the work. The same figure applies to personal motivation for improving the language skills. In fact, the majority of the suggested factors were chosen by about a third of the students, which might lead us to the conclusion that a complex of conditions shapes learners’ motivation for effective independent work. One unexpected outcome of this question was that the appearance of the study material does not seem to play an important role in fostering a learners’ enthusiasm.

**Conclusion**

This article addressed the issue of learners’ motivation for doing proper independent work throughout their university course. It appears that teachers need, from time to time, to remind themselves what it feels like to be a language learner. Not only can it reveal the constrains of the language learning process, but also help to discover the whole world of new opportunities for making the process more enjoyable and keeping motivation at high levels, which might increase the frequency and amount of students’ practice in the language. Although the students who participated in the survey acknowledge that it is better to study more often in smaller portions, they admit that their study habits leave much to be desired, naming the lack of time as the main reason for insufficient practice. Fortunately, there are many things that could be done to move independent work with the language to the top of students’ priorities: starting from a transparent system of tasks’ deadlines or creating a positive learning environment.

**REFERENCES**


The problem of levels of proficiency started to develop in Europe in the 70–80 years of the last century. The main results were published in the document [Common European Framework]. At that time there were distinguished six levels of proficiency:

1. A1 — Breakthrough;
2. A2 — Waystage;
3. B1 — Threshold;
4. B2 — Vantage;
5. C1 — Proficiency;

There was also a scale of levels of proficiency. We can underline the fact that a great job was done. Unfortunately Russian methodologists started to examine this problem only 20 years ago, almost 30 years later than in Europe. So there are some undecided points, one of them being the problem of determination of levels of proficiency of non-language departments’ students.

Up to the present moment Russian methodologists have pointed out only three levels of proficiency. They are concerning secondary schools:

- Level A1 is the 9th form;
- Level A2 is the 10th form;
- Level B1 is the 11th form.

As far as Russian higher education is concerned, there are some levels of proficiency of a foreign language:

- Bachelor;
- Magister;
- Post-graduate student.
We can see that there are not any links with the European level system here. This is a great problem for Russian higher education, and now a lot of methodologists are working on it. There are some undecided points and one of them is the problem of determination of levels of proficiency of non-language departments’ students. The process of teaching of a foreign language within non-language departments has its own peculiarities: few hours a week, a shortage of special optional courses and only two years of studying. So it is very important to know the level of proficiency of a foreign language of students on the first course, at the beginning of their study at university.

Usually, at the first lecture, teachers divide students of different faculties according to the alphabetical order. For example the whole group has 30 students. We need two groups of 15 students in each. The first 15 students, whose surnames start with A, B, C, or D and so on go to the first group and to one teacher of English, and others to the second group and to another teacher. Here difficulties arise. There are students with different levels of proficiency in one group. One student speaks fluently and wants to participate in every discussion, but another student cannot distinguish grammar forms well: s/he has poor language skills. It is rather difficult for a teacher to control these situations. We have developed the algorithm of a language proficiency determination. It is based on the system:

1. To distinguish and to name the levels at the beginning and at the end of studying.
2. To develop the criterions of an assessment of levels.
3. To create the system of well-constructed tests which help to distinguish foreign language levels of proficiency for students within non-language departments.

We have chosen tests as a form of knowledge control, because the results of the tests are easy to calculate, they do not depend on the mood of a teacher and the mathematical elements help to create really good tests. There are worked out speaking, listening comprehension, reading, writing, and lexical-grammar tests for students at the beginning of the study. We suggest fulfilling these tests at the beginning of the process of their studying a foreign language. The maximum points, which a student can get, are 106 points:

- listening comprehension — 12 points;
- reading — 18 points;
- speaking — 14 points;
- writing — 19 points;
- grammar — 43 points:
At the beginning of study, after the completion of all tests and according to the results, students are placed in three different groups. Those who get from 73 up to 106 points are in a group of a high level of proficiency. Students having from 32 up to 72 points are in a group of a satisfactory level of proficiency. Students getting less than 32 points study in a group of a shortage of knowledge of proficiency. During two years students are taught in different programs according to their level of knowledge. We worked out special exercises and recommendations for every group. For example, a group of a shortage of knowledge of proficiency turns out very weak. During testing they get the following points:

- listening comprehension — 17 %
- reading — 29 %
- speaking — 16 %
- writing — 33 %
- grammar — 36%.

We recommend a teacher, working in this group, to fulfil grammar tasks and listening comprehension tasks every lesson. For example, a teacher reads a text twice and then students are tested: a multiple-choice, true-false, completion and so on and then the retelling of the text. This form of a lesson needs only 15 minutes. To develop speaking skills, students in such a group make a lot of dialogues and monologues with the help of schemes and pictures. They learn by heart little verses, poems and so on. For the group of satisfactory level of proficiency we recommend to pay attention to films in English and then discuss them orally and in a written form. The outcome is the group of satisfactory level of proficiency shows ordinary results, not good not bad:

- listening comprehension — 55 %
- reading — 55 %
- speaking — 54 %
- writing — 66 %
- grammar 63 %.

And finally, the group at high level of proficiency shows the best results of following foreign language at the beginning of their study:

- listening comprehension — 83 %
- reading — 85 %
- speaking — 76 %
- writing — 87 %
- grammar — 80 %.
For this group we recommend case-classes on different topics (modern art, youth and tattoo, cultural behavior, ecological problems of Pskov region, communication at work, etc.). These lessons help students to develop the ability to speak fluently, to summarize, to defend their opinions, to find positive and negate size of different problems. During the next two years students are taught English in two different groups by different methods of teaching. At the end of the course we give them a new block of tests, more advanced and more difficult but reflecting the standard programme demands. Students have to get 135 points:

- listening comprehension — 18 points;
- reading — 18 points;
- speaking – 24 points;
- writing — 25 points;
- grammar — 50 points.

Those who get from 91 up to 135 points show the best results and their high level of proficiency at the end of study. Students getting from 46 up to 90 points show their satisfactory level of proficiency at the end of an English course at a non-language department. Students having less than 45 points belong to a 'shortage of knowledge' level.

Testing at the end of teaching shows that the results in our groups are much higher than when students are not divided according to their level of knowledge. The percent of students belonging to the shortage of knowledge level group at the beginning of a study becomes less at the end of the course.

We can point out that our methodology helps to us to work on one of the problems concerning the studying at non-language faculties. We are going to continue our research, to develop new levels of proficiency and to work out new systems of teaching.

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SUMMARIES

Ekaterina Alekseeva
Entrepreneurial Thinking in English Lessons
(Practice of Pskov Linguistic Gymnasium)

Problems of development of entrepreneurial thinking at school are studied in the article. The author shows how to use English lessons for development of entrepreneurship. Article includes the description of structure of entrepreneurial thinking, pedagogical methods and techniques and pedagogical conditions to develop entrepreneurial thinking.

Olga Chorosova
The Networking Organizations in Formation as the Tendency of Organizational Development in the Conditions of Globalization

The article focuses on one aspect of education promotion via networking organization, which is the development in teacher continuing professional education system. It is provided at the Teacher Enhancement Institute of North-Eastern Federal University named after M. K. Ammosov. Proposing educational community networking organizations and other decentralization modern forms dispose several common structural characteristics: bureaucratization and formalization refusal; information and career-oriented integration resources of high status as compared to technocratic and structural integration; link affiliated forms by means of alternative markets establishment.

The process of formation of networking organizations CPE is characterized by a backlog of fundamental scientific researches from practical experience. Organizational practice herewith is oriented to market requirements. From the scientific point of view the network approach should be considered as a comprehensible innovative principle of the organization of educational activity.
Elena Dolgikh
Typological Peculiarities of Media Texts within the Russian Network Press in the Aspect of Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language

This article is devoted to analysis of stylistic peculiarities of mass editions. It examines the importance of the network press in teaching the language and culture of the present-day mass media, as well as the Russian language stylistics at the advanced stage of teaching Russian as a foreign language. The paper proposes analysis of news stories from network press with regard for their genre-specific and genre-forming characteristics.

Being a source of linguistic-country-specific, linguistic-culturological and socio-linguistic material, the network newspaper must be thoroughly studied and analyzed for the aspects of teaching Russian as a foreign language, in order to duly form foreign students’ skills of working with the text of Russian network press media.

Rozaliya Gerasimova
A Multidisciplinary Approach to Specialists Training in CPE System with Combined Specialities

Russia should more effectively use the Bologna process for solving of educational problems of high education, and positioning Russian programmes at the regional and international market of educational services as the participant of pan-European space of the high education formation process. Russia followed Estonia and joined the Bologna process in 2003.

The Bologna process makes learning at university more democratic, more individual. It gives a student more choice and favourable conditions for her / his personal development.

Based on the Agreement between the two universities, the University of Tartu and the North-Eastern Federal University the courses of the Teachers Retraining Institute NEFU define the following approaches to the selection of content, which should allow to immerse students in the context of contemporary educational research and monitoring, and thus contribute to enhancing their professional outlook; to acquaint students with modern educational concepts and practices; to give the idea of modern Russian, the Republican situation in society and in education in particular.
The courses are based on the opportunities and challenges of the technological component of education, to promote the students’ ability to work in the new, ICT-rich learning environment.

Programmes focused on developing specific educational competencies:

- freely to navigate the challenges and prospects of development of education, modern educational technologies;
- have a range of analytical and reflective skills, providing an opportunity to initiate and implement projects of reform and modernization of education and education management system at the school, municipal and regional levels, using information and communication technologies;
- demonstrate skills in interpersonal, group and other communications for further self-education and teaching for effective professional practice and decision-making;
- get (to expand and develop) their knowledge and skills in academic work, psychology, engineering, and education research, taking into account the social practice, etc.

The multidisciplinary approach assumes not only an individual approach for each pupil, based on psychological, social characteristics, but the interaction of specialists in different branches of the University that would expand and complement the content, forms and methods of work.

Mei-Lan Huang
Language Education and Identity: A Case Study of Postcolonial Taiwan

This study is an analysis of the issues of the language education and identity in Taiwan. The purpose of this research is to analyze the relationship between the ideology of identity and its language education among the histories of inter-ethnic relations in Taiwan. Finally, the findings demonstrate that the politics of language education ideology has deep roots in the institutional homogeneous structure of the society, which results in the dilemma of language problems in Taiwan. In spite of this, in some context of the evolution of Taiwanese national identity, what the theorist’s paradigm case of (nation-state model) one language per country and one linguistic identity is challenged. So, the case of Taiwan shows both for and against the nation-state theory. In general, the research ends by outlining some conclusions, and some implications. That is, the historical
case of postcolonial Taiwan can serve as a good heuristic model for examining the histories of interethnic relation in nation identity formation (construction), and language education. Additionally, some suggestions and reflections for possible future research are presented. That is, the research’s focus on the curriculum and textbooks will be worth exploring in order to yield more insight into the interactive connection between language education and national identity.

Kristiina Jokinen
Multimodal Interaction in the Context of Foreign Language Learning

We express meanings by words, but communication in face-to-face interactions usually goes far beyond the spoken words: we effectively use multimodal signals to indicate our attitudes, understanding, and acceptance of the verbally expressed messages. Thus, in foreign language learning it is also important that the whole communicative situation, including social interaction and multimodal aspects, are taken into consideration: they are part of the fluent and accurate communication skills. This paper discusses issues that are related to multimodal communication in the context of foreign language learning. The focus is especially made on turn-taking and feedback, giving processes in constructive conversational interactions, and it is suggested that a video-based methodology to analyse and annotate conversational video data can be used as a tool and exercise to learn to recognize communicatively important multimodal signals.

Aet Kiisla
The Role of Public Administration Curriculum in University Community Service in a Geographical Periphery

The three roles of the higher education institution are teaching, research and community service. I am interested in if and how successfully it would be possible to serve the community through teaching public administration and developing the corresponding curriculum. As the basis I take the definition and explanations of community service from OECD, complement and compare them with examples from the speciality of Local Government’s Administration in Narva College of the University of Tartu, Estonia.

The imposed task enables being able to study, as a whole, such components as the curriculum design, the content of subjects, teaching and assessment
Summaries

methods, extracurricular activities, topics and supervising of students’ research, cooperation with local governments and other stakeholders. Functioning as a whole is a precondition for a high-quality curriculum and the glue for these components in the context of this article is community service.

Some of the results of the research are applicable to all Public Administration curricula, especially to those that act in regional units. Other results are more specific and they are meant to be applied in the development of the Local government’s administration curriculum in Narva College.

Elena Kochetkova
The Soviet-Finnish Forestry Cooperation in the Soviet Near-Border Area and Technology Transfer in 1953–1964

The paper deals with transfer of Western technologies into the Soviet forestry within the Soviet-Finnish cooperation in 1953–1964. It is focused on the area of Karelian Peninsula and Ladoga Karelia which was an emphasis in Nikita Khrushchev’s modernization of the forestry sector, as there were several large factories which produced pulp and paper. Specialists from the factories were sent to Finland within the Soviet-Finnish cooperation to study Western technologies while Finnish specialists came to the Soviet Union to share their experience. In this paper I examine their activities to bring technologies to the Soviet-Union.

Olga Luchka
Raising Students’ Motivation in the EFL Class through Multiple Intelligences Teaching Strategies

Over the centuries numerous educators, both theoretics and practitioners, have researched an immense field of pedagogy, looking for the best modes of teaching to meet the needs of learners. The 21st century is not an exception; moreover, it appears to be a challenge for teachers to recognize the realities they face nowadays.

At present there is a tendency that schooling in general, in the process of English language acquisition, draws mostly on the linguistic intelligence. Students are put under conditions of a regular language class where all the process of learning is aimed at achieving good academic results, doing standardised tests or performing satisfactorily on the state examinations in order to let the
school to survive in the world of high competitiveness. However, the spectrum of human capabilities to be nurtured and ways to be taught is much broader.

One of the main aims of education is to foster an individual as a successful member of the modern society with well-developed social skills, who is aware of his or her personal strengths and weaknesses, as well as being responsible for their development in future life. In other words, this narrow approach to learning focused mostly on students’ linguistic faculty ignores students’ wide range of intelligences, and hence deactivates their motivation in the process of learning English.

The implementation of Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences in an educational terrain may lead a teacher, who seeks modes to activate his or her students’ motivation, to the following findings:

- Students feel more confident when they are aware of their strongest intelligences.
- Students become more conscious about the studies when they know their own preferable learning styles.
- Students like their strengths to be addressed by the teacher.
- Students become more active participants in class when new material is presented in different ways according to their favourable ways to be taught.
- Students like to be assessed through the process of learning.
- Students become more responsible for the result of learning when they choose the way to be assessed.

Multiple intelligence teaching strategies can serve as an effective tool for a teacher to raise students’ motivation for learning in the EFL classroom.

Valentin Maksimov
Providing Resources for Teacher Continuing Education

One base direction under modern conditions of education system development is: training, retraining and skill upgrading of pedagogic and other education system employees; professional skill and labour quality upgrading of pedagogic, academic and other educational institution employees.

The article recounts the methodological foundations and the mechanisms of financing new model of outrun educator skill upgrading in the Russian Federation region-at-region principle. The foreign experience is extremely interesting during its development and realization.
Galina Maslova
University Language Area as a Factor that Enhances the Efficiency of Academic Mobility

Students and staff mobility has become an integral part of Russian universities’ activities. Enhancing mobility efficiency is regarded by universities as a primary task as universities’ efficiency is assessed by mobility indicators.

As it has been proved by the results of investigation, language problems appear to take the first place among the problems that hinder the participants of the educational process to enjoy the prospects of academic mobility. Therefore, the task for a university is to create the system of language learning that will have a positive impact on the motivation to academic mobility and will enhance its efficiency. The system encompasses different structural components such as language classes within the formal educational setting, extra-curriculum international research and socially important projects, language courses for special purposes, informal intercultural events that enhance motivation to language learning. The system also involves teachers through implementing language courses within the professional development segment and tutoring their activities that are related to internationalization of professional tasks: conducting lectures and workshops in English, assisting in presenting results of research in foreign journals, and etc. The umbrella of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) shelters all these components, which entail creating the university language area.

Vera Nesterova
Practical Applications of CLIL: Materials Selection and Lesson Planning at Post-graduate Level

It is well-grounded today that CLIL is a life-long concept that embraces all sectors of education from primary to adult. In Russia, CLIL application depends entirely on the teachers’ “free will”, on their personal choice, because CLIL is time and effort consuming and demands deeper knowledge of specific content areas. This approach has not yet been integrated into the Russian educational system, including CLIL teacher-training. The State standards at post-graduate level allow teachers to design programmes in case they satisfy the State standards and help post-graduate students achieve the goals of post-graduate education. The paper describes the principles of selecting materials for the programme “History of Science” as an example. The programme has been developed on
the basis of the Internet seminar “The Scientific Article: From Galileo’s New Science to the Human Genome” by Joseph E. Harmon and Alan G. Gross, and other Internet resources. Finally, the example of the lesson plan and teaching tasks demonstrate the practical approach to CLIL at the Department of Foreign Language Teaching and Translation of the Karelian Research Centre of the Russian Academy of Sciences.

**Nina Nikonova**

*English in the Classroom: An Overview of Modern Practices*

The paper discusses some current pedagogical ideas which reflect the situation of communication activity of the Russian teachers of English. One of the factors which influence the effectiveness of classroom communication is the quality of teaching / learning materials and the way they are used in class. The paper introduces five principles of effectively teaching English by teachers who are non-native speakers of English.

**Ágnes Pál**

*Geographical Background to the History of the Danube-Kris–Mures-Tisa Euroregion*

Research preliminaries include an investigation of the historical background of the settlements of the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa Euro-region. In November 1997 an agreement for regional cooperation was signed, which targeted the strengthening of the economic cooperation between four counties of Hungary, four counties of Romania and the Voivodina province of Yugoslavia. The agreement, concerning the cooperation within the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa Euro region, was officially approved.

The difficulty in this new development is that the countries concerned, that is Hungary, Romania, Serbia, represent different stages in the process of European integration. When investigating the area in question, several statistical publications, literary excerpts, scholarly works and our own questionnaires were surveyed and analyzed, as part of our empirical research. Asymmetries have been detected within the region concerning its economic development, the reasons of which lie in the area of human resources, and the heterogeneity of economic factors.
**Irina Petrova**  
Strategies for Successful Organization of Independent Work

Autonomous learning, distant courses, independent study skills, life-long education, and other related concepts have been buzzwords for quite a while. Unsurprisingly, the amount of homework at schools and universities has been increasing to such an extent that now there are subjects that are acquired partially or completely outside the classroom without the physical presence of the teacher. Studies show that courses conducted via the Internet can be as efficient as traditional learning. However, in case of students with initially low levels of motivation for self-study or lack of self-discipline, additional effort and subtlety of method are required on the teacher’s part to “help” the students regularly practice in a language. The aim of the article is thus to discuss possible ways of maintaining a learners’ engagement throughout the course. The first part of the article looks at some motivational strategies that contemporary online language learning services and courses employ to attract possibly larger audiences. The second part will report on the findings of a recent survey conducted at Virumaa College of Tallinn University of Technology revealing students’ opinions about what motivates them to study independently harder and more regularly.

**Nina Raud**  
Teaching English and Teaching in English: Conference Evidence from Narva

This paper introduces the outcomes of the international scientific conference “Teaching English and Teaching in English” held on November 1–2, 2012 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, 2010). The aim of the conference was to bring cultural awareness and innovation into content and language learning, and provide dissemination of research results in this field and discussion of best practices of English language teaching and learning. 110 participants from 11 countries joined the conference. The main topics of the conference were Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Foreign / English Language Teaching and Learning, Teacher Training for Multilingual and Mul-
Giovanni Savino

Galician-Russian Society and the Formation of a Russian Identity in Galicia, 1902–1916

The rebirth of interest in Panslavism at the beginning of the XX century in Russia was connected with the development of nationalism and the monarchist movement. The role of rightist intelligentsia was important in the formation of an ideological platform for conservations’ parties and organizations, and did much in the creation of a political spectrum and connections.

Galicia was the only eastern-slavic speaking region outside the Russian Empire, and it was at the centre of an irredentist propaganda by rightist intelligentsia: the foundation of Galician-Russian Society in 1902 by Anton Budilovich and other prominent monarchists was an evidence of growing an aggressive nationalist policy. After Budilovich, the role of Vladimir Bobrinskii and Dmitrii Vergun was fundamental in developing an irredentist network in Galicia and the Russian Empire, funding Russian schools and societies to develop the idea of an “All-Russian unity”.

The key role of Galitsko-Russkoe Obshchestvo in forging a Russian identity in a sensitive borderland and the funding of cultural and educational institutions (Stauropegian Institute, Kachkovsky Society, Russian cultural circles) was maybe overestimated by Habsburg authorities. But many Galicians went to Petersburg and Kiev to complete their studies, to have an “all-Russian” education.

The aim of this paper is to underline the effects of a “civic Russification” before WWI, and the role of Galician-Russian Society during the tsarist occupation of Galicia. Within it will be discussed ideas and positions of Galician “russophiles”, their cultural ties with Petersburg, and how they developed a conscious national orientation.
Nadezhda Shilova  
Russia’s Far East Continuing Professional Education  
Procedure New Regulations

The Teacher’s Retraining Institute (TRI) is a structural subdivision of the Federal state educational institution of higher education the “North-Eastern Federal University of M. K. Ammosov (NEFU), which implements educational programmes of continuing professional education of teachers.

The basis of training lies in new principles of training (result-oriented training, the use of funded credit-modular system, consistent development of individual modules, the emphasis on the autonomy of students, labor intensive calculation of the load), new forms of training (aimed at the improvement in the solution of practical problems), new modes of learning (individual programmes, the flexibility of educational groups, the proportionality of classroom and independent work), new principles to control the development of educational material (distributed control modules on the ratings of students and teachers, the management of individual paths of learning, etc.), new standardized means to support the educational process, including the Internet and IC technologies (unified database).

The educational process in the Teacher’s Retraining Institute of the NEFU for the effective organisation is based on the Individual Educational Route (further — IER) and allows the listener to construct their own content, timing, mode of training, taking into account personal needs. The Individual Educational Route of a student is implemented through an Individual Training Plan, which represents a set of modules, training programmes, in accordance with the chosen direction of a student.

Analysis of the questionnaires of project participants revealed: high level presentation of material in all units of the course content (theoretical and methodological foundations of the educational process — satisfaction index 0.12, psychological and pedagogical foundations of the educational process — satisfaction index — 0.10, 0.32 unit of general education).

The agreement between the two Universities, the University of Tartu and the North-Eastern Federal University inspires us to develop new regulations, methods, and technologies for organisation of Continuing Professional Education.

New regulations are necessary in procedure of Continuing Professional Education with international involvement.

Monitoring data would allow conclusions about the relevance and effectiveness of regulations imposed by the networking educational organisation at international and federal levels.
**Natalia Shlat, Alexander Orlov**
The Formation of Civic Identity in Preschool Children by Means of Logical Tasks (based on the architecture of St. Petersburg)

At preschool age acquaintance of children with culture of the hometown is an important means of formation of civil identity. But activity of the preschool child of 5–6 years is a little differentiated and a little arbitrary. Therefore, the interaction of a teacher with children should be carried out as an interesting game, and problem-cognitive activity aimed at solving practical and intellectual challenges.

In this regard we consider that effective formation of civil identity of preschool children will be promoted by use of logical tasks in educational activity. The logical task is an instruction on need to carry out certain actions: to compare, exclude, continue, establish connection between objects. Logical tasks have entertaining character, are interesting to children because they are visual.

Logical tasks are based on certain contents. The architecture of the hometown which reflects city history and lives of citizens. It influences on their consciousness and psychology.

The child, who was born in Sankt-Petersburg, gets to experience the unique multicultural environment. It is very important, that it felt by her / himself as being an integral part of the city.

Studying by the child of preschool age, of the architecture of Sankt-Petersburg by means of logical tasks promotes, on the one hand, formation of civil and ethnic identity of the child and her / his deep acquaintance to the hometown; with another — to cognitive and personal development of the child because it increases the active dictionary, mathematical representations develop, sensory and logic actions of the child.

**Petr Skryabin, Julia Skryabina**
Informative Communication Technologies as Teacher’s Professional Development Resource

Widespread informative communication technologies are present in all human activities spheres and the information growing role make changes in modern society life. Information technologies, communication devices and global development over the period of many decades promotes significant improvement of distribution methods, information collection and processing, information work speedup and information work quality improvement.
The article presents the “WEBKAFEDRA” portal, a distant educational sphere, which is organized to make possible the individual choosing of topics for independent research — through information resources broad access, through continuing pedagogic support, individual support and consultation, opportunity get to know in education and other contexts.

**Grigory Suzi**  
The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga Area in 1940–1941 as a Kind of «Frontier»?

The title deals with the research of developing “the new districts” of Karelia, which were annexed from Finland to the USSR after the Winter War in 1940. The period 1940–1941 can be thought as the transition stage, the first (unsuccessful) attempt of its Soviet development because this region was under Finnish control from 1941 to 1944.

The Karelian Isthmus and Northern Ladoga area had some features of a frontier zone in this period, therefore it cannot be thought as real Soviet territories. The term “frontier” is used in the wider meaning than “a border” after The Frontier Thesis of Frederick Jackson Turner. Despite the fact that the region, de jure, became part of the Soviet Union under the terms of the Moscow peace treaty, these territories did not become de facto Soviet immediately. The Soviet government was confronted by difficulties organizing authority and resettling the citizens to new areas. At the same time, the Soviet authorities and common people attempted to adapt Finnish material heritage for the Soviet style of life, but it was a complicated task.

After the final annex in 1944 this region remained a border area, but it was slowly losing the characteristics of a frontier zone in multiple senses, including the changing relations between the Soviet Union and Finland.

**Éva Ujlakyné Szűcs**  
Teaching English in English at Kecskemét College in Hungary

In this article an exploration of the present state and results of an EFL teacher-training programme for primary schools will be made. Initial foreign language teacher education at teacher training colleges started in the 1970s and after several changes its present curriculum was launched in 1995. The aim of the training programme is to prepare future primary school classroom teachers to
teach English as a foreign language in the first four years of learners’ compulsory schooling. When the training was 10 years old (2006), the programme was evaluated, and it was also determined how to develop. Half a decade has passed and now it is time to examine it again so that we can explore still existing problems, we can set new tasks for future development and to preserve useful parts of the training in the constant process of change. The examination might prove that teaching English in English can be effective both in initial EFL teacher training and in young learners’ English classes.

**Elena Trifonova**
Determination of Foreign Language Proficiency of Non-Language Departments’ Students.

Our research deals with the problem of determination of levels of proficiency of students who are studying within different non-language faculties. It is very important to know the level of proficiency of every student at the very beginning of studying foreign languages. We have developed the algorithm of language proficiency determination. It is based on the system: 1) to distinguish levels at the beginning and at the end of studying; 2) to develop criterions of assessment of levels; 3) to create the system of well-constructed tests which help to distinguish foreign language levels of proficiency of non-language departments’ students.

Due to the testing results students were placed in different groups and have been teaching in different programs according to their level of knowledge for two years. Testing at the end of studying showed that the results in these groups were higher than in usual groups, where students were not divided.

**Enn Veldi**
Teaching How to Use Dictionaries Better

The article summarizes my fifteen-year experience of teaching a course that focuses on skills of dictionary use. Most people believe that they know how to use dictionaries. Unfortunately, this is far from being the case and some expert guidance and training is needed for students and teachers alike (as well as parents of young students).
The first area that needs attention is knowledge of the existing lexicographic resources (general, learners’, and specialized dictionaries; monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual dictionaries, etc.). Dictionaries come in more varieties than we tend to think; thus, one has to be able to pick an appropriate dictionary to suit our needs. Also, one has to know the strengths and weaknesses of each dictionary format, such as print, CD-ROM, and online dictionaries. Expert dictionary users can be trained only through practice. Also, they need to develop expertise that enables them to assess dictionaries that they come across. Some training is devoted to solving problems when a word (or a sense) is not listed in dictionaries.
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